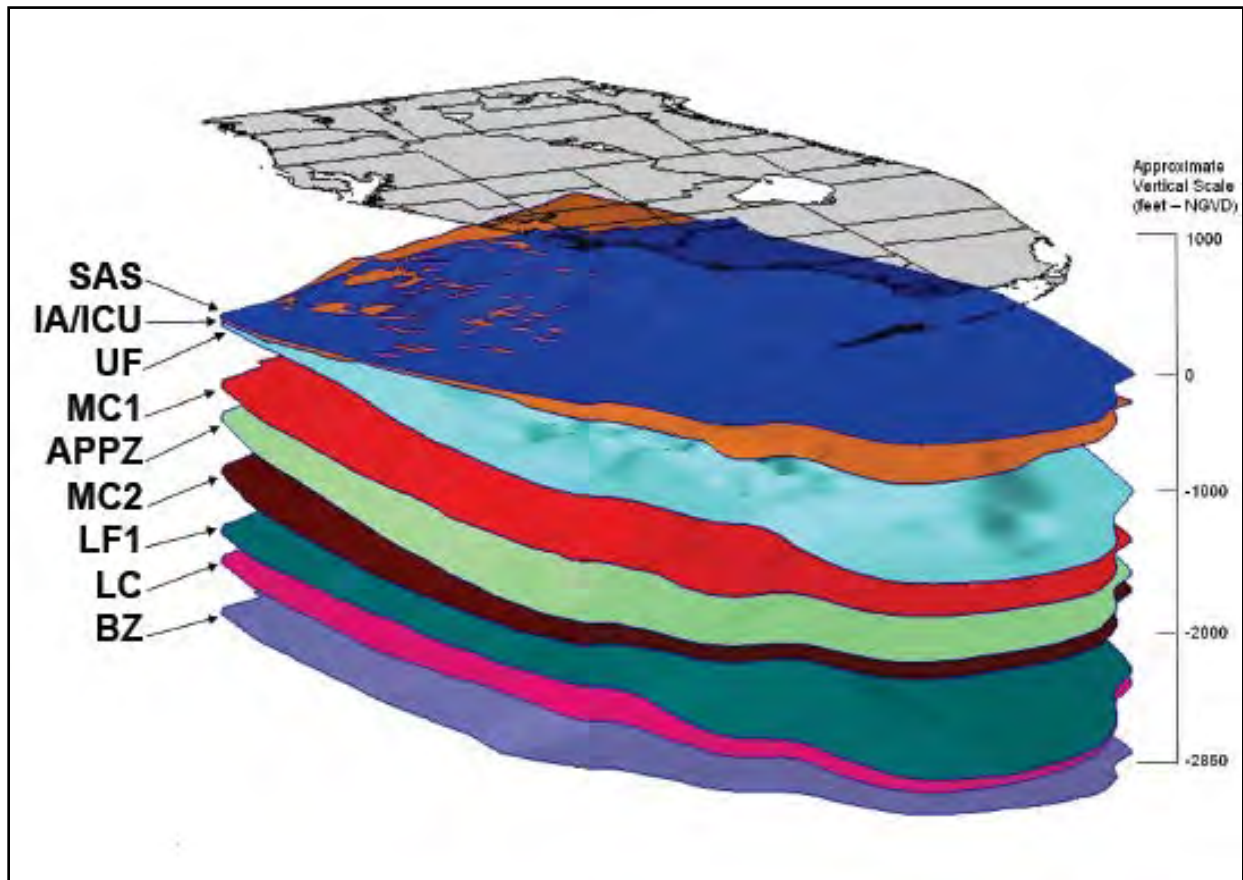


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CENTRAL AND SOUTHERN FLORIDA PROJECT  
COMPREHENSIVE EVERGLADES RESTORATION PLAN



DRAFT TECHNICAL DATA REPORT  
AQUIFER STORAGE AND RECOVERY REGIONAL STUDY  
October 2014



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Cover photo: Hydrostratigraphic layers defined in the Regional ASR groundwater flow model. Figure from USACE (2011).

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CENTRAL & SOUTH FLORIDA  
COMPREHENSIVE EVERGLADES RESTORATION PLAN

DRAFT

REGIONAL AQUIFER STORAGE AND RECOVERY  
TECHNICAL DATA REPORT

OCTOBER 2014

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| 25 |  |       |

## 1 List of Acronyms

|    |            |   |
|----|------------|---|
| 2  | ANOVA      | Analysis of variance  |
| 3  | APPA       | Artesian pressure protection area                             |
| 4  | APPZ       | Avon Park Permeable Zone                                      |
| 5  | APT        | Aquifer Performance Test                                      |
| 6  | ASR        | Aquifer Storage and Recovery                                  |
| 7  | ASRRS      | ASR Regional Study  |
| 8  | ASTM       | American Society for the Testing of Materials                 |
| 9  | AWS        | Alternative water supply                                      |
| 10 | BGD        | billion gallons per day                                       |
| 11 | BLS        | below land surface  |
| 12 | BZ         | Boulder zone  |
| 13 | C&SF       | Central and South Florida Project                             |
| 14 | CEPP       | Central Everglades Planning Project                           |
| 15 | CERP       | Comprehensive Everglades Restoration Plan                     |
| 16 | CHD        | Specified Head Package (in SEAWAT)                            |
| 17 | CMP        | Common mid-point  |
| 18 | CRASR      | Caloosahatchee River ASR system                               |
| 19 | CROGEE     | Committee for Restoration of the Greater Everglades Ecosystem |
| 20 | CT         | Computed tomography   |
| 21 | %CV        | Percent coefficient of variation                              |
| 22 | DO         | Dissolved oxygen  |
| 23 | DOC        | Dissolved organic carbon                                      |
| 24 | E          | Modulus of elasticity   |
| 25 | EFDC       | Environmental fluid dynamics code                             |
| 26 | EIS        | Environmental impact statement                                |
| 27 | ELM        | Everglades landscape model                                    |
| 28 | ENP        | Everglades National Park                                      |
| 29 | EPA        | Everglades protection area                                    |
| 30 | ERA        | Ecological Risk Assessment                                    |
| 31 | ERDC       | Engineer Research & Development Center                        |
| 32 | FAS        | Floridan Aquifer System                                       |
| 33 | FDEP       | Florida Department of Environmental Protection                |
| 34 | FEB        | Flow equalization basin                                       |
| 35 | FETAX      | Frog embryo teratogenesis assay- <i>Xenopus</i>               |
| 36 | FFWCC      | Floridan Fish and Wildlife Conservation Commission            |
| 37 | FGS        | Florida Geological Survey                                     |
| 38 | FIB        | Fecal indicator bacteria                                      |
| 39 | FS         | Factor of safety  |
| 40 | GIS        | Geographic information system                                 |
| 41 | HASR       | Hillsboro ASR system  |
| 42 | IAS        | Intermediate Aquifer System                                   |
| 43 | ICU        | Intermediate Confining Unit                                   |
| 44 | IMC        | Interagency Modeling Center                                   |
| 45 | KRASR      | Kissimmee River ASR system                                    |
| 46 | $K_x, K_y$ | Hydraulic conductivity in the x- and y-directions             |
| 47 | LC         | Lower confining unit  |



|    |            |  |
|----|------------|--|
| 1  | LEC        | Lower east coast   |
| 2  | LFA/LFA1   | Lower Floridan Aquifer (zone 1)                                  |
| 3  | LOEM       | Lake Okeechobee environmental model                              |
| 4  | LOOPS      | Lake Okeechobee operations planning spreadsheet                  |
| 5  | MC1, MC2   | Middle Confining Unit 1 (upper); Middle Confining Unit 2 (lower) |
| 6  | MDWASD     | Miami-Dade Water and Sewer Department                            |
| 7  | MFA        | Middle Floridan Aquifer  |
| 8  | MFL        | Minimum flows and levels   |
| 9  | MHASR      | Moorehaven ASR system  |
| 10 | MOC        | Method of characteristics  |
| 11 | MSS        | Multi-spectral scanner   |
| 12 | NAS        | National Academy of Sciences                                     |
| 13 | NELAP      | National Environmental Laboratory Accreditation Program          |
| 14 | NEEPP      | Northern Everglades and Estuaries Protection Plan                |
| 15 | NGVD       | National Geodetic Vertical Datum                                 |
| 16 | NPDES      | National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System                  |
| 17 | NRC        | National Research Council  |
| 18 | NTU        | Nephelometric Turbidity Units                                    |
| 19 | ORP        | Oxidation-reduction potential                                    |
| 20 | OTU        | Operational taxonomic units                                      |
| 21 | PDT        | Project delivery team  |
| 22 | PMASR      | Port Mayaca ASR system   |
| 23 | PMP        | Project management plan  |
| 24 | PPDR       | Pilot project design report                                      |
| 25 | RASRSM     | Regional ASR Study Model   |
| 26 | RFGW       | Regional Floridan ground water (network)                         |
| 27 | RFP        | Request for proposal   |
| 28 | ROMP       | Regional observation monitoring program                          |
| 29 | SAS        | Surficial Aquifer System   |
| 30 | SAV        | Submerged aquatic vegetation                                     |
| 31 | SDWA       | Safe Drinking Water Act  |
| 32 | SJRWMD     | St. Johns River Water Management District                        |
| 33 | SFWMD      | South Florida Water Management District                          |
| 34 | SFWMM      | South Florida Water Management Model                             |
| 35 | SFERWG     | South Florida Ecosystem Restoration Working Group                |
| 36 | SFNRC      | South Florida Natural Resources Center                           |
| 37 | SOFIA      | South Florida Information Access                                 |
| 38 | SSM        | Source and Sink Mixing package (in SEAWAT)                       |
| 39 | STA        | Stormwater treatment area  |
| 40 | SWFWMD     | Southwest Florida Water Management District                      |
| 41 | SZMW       | Storage zone monitor well  |
| 42 | $T_x, T_y$ | Transmissivity in the x- and y-directions                        |
| 43 | TDS        | Total dissolved solids   |
| 44 | TH         | Total head   |
| 45 | TOC        | Total organic carbon   |
| 46 | TP         | Total phosphorus   |
| 47 | TVD        | Total variation diminishing (method)                             |
| 48 | UFA        | Upper Floridan Aquifer   |

|    |       |                                      |
|----|-------|--------------------------------------|
| 1  | UIC   | Underground injection control        |
| 2  | USACE | US Army Corps of Engineers           |
| 3  | USDW  | Underground source of drinking water |
| 4  | USEPA | US Environmental Protection Agency   |
| 5  | USFWS | US Fish & Wildlife Service           |
| 6  | USGS  | US Geological Survey                 |
| 7  | UV    | Ultraviolet                          |
| 8  | WCA   | Water conservation area              |
| 9  | WRDA  | Water resources development act      |
| 10 | WQCE  | Water quality criterion exemption    |

## 11 List of Units

|    |   |   |
|----|---|---|
| 12 | ac-ft                                     | acre-feet   |
| 13 | cfs                                       | cubic feet per second                                   |
| 14 | CFU                                       | colony forming unit                                     |
| 15 | ft  | feet, foot  |
| 16 | ft <sup>2</sup> /day                      | foot-squared per day                                    |
| 17 | ha  | hectares  |
| 18 | hrs                                       | hours   |
| 19 | Hz  | hertz   |
| 20 | in  | inch  |
| 21 | log <sub>10</sub> (CFU*mL <sup>-1</sup> ) | log <sub>10</sub> (colony forming units per milliliter) |
| 22 | µg/L                                      | micrograms per liter                                    |
| 23 | µm  | micrometer, micron                                      |
| 24 | m   | meter   |
| 25 | md  | millidarcy  |
| 26 | mg/kg                                     | milligram per kilogram (parts per million)              |
| 27 | mg/L                                      | milligram per liter                                     |
| 28 | MGD                                       | million gallons per day                                 |
| 29 | MG  | million gallons   |
| 30 | mL  | milliliter  |
| 31 | MPa                                       | megapascals   |
| 32 | mTons/yr                                  | million tons per year                                   |
| 33 | NTU                                       | Nephelometric turbidity units                           |
| 34 | PCU                                       | platinum cobalt units                                   |
| 35 | psi                                       | pounds per square inch                                  |
| 36 |   |   |

## 1 Foreward

2 The U.S. Army Corp of Engineers and the South Florida Water Management District are pleased to  
3 present this Technical Data Report for the Aquifer Storage and Recovery Regional Study. To demonstrate  
4 what has been accomplished during the course of this project, this foreword provides a brief history of  
5 the Comprehensive Everglades Restoration Plan's (CERP) ASR Program.

6  
7 In 1999, up to 333 Aquifer Storage and Recovery (ASR) wells were proposed by the CERP to recharge,  
8 store and recover water underground to ensure water for the Everglades and natural systems, improve  
9 conditions in Lake Okeechobee and minimize damaging releases of fresh water to coastal estuaries.  
10 Acknowledging this unprecedented scale of ASR technology proposed, the plan included pilot projects to  
11 address and reduce uncertainties about its use.

12  
13 Concerns have been expressed about the use of ASR in the CERP: possible fracturing of rock formations  
14 and the movement of stored water within the aquifer; perceived growth management conflicts;  
15 preference for "natural" rather than "artificial or engineered" solutions; or possible increases in  
16 groundwater arsenic concentrations, for example.

17  
18 Technical uncertainties about ASR have also been numerous and varied, especially due to limited  
19 understanding of regional-scale ASR implementation. These questions prompted the formation of a  
20 multiagency team of scientists, engineers and planners to develop plans for and conduct the CERP ASR  
21 Regional Study, in coordination with the ASR pilot projects. Designed to evaluate CERP ASR feasibility,  
22 the plans were approved in 2002–2003 and an intensive data collection effort began.

23  
24 Today, despite tremendous challenges and constraints, many studies have been performed by our  
25 organizations and others and a great deal of knowledge has been gained about ASR for the CERP.  
26 Significant contributions to this work effort have been made by the United States Geological Survey, the  
27 Florida Geological Survey, the Florida Department of Environmental Protection and the United States  
28 Fish and Wildlife Service, to name a few. The best available data and state-of-the-art methods and  
29 models have been used throughout the study process. This report documents the results of over a  
30 decade of scientific and engineering investigations. Summaries of research and results are presented in  
31 this volume and the attached CD contains expanded documentation of each study. This publication  
32 continues our commitment to communicate with the public as work progresses toward restoration of  
33 the south Florida ecosystem.

34

## 1 How To Read This Document

2 Certain practitioners will be more interested in some sections than others, so the following lists chapters  
3 of interest by sub-discipline. All readers should consult the **Executive Summary** and **Chapter 1**,  
4 Introduction and Authorization, to gain an understanding of the background of the CERP ASR technical  
5 program. **Chapter 2** contains descriptions of some “early evaluations” that were conducted when this  
6 project was first initiated, along with related CERP and non-CERP projects, and summaries of the CERP  
7 ASR pilot project results. For more information about the ASR pilot projects – specifically the Kissimmee  
8 River and Hillsboro ASR systems, the reader is also encouraged to review the Technical Data Report for  
9 them, published in 2013.

10 **Hydrogeologic Framework and Geotechnical Evaluations for ASR Operations – Chapter 3** describes the  
11 development of a conceptual hydrogeologic framework for the Floridan Aquifer System (FAS). Also  
12 included here are studies to define hydraulic characteristics of permeable zones in the FAS, and analyses  
13 of borehole geophysical and seismic reflection data to evaluate subsurface structural geology. **Chapter**  
14 **4** summarizes geotechnical analyses to evaluate the potential for rock fracturing and subsidence during  
15 ASR operations.

16 **Native Surface and Groundwater Quality Evaluations for ASR Operations - Chapter 5** summarizes  
17 native surface and groundwater quality around Lake Okeechobee. Selected wet- and dry-season surface  
18 water quality characteristics are characterized in the context of operating the water treatment  
19 components of an ASR system. Native groundwater quality also is characterized with implications for  
20 percent recovery, potential for calcium carbonate dissolution, and arsenic mobilization. **Chapter 6**  
21 summarizes studies to characterize native subsurface microbial communities in the FAS, and  
22 implications for survival of fecal indicator bacteria such as coliforms.

23 **Regional Groundwater Flow Model and Simulations of Regional ASR Implementation. Chapter 7**  
24 presents the development of the groundwater model, which evaluates regional hydraulic effects of  
25 operation of the ASR wells envisioned by CERP, including an estimate of total number of ASR wells that  
26 could safely be implemented under the program. Familiarity with the hydrogeological framework in  
27 **Chapter 3** is helpful for full understanding of this model.

28 **Ecotoxicological Studies and Ecological Risk Assessment.** Chapter 8 presents the ecological evaluations  
29 that were undertaken to determine the effects of water recovered from the CERP ASR systems on the  
30 greater Everglades environment, including the findings of an ecological risk assessment.

31 **Addressing Concerns of Stakeholders, the National Research Council, and the ASR Issue Team.**  
32 Chapter 9 presents a synthesis of findings of the individual studies conducted during this project, and  
33 formats them as responses to the technical concerns that had been raised by the 1999 ASR Issue team  
34 and later recommendations that were made by CROGEE.

## 1 Executive Summary

### 2 Synopsis

3 This report summarizes a 12-year effort to assess the regional feasibility of constructing Aquifer Storage  
4 and Recovery (ASR) wells throughout south Florida as a component of the Comprehensive Everglades  
5 Restoration Plan (CERP). This project was conducted by a multi-agency, multi-disciplinary team of  
6 scientists and engineers who formulated and executed numerous investigations in response to critiques  
7 and recommendations by the National Research Council's Committee on Restoration of the Greater  
8 Everglades Ecosystem (CROGEE). In tandem with this project, the United States Army Corps of  
9 Engineers and South Florida Water Management District constructed and tested two ASR pilot facilities  
10 adjacent to Lake Okeechobee and the Hillsboro Canal, to determine site-specific aspects of ASR system  
11 permitting, design, operation, and testing. The results from the ASR pilot projects have been integrated  
12 into the regional synthesis of information contained herein.

13 Hydrogeologic evaluations were conducted in coordination with the United States Geological Survey and  
14 the Florida Geological Survey to fill data gap areas with new wells, aquifer tests, seismic surveys, and  
15 geophysical measurements. This work resulted in a new synthesis of the hydrostratigraphy and  
16 structure of the Floridan Aquifer System (FAS) throughout south Florida. Groundwater levels and quality  
17 within the FAS were also documented and mapped as a result of an extensive groundwater monitoring  
18 program. Rock cores and geotechnical analyses were integrated with this evaluation, to determine the  
19 safe operating pressures that would not result in fracturing or subsidence of strata near the ASR wells.

20 Geochemical evaluations took place during testing of the ASR pilot facilities, including construction of  
21 geochemical models based on actual recovered water quality. Concerns about the mobilization of  
22 metals resulting from leaching of the aquifer matrix prompted extensive bench-top evaluation of water-  
23 rock interactions by the Florida Geological Survey and extensive monitoring of surface and groundwater  
24 quality at the Kissimmee River ASR system during operational testing.

25 These data were then used to construct a three-dimensional, density-dependent groundwater flow  
26 model that was used to predict the number and approximate locations of ASR wells that might  
27 reasonably be operated without causing adverse impacts to existing users, the strata, and groundwater  
28 regime.

29 In addition to questions about the physical effects of ASR operation, a number of analyses were  
30 conducted to ascertain the ecological responses that might occur from water recovered from ASR  
31 systems. As part of this effort, a 3-year "pre-ASR" baseline environmental survey was performed,  
32 including source water quality, sedimentologic, vegetation, and fish and macroinvertebrate assessment  
33 was conducted at locations where ASR was envisioned, to establish existing environmental conditions,  
34 so that comparisons could be made whenever ASR operation might commence. Toxicity tests and  
35 bioaccumulation studies were performed on organisms placed within the stream of water recovered  
36 from the ASR systems.

1 Data from the pilot projects, the groundwater model, baseline ecological studies, and geochemical  
2 analyses were then integrated into a comprehensive, regional environmental risk assessment (ERA).  
3 Evaluation of the potential for mercury methylation resulting from ASR was included in the ERA.

4 **Essential findings from this project are as follows:**

- 5 • Large capacity ASR systems can be built and operated in south Florida. However, variability in  
6 aquifer characteristics will result in varying well performances and makes it prudent to conduct  
7 an exploratory program before constructing surface facilities.
- 8 • To date, no “fatal flaws” have been uncovered that might hinder the implementation of CERP  
9 ASR, although the results of the groundwater modeling evaluation indicate that overall number  
10 of wells should be reduced from 333 wells to approximately 140 wells, completed in the upper  
11 and middle zones of the FAS.
- 12 • The potential for rock fracturing and land subsidence resulting from ASR is very low, provided  
13 that the wells are spaced at safe distances from each other and that pumping pressures are kept  
14 low.
- 15 • Despite generally favorable results from the ASR pilot projects, the surface water in south  
16 Florida presents some challenges to conventional disinfection technologies. Also, arsenic  
17 mobilization occurs during early cycle testing, but attenuates over time as the storage zone is  
18 conditioned.
- 19 • Water recovered from the ASR pilot projects did not result in any quantifiable acute or chronic  
20 toxicological effects on tested species, with the exception of a temporal inhibition of  
21 reproduction of a cladoceran, which should be verified by additional testing. Mussels and  
22 periphytometers deployed in the recovery stream at the Kissimmee River ASR did not exhibit  
23 significant negative bioaccumulation affects or shifts in community composition.
- 24 • The potential from mercury methylation from storage and recovery of water from within the  
25 FAS has been determined to be very low. However, groundwater from the FAS has sulfate  
26 concentrations that are higher than those in surface water, so recovery of ASR systems should  
27 be maintained so as not to result in deleterious concentrations of that constituent.
- 28 • Some reduction in phosphorus concentration was observed during ASR storage. This process is  
29 postulated to result from microbial uptake, aquifer matrix filtration, or mineral precipitation.  
30 The phenomenon should be considered when selecting ASR locations for maximum benefit.
- 31 • Implementation of CERP ASR should proceed in a phased approach, which includes expansion  
32 and continued testing of pilot facilities and construction of new ASR systems at environmental  
33 restoration features that could be optimized by underground water storage, treatment, and  
34 recovery.

35 **Narrative**

36 Aquifer Storage and Recovery (ASR) is defined as the storage of excess water in an aquifer via a dual-  
37 purpose well for subsequent recovery when needed. ASR technology offers the potential to store and  
38 supply vast quantities of water without the need for large tracts of land, and as such it was included as a  
39 vital component of the Comprehensive Everglades Restoration Plan (CERP) being implemented by the

1 United States Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) and the South Florida Water Management District  
2 (SFWMD).

3 The Central & Southern Florida Project Comprehensive Review Study (Restudy; USACE and SFWMD,  
4 1999) recommended the construction and operation of up to 333 ASR wells located in clusters  
5 throughout south Florida accounting for approximately 70 percent of the CERP system-wide water  
6 storage capacity. The unprecedented scale of ASR proposed in the Restudy led to public concerns about  
7 the application of ASR for Everglades restoration. The concerns included a range of issues including the  
8 potential for groundwater and surface water quality degradation associated with ASR operations, and  
9 subsequent effects on people and ecosystems; and the overall feasibility of regional scale ASR  
10 operations, including its impact on other users and the potential to induce structural damage to the  
11 aquifer. To address public concerns, identify uncertainties, and review the potential for regional-scale  
12 ASR implementation in Florida, the South Florida Ecosystem Restoration Working Group formed the ASR  
13 Issue Team in September 1998. The ASR Issue Team, as well as the National Research Council's  
14 Committee on Restoration of the Greater Everglades Ecosystem (CROGEE), developed a series of reports  
15 between 1999 and 2002 that provided recommended actions specific to ASR implementation in south  
16 Florida. The intent of these reports was to identify the additional information needed to reduce  
17 uncertainties surrounding implementation of ASR at a regional scale.

18 In response to the recommendations defined by the Working Group and the CROGEE, two related  
19 efforts were initiated: the ASR Regional Study, and the associated CERP ASR Pilot Projects at Kissimmee  
20 River and Hillsboro. The primary reference for results of the CERP ASR Pilot Projects is in a separate  
21 technical data report published previously (USACE and SFWMD, 2013). The following is a summation of  
22 knowledge gained since the Restudy on findings relevant to the feasibility of CERP ASR implementation.  
23 This work represents the efforts of a multiagency, multidisciplinary team of hydrogeologists, engineers,  
24 and environmental scientists who have developed plans, responded to reviews and critiques,  
25 formulated strategies, and conducted experiments to answer technical questions about the role of ASR  
26 in the CERP.

27 Results obtained from operations of the ASR pilot systems provided field data to augment scientific and  
28 engineering studies that have been conducted that helped determine:

- 29 • Optimal operations to maximize recharge, storage, and recovery;
- 30 • The effectiveness of water treatment technologies prior to recharge;
- 31 • Water-quality changes that take place during recharge, storage, and recovery;
- 32 • The potential for mercury methylation during ASR storage;
- 33 • The relationship between storage zone properties and recovery efficiency;
- 34 • The water-rock interactions and geochemical reactions within the aquifer;
- 35 • The impact of recovered water on test organisms through extended bioassay testing in  
36 laboratory and field settings; and
- 37 • The extent to which regulatory compliance during ASR cycle testing with regard to all relevant  
38 state and federal laws can be achieved without exemptions.

## 1 Hydrogeologic Investigations

2 A collaborative effort was undertaken by the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS), Florida Geological Survey  
3 (FGS), USACE, and SFWMD to conduct a thorough review of available scientific literature on the  
4 hydrogeology of south Florida and compile the information into a working database. While building the  
5 database, numerous areas of missing information, or “data gaps” were identified. Extensive geological  
6 and geophysical investigations were then performed to fill in the missing information – including  
7 construction of seven new test wells and core borings throughout south Florida but focused on the pilot  
8 project sites. A regional, synoptic survey of ground water quality was completed to characterize the  
9 upper and middle portions of the Floridan Aquifer System (FAS) prior to ASR pilot system construction.  
10 Information collected at these sites has been used to establish baseline conditions prior to initiating  
11 pilot project cycle testing. The data collected has led to a more comprehensive understanding of water  
12 levels and water quality in the FAS, and has facilitated calibration of the regional groundwater flow and  
13 solute transport model.

14 A major contribution of the ASR Regional Study is the refined hydrogeologic framework for south  
15 Florida. A preliminary framework was published in 2008, which synthesized a significant amount of  
16 hydrologic, hydraulic, lithologic, and stratigraphic data to better define subsurface conditions in the FAS.  
17 One of the major findings of this report was the definition of the Avon Park Permeable Zone (APPZ),  
18 which is a regionally extensive permeable zone formerly known as part of the Middle Floridan Aquifer of  
19 southeastern Florida. An update to the preliminary hydrogeologic framework was published in 2014,  
20 which incorporated all data surrounding Lake Okeechobee obtained since 2008, along with seismic  
21 reflection survey interpretations beneath the Lake. The 2014 update identified geologic features that  
22 could affect ASR system placement and well construction. For example, the contact between the Ocala  
23 Limestone and overlying Hawthorn Group sediments was mapped throughout the study area, which  
24 defines the upper portion of a typical storage zone and overlying confining unit. Faults, fractures, and  
25 karst collapse structures also were identified in the upper portions of the FAS.

## 26 Geophysical and Geotechnical Investigations

27 While drilling the test wells and exploratory wells at the proposed CERP ASR pilot project sites, extensive  
28 geophysical logging was completed to gather data on a range of hydrogeologic parameters including  
29 porosity, fracture potential, and the degree of confinement, all of which have aided in the  
30 understanding of patterns of flow and suitability at specific areas for ASR wells. Two reports were  
31 completed to evaluate pressure-induced fracturing: A desk-top analysis and a more detailed  
32 investigation based on geotechnical data from cores at proposed ASR system locations around Lake  
33 Okeechobee. These investigations concluded that there is a low risk for single-well ASR operations, or  
34 multi-well operations with adequate spacing, to induce fracturing of the aquifer matrix (Suwannee  
35 Limestone and Ocala Limestone) under normal operating conditions required by permit. The  
36 geotechnical analysis was conservative in that several failure mechanisms were investigated, with  
37 microfracturing of limestone being the most likely result. Induced microfracturing was evaluated with a  
38 factor of safety so that minimum pressure thresholds for the onset of microfracturing were defined.



1 Minimum pressures to induce microfracturing, with a 10 percent factor of safety, ranged between 85 psi  
2 and 149 psi for all proposed ASR systems. Propagation of shear fracture into the overlying Hawthorn  
3 Group confining unit also was determined to be unlikely. A more regional evaluation of fracturing  
4 potential was conducted as part of the regional groundwater flow model as discussed below.

5 To understand the location and direction of preferential flow in the FAS from a regional perspective, a  
6 lineament analysis was completed over the entire CERP ASR footprint. This analysis linked topographic  
7 features and known geologic formations to map linear trends in limestone formations, identify potential  
8 existing fractures, and from this extrapolate the degree and orientation of anisotropy, which is one  
9 factor controlling groundwater flow. The Restudy proposed several ASR well clusters along the  
10 perimeter of Lake Okeechobee; however, little was known of the hydrogeology beneath the lake. In  
11 2007, a marine seismic reflection survey was conducted on Lake Okeechobee and found that the upper  
12 portion of the FAS is laterally continuous under the lake. This information led to the development of a  
13 new hydrogeologic framework for the FAS that was then integrated into a regional groundwater model.  
14 This information, combined with other regional geological, hydrogeological and geotechnical data, led to  
15 the development in 2008 of a new hydrogeologic framework for the FAS that was integrated into the  
16 regional groundwater flow model. Marine seismic reflection data beneath Lake Okeechobee were  
17 incorporated into an updated hydrogeologic framework published in 2014. The revised hydrogeologic  
18 framework confirmed layering of the regional groundwater flow model in the region beneath Lake  
19 Okeechobee.

## 20 **Geochemical Studies**

21 In 2004, water chemistry data from 11 potable water ASR facilities in south Florida were compiled to  
22 characterize the changes in water quality that occur during ASR cycle testing. This report noted some  
23 initial water-quality changes that occurred during storage, including evolution of hydrogen sulfide and  
24 ammonia as a result of microbe-mediated reactions in the storage zone. Wells located in Lee and  
25 Hendry Counties, where the Upper Floridan Aquifer (UFA) is included within the Arcadia Formation,  
26 show naturally occurring gross alpha radioactivity and elevated activity of radium isotopes. ASR systems  
27 located in these regions could have recovered water that exceeds State and Federal criteria with regard  
28 to these radionuclides.

29 Mixing of recharged freshwater and native groundwater during cycle testing is an important control of  
30 geochemical reactions in the storage zone. Chloride is a conservative tracer of native groundwater, so  
31 changes in chloride concentrations can indicate how recharge water displaces and mixes with native  
32 groundwater during a cycle test. In 2004, chloride-based mixing models were developed using data  
33 obtained from municipal utility ASR systems. These early mixing models suggested that mixing trends  
34 are site-specific rather than uniform throughout the UFA. Mixing models also were developed during  
35 cycle testing at the KRASR system. Chloride-based breakthrough curves show that recharge water flows  
36 as a plug through preferential flow zones, rather than mixing to form a diffuse buffer zone.

37 A second report was released in 2008, which characterized major geochemical reactions that occur  
38 during the recharge, storage, and recovery phases of a cycle test. Recharging the UFA with oxygenated

1 surface water initiates pyrite oxidation, which releases trace metals into the aquifer. The mobility of  
2 trace elements (for example, iron, arsenic, and molybdenum) is controlled by evolution of the redox  
3 environment in the aquifer as the cycle test proceeds, from oxygen-rich recharge conditions, to sulfide-  
4 rich (oxygen-poor) native conditions. A published report in 2012 confirms that geochemical conditions  
5 are favorable to limit arsenic mobility at the KRASR pilot system. Additional analysis presented in this  
6 report suggest that it is reasonable to extrapolate arsenic control reactions observed at KRASR to other  
7 ASR systems located in the interior of south Florida.

8 In order to quantify trace metal mobilization processes under controlled laboratory conditions, the FGS  
9 conducted water–rock interaction experiments under oxic and anoxic conditions, using limestone from  
10 many representative Florida limestone lithologies including those at proposed CERP ASR systems. These  
11 laboratory experiments simulated water-rock interactions during different phases of a cycle test. Oxic  
12 conditions would characterize recharge, while anoxic conditions would prevail during storage and  
13 recovery. Results indicated that trace elements such as iron, arsenic, and molybdenum are released  
14 when pyrite in the limestone is exposed to oxygenated water. As long as the water-rock environment  
15 remains oxic, arsenic can be captured by sorption on newly precipitated iron oxides. This reaction will  
16 limit arsenic mobility during the recharge phase.

17 Geochemical models were developed to interpret water-quality changes observed at CERP ASR systems  
18 particularly at KRASR. Models focused on evaluating two important geochemical processes: 1)  
19 mobilization and attenuation of arsenic; and 2) limestone dissolution. The KRASR water quality dataset  
20 enabled interpretation of arsenic geochemistry under oxic conditions of recharge, and anoxic conditions  
21 of storage and recovery. Arsenic attenuation can occur during recharge due to sorption on iron oxide  
22 surfaces in the aquifer. However, arsenic sorption is temporary due to instability of iron oxides under  
23 anoxic (specifically sulfate-reducing) conditions. Arsenic attenuation under anoxic (specifically sulfate-  
24 reducing) conditions during storage and recovery was demonstrated at KRASR. The geochemical model  
25 showed that arsenic co-precipitated with newly formed iron sulfide minerals in the aquifer, and arsenic  
26 concentrations were shown to decline below the 10 µg/L regulatory criterion. Geochemical reactions  
27 that attenuate arsenic under anoxic conditions are possible at other locations where surface water and  
28 groundwater quality characteristics are similar to that of KRASR.

29 Introduction of recharge water that is undersaturated with respect to calcium carbonate into the FAS  
30 will cause dissolution of limestone aquifer material. Calculation of calcium carbonate saturation indices  
31 in groundwater samples obtained throughout each KRASR cycle test show that dissolution occurs  
32 primarily during the recharge phase, and that stored water composition evolves toward calcium  
33 carbonate saturation. This process can be expected at other locations where surface water and  
34 groundwater quality characteristics are similar to that of KRASR.

### 35 **Microbiological Studies**

36 Little is known about the survival of microorganisms that potentially could be introduced into the  
37 Floridan Aquifer during ASR operations. Bench-top and field studies were conducted to better quantify  
38 inactivation rates of representative bacteria and protozoans. Bench-top studies were conducted early in

1 the ASR Regional Study to determine the effects of temperature and total dissolved solids  
2 concentrations on representative bacteria, phages, and protozoans. Higher temperatures (22°C and  
3 30°C) decreased the survival of representative microbes (or, increased the inactivation rate). Total  
4 dissolved concentrations ranging between 200 mg/L and 10,000 mg/L had no effect on survival. A  
5 reduction of 99 percent (2-log<sub>10</sub> inactivation) of fecal coliforms was predicted over periods of 2 to 6  
6 weeks in groundwater, and 1 to 2 weeks in surface water.

7 Microbe survival was studied in the field using a novel flow-through mesocosm that was connected to  
8 wells open to the Upper Floridan Aquifer or the Avon Park Permeable Zone. The mesocosm was  
9 equipped with diffusion chambers inoculated with either *Escherichia coli* or *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*,  
10 two freshwater pathogens. The experimental design allowed contact between microorganisms and  
11 native groundwater under controlled conditions at the wellhead. Results of field experiments predicted  
12 faster inactivation rates for *E. coli* when compared to bench-top results, particularly during the early  
13 periods of exposure to groundwater.

14 Very little is known about the types of microorganisms, their abundance, and physiology that exist under  
15 native conditions of the FAS. Native bacterial communities extracted from the FAS were cultured in the  
16 laboratory and analyzed using DNA analysis (PhyloChip™) to characterize bacterial diversity in  
17 groundwaters of the Upper Floridan Aquifer and Avon Park Permeable Zone. This analysis revealed that  
18 native populations of bacteria and archaea are more diverse than expected.

## 19 Groundwater Flow and Transport Modeling

20 Density-dependent groundwater flow and solute transport models can be used simulate the effects of  
21 density, pressure, flow, and solute transport on both local and regional scales. The ASR Regional Study  
22 groundwater model development was one of the key tools used for evaluation of ASR implementation.  
23 The groundwater model and simulations are major deliverables of this project. Primary goals of the  
24 groundwater flow modeling effort were:

- 25 • To evaluate the potential effects that regional-scale ASR implementation, as envisioned in the  
26 CERP, might have on the Floridan Aquifer System of south Florida
- 27 • To analyze the local- and regional-scale changes in groundwater levels and flow directions
- 28 • To determine the potential effects of aquifer pressure changes during recharge and recovery  
29 operations
- 30 • To predict regional water-quality changes within the Floridan aquifer system
- 31 • To propose locations and the number of ASR wells that optimize benefits and minimize or  
32 eliminate potential risks

33 Recharge and recovery scenarios over a long period of record were defined previously in the South  
34 Florida Water Management Model run known as D13R, and this simulation provided the timing and  
35 magnitude of recharge, storage, and recovery that was required in the CERP. The PDT and the model  
36 development team determined a series of performance indicators for the evaluation of each simulation.

1 Development of the groundwater flow model followed the adaptive management paradigm. The model  
2 was developed in phases, with most phases receiving external peer review by the Interagency Modeling  
3 Center (IMC). Those phases were: literature review of existing models; bench-scale analysis to compare  
4 different model codes for the effort; Phase I model development (coarse-grid); Phase II model  
5 development (fine grid) with calibration; and use of the Phase II model for D13R predictive simulations.  
6 As simulations were run, it became clear that the performance measures could not be met in many  
7 basins using the number of ASR wells proposed in CERP, open to the Upper Floridan Aquifer (UFA).  
8 Scenarios were then modified to reduce the number of ASR wells in the UFA, and assign them to other  
9 aquifers including the APPZ or the Boulder Zone.

10 The groundwater model was useful for testing scenarios that involved operation of ASR wells in the  
11 upper FAS and the APPZ, located deeper within the FAS. Multiple scenarios were tested, starting with  
12 the locations and number of ASR wells originally proposed by CERP. Eventually, the number of wells was  
13 reduced in order to minimize or eliminate detrimental effects to the aquifer, groundwater, or existing  
14 users. The final results show that it is unlikely that the aquifer will sustain the pumping requirements of  
15 333 UFA ASR wells as defined in the CERP plan. The modeling process showed that pump pressure  
16 requirements and protection of the Artesian Pressure Protection Area (APPA) of Martin and St. Lucie  
17 Counties can be met with approximately 94 ASR wells in the UFA, 37 ASR wells in the APPZ and 101 wells  
18 in the BZ if the extraction at sites near the APPA is significantly reduced. (UFA and APPZ wells were  
19 assumed to have a 5 MGD capacity; BZ wells were assigned a 10 MGD capacity.) Simulated recovery  
20 efficiencies from these lower zones were reduced to 30 percent in most of the APPZ wells and 0 percent  
21 (i.e. recharge but no recovery) in the BZ wells.

## 22 **Ecotoxicology Analysis and Ecosystem Risk Assessment**

23 A baseline environmental monitoring program and preliminary ecological tests have been performed to  
24 assess and predict the effects of the ASR Program on the south Florida ecosystem. Studies on the effects  
25 of chemicals on organisms and ecosystems, as well as potential for mercury contamination have been  
26 completed.

27 Extensive ecotoxicology investigations were conducted as a component of the cycle testing at the Lake  
28 Okeechobee ASR pilot project site. These investigations were intended to assess the potential of ASR  
29 recovered waters to reach acute and chronic toxicity levels and bioaccumulation of trace metals (e.g.,  
30 arsenic, cadmium, selenium, and mercury) and radium in representative aquatic species native to  
31 surficial waters at and downstream of the ASR outflow locations. Toxicity bioassay series and acute  
32 static renewal definitive tests have been conducted at the Lake Okeechobee ASR Pilot Project with  
33 recovered cycle test waters.

34 Ecotoxicology studies have shown the recovered waters (i.e., surface water with varying mixtures of UFA  
35 water, representative of surface water stored via ASR wells) showed few toxic effects on organisms and  
36 had minimal impact on survival, reproduction, or embryo development in the representative fish,  
37 amphibian, and microorganisms tested. An exception was an inhibitory effect on the reproduction of

1 the sensitive cladoceran *C. dubia*, which occurred occasionally in solutions where the proportion of  
2 recovered water was greater than 50 percent.

3 Results from these studies were integrated into a conceptual ecological model (CEM) with data obtained  
4 during pilot project cycle testing. The CEM provides insight into understanding the relationships  
5 between potential stressors and receptors on the environment resulting from CERP ASR. The model  
6 allowed an ecological risk assessment to be conducted that indicated significant environmental benefits  
7 and few if any risks that might occur from the proposed CERP ASR Program. Multiple scenarios were  
8 conducted during the model development that reflected the assumption that the overall number of ASR  
9 wells had to be reduced based on the groundwater model results.

## 10 Mercury Methylation Studies

11 Mercury and methyl mercury investigations indicated that methyl mercury levels in the upper portions  
12 of the FAS are low and not likely to result in direct ecological contamination via recovered waters (31).  
13 Ambient (native) mercury and methyl mercury concentrations were characterized in 5 municipal wells  
14 open to the FAS. Total mercury concentrations were all less than 0.3 ng/L, and methyl mercury  
15 concentrations were all less than 0.1 ng/L.

16 The greatest concern is that the FAS redox environment will favor further mercury methylation  
17 reactions, and thus increase concentrations in stored and recovered water. Laboratory studies and cycle  
18 testing data indicate that mercury methylation does not proceed in the FAS. Laboratory incubation  
19 studies that react limestone aquifer matrix with surface water show rapid and substantial losses of total  
20 and methyl mercury. Cycle test data from the Kissimmee River ASR pilot site confirm that total and  
21 methyl mercury concentrations in recovered water are significantly lower those in surface water.  
22 Recovered water quality is in compliance with surface water and ground water regulatory criteria for  
23 mercury species.

## 24 Conclusions

- 25 • Economically efficient, large capacity (i.e., 5 million gallons per day) ASR systems can be  
26 permitted, constructed and operated in geographically diverse areas throughout South Florida.  
27 Some variability in aquifer characteristics makes it prudent to conduct an exploratory program  
28 at any site where ASR is being considered.
- 29 • To date, no “fatal flaws” have been uncovered that might prevent the implementation of CERP  
30 ASR, although the overall number of ASR wells should be reduced, based upon groundwater  
31 modeling conducted as part of this study.
- 32 • The hydrogeologic characteristics of the Floridan Aquifer System (FAS) have proven to be  
33 generally advantageous, and suitable for implementation of ASR systems in areas of water  
34 availability important to Everglades Restoration to facilitate water storage.

- 1 • An extensive hydrogeologic, water quality, and ecological monitoring network has been  
2 established, to observe the “current state of the system” and reveal any changes that might take  
3 place as a result of future implementation of ASR.
- 4 • No hydraulic effects of the CERP ASR Pilot Projects were observed on the overlying Surficial  
5 Aquifer System (SAS) due in large part to the Hawthorn Group confining sediments that separate  
6 the SAS from the underlying upper portions of the Floridan Aquifer System targeted for ASR  
7 storage.
- 8 • Geotechnical analyses indicate that the potential for rock fracturing from ASR is very low, so  
9 long as operating pressures are maintained at levels required by permit, and wells are spaced at  
10 appropriate distances to minimize well-to-well interactions.
- 11 • Surface water from interior locations in south Florida is suitable for subsurface storage via ASR  
12 systems. However, the high organic content (indicated by high color) and presence of coliform  
13 bacteria in surface water requires treatment focused on filtration and disinfection technologies.
- 14 • Microbiological evaluations conducted in coordination with the SWFWMD and the USGS have  
15 defined rates at which various pathogens become “inactivated” under temperature conditions  
16 and total dissolved solids concentrations that are representative of the FAS. Generally, higher  
17 temperatures (22°C and 30°C) result in more rapid inactivation. TDS concentrations between  
18 200 mg/L and 1,000 mg/L had no effect on inactivation rate. For fecal coliform, 99 percent (2-  
19 log) inactivation was predicted over 2 to 6 week periods. These studies provide a basis for  
20 evaluating the effectiveness of disinfection treatment prior to recharge into the FAS.
- 21 • Despite the generally favorable results of the CERP ASR Pilot Projects, arsenic mobilization and  
22 attenuation is still an issue that must be addressed regardless of location. This will require  
23 regulatory flexibility until the ASR storage zone is conditioned with successive cycles of  
24 operation -- and/or additional water quality treatment is conducted -- to achieve regulatory  
25 compliance with the drinking water standard.
- 26 • ASR systems should ideally be located adjacent to large, flowing water bodies to provide  
27 sufficient water availability for storage. These locations provide flexibility to comply with permit  
28 requirements for discharge of recovered water, by allowing for mixing zones in surface water  
29 bodies.
- 30 • The regulatory relief mechanisms associated with the (1) Underground Injection Control (UIC)  
31 Program (i.e., water quality criteria exemptions and Administrative Orders) and (2) National  
32 Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES) Program (i.e., mixing zones for select  
33 parameters) that were granted by FDEP were critical to the testing program, and would be  
34 anticipated to be critical for any future CERP ASR implementation.
- 35 • ASR systems located in the Lake Okeechobee area and completed in the upper portions of the  
36 FAS can achieve upwards of 100 percent recoverability of stored water due to the freshwater  
37 quality of the aquifer. Conversely, the brackish quality of the FAS in south Florida (e.g., Hillsboro  
38 site) will require successive cycles over a few years to achieve a target of 70 percent  
39 recoverability.

- 1       • The results of groundwater modeling have indicated that the overall number of ASR wells as  
2       originally envisioned by CERP should be reduced, to avoid deleterious effects to the aquifer,  
3       groundwater, and existing users.
- 4       • Multi-well ASR systems should be designed -- based in part on numerical modeling -- to ensure  
5       that appropriate, conservative, well spacing is implemented so that theoretical fracture  
6       pressures are not approached and subsurface storage is optimized.
- 7       • Water quality testing of recovered water from the CERP ASR Pilot Projects did not result in any  
8       unforeseen deleterious subsurface geochemical reactions that would cause adverse  
9       environmental effects on the receiving surface water body other than arsenic as previously  
10      anticipated and discussed.
- 11      • The potential for mercury methylation from storage and recovery of water from within the FAS  
12      has been determined to be very low. Water recovered from ASR systems may have  
13      concentrations of sulfate that could increase the load of this constituent in receiving water  
14      bodies. Mixing, dispersal, and dilution of this constituent within the system make predictions of  
15      this effect tenuous.
- 16      • Some reduction of phosphorous concentrations present in surface water is attenuated during  
17      ASR storage, and which is now better understood and postulated to be a result of microbial  
18      uptake, aquifer filtration, dilution and/or precipitation as calcium phosphate. This observation  
19      should be considered when selecting storage and treatment facilities to achieve CERP  
20      objectives.
- 21      • Based upon the successful results of the CERP ASR Pilot Projects and the regional evaluations  
22      conducted during this project, implementation of CERP ASR should proceed with a prudent,  
23      phased approach.
- 24      • A path forward is proposed that includes expansion of the existing pilot facilities and  
25      construction of additional ASR systems at locations originally envisioned in CERP. Evolution of  
26      restoration, storage, and treatment programs beyond what was defined in CERPP has resulted in  
27      new projects that could be optimized by ASR. As information is collected from future ASR  
28      facilities, new iterations of the groundwater and ecological models should be conducted, to  
29      guide additional phases of ASR implementation.

## 1 Introduction

2 To restore and preserve the Everglades and south Florida's natural environment, enhance water  
3 supplies, and maintain flood protection, the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) in partnership with  
4 the South Florida Water Management District (SFWMD) developed a plan called the Comprehensive  
5 Everglades Restoration Plan (CERP). Successful implementation of the CERP requires finding ways to  
6 store water to improve quantity, quality, timing and distribution of flows to the Everglades system.  
7 Several possible technologies are being evaluated to accomplish this storage and distribution of water,  
8 of which aquifer storage and recovery (ASR) is one of the most challenging.

9 Although ASR technology has been used successfully in Florida since 1983, concerns have been  
10 expressed about the regional-scale use of ASR as envisioned in the CERP. These concerns were outlined  
11 in a 1999 report by the Aquifer Storage and Recovery Issue Team (ASR Issue Team) to the South Florida  
12 Ecosystem Restoration Working Group (SFERWG) and subsequent reports by the National Research  
13 Council Committee on the Restoration of the Greater Everglades Ecosystem (CROGEE). The CERP ASR  
14 pilot projects and ASR Regional Study were designed to address many of the technical, scientific,  
15 engineering and environmental questions that have been raised concerning the feasibility of regional-  
16 scale ASR implementation. This report documents the final products of the ASR Regional Study.

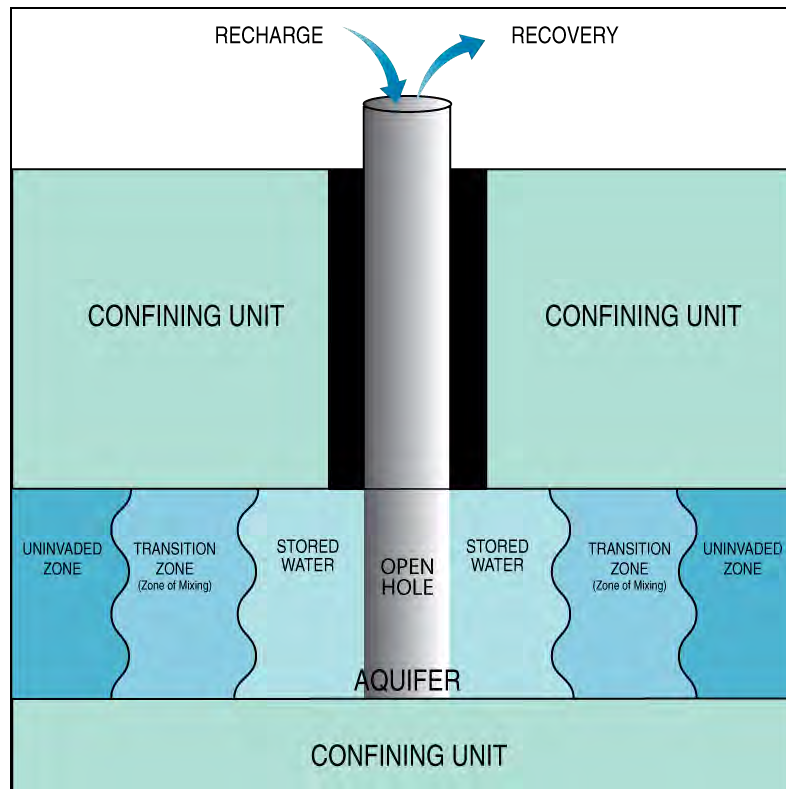
### 17 1.1 Aquifer Storage and Recovery Background

18 Used in the United States for more than 30 years, ASR refers to the process of recharge, storage, and  
19 recovery of water in an aquifer. Available surface water is collected during times when water is plentiful  
20 (typically during the wet season in south Florida), treated to meet Federal and state drinking water  
21 standards, and then pumped into an aquifer through a well. In south Florida, most ASR systems store  
22 treated water in permeable zones of the Floridan aquifer system. When recharged into the aquifer, the  
23 "stored" water displaces native aquifer water. **Figure 1-1** depicts this concept.

24 Stored underground, the fresh water is later "recovered" by pumping it out of the same well, and  
25 distributed for beneficial use (ecosystem restoration, municipal water supply, and other water needs in  
26 south Florida), typically during Florida's dry periods. This process of recharge, storage and recovery is  
27 called a cycle. Cycle tests serve as the primary means to analyze the performance of an ASR system at a  
28 given location.

29 The use of ASR is increasing nationally and worldwide as the need to utilize alternative water  
30 management options grows. Presently the largest ASR system in the world is located in Las Vegas,  
31 Nevada, utilizing a total of 99 active wells (Pyne, 2005). In south Florida, regional-scale implementation  
32 of ASR is envisioned as a significant component of the CERP.





1

2 **Figure 1-1 -- Diagram showing an ASR well in a confined aquifer displacing native groundwater.**

3 Figure modified from Reese (2002).

#### 4 **1.2 A Brief History of ASR in Florida**

5 The first operational ASR well in Florida began storing drinking water in Manatee County in 1983. Since  
 6 then, utilities throughout southeast and southwest Florida have installed ASR systems, often with the  
 7 assistance of Alternative Water Supply (AWS) grants issued by the SFWMD and Southwest Florida Water  
 8 Management Districts (SFWMD). By 2010, there were approximately 10 permitted ASR wellfields in  
 9 Florida and an additional 50 projects under development. To date, there are several large multi-well  
 10 systems at Miami-Dade West and Southwest Wellfields, Marco Island, Tampa, and the City of Cocoa.  
 11 Presently, the Peace River ASR system is the largest ASR wellfield in Florida, comprised of 21 ASR wells  
 12 with a combined recovery capacity of 18 MGD (Pyne, 2005).

13 In 1997, a water sample collected by the Florida Geological Survey (FGS) during recovery from a new  
 14 ASR well in Tampa contained arsenic results that exceeded the federal drinking water standard, which at  
 15 that time was 50 micrograms per liter ( $\mu\text{g/L}$ ). That set in motion an intensive effort to characterize  
 16 arsenic concentrations at other ASR wellfields. In general, older ASR wellfields had acceptable arsenic  
 17 concentrations while newer wellfields, particularly those still conducting cycle testing, did not. In 2005,  
 18 the Florida drinking water standard for arsenic was lowered to 10  $\mu\text{g/L}$ , which had the effect of re-  
 19 classifying numerous ASR facilities as out of compliance with the standard. The Federal standard for  
 20 arsenic was lowered to 10  $\mu\text{g/L}$  in 2006. At the same time, regulators – the Florida Department of

1 Environmental Protection (FDEP) and the US Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) - struggled to  
2 find a means to allow operators to safely continue operating their systems under the permitting criteria.  
3 As a result, the expansion of existing systems and the development of new ASR well systems was greatly  
4 curtailed.

5 During this period, a number of research projects were initiated to monitor and determine the  
6 occurrence, mobilization, and attenuation of arsenic in the subsurface. Alternative measures were also  
7 considered, such as pre-treatment technologies, development of initial “target storage volumes”, and  
8 implementing institutional controls to prohibit nearby users from installing wells that might encounter  
9 groundwater with elevated arsenic concentrations. The efforts all presented technical and  
10 administrative options that were available to entities seeking to construct ASR systems.

11 As a result of the intensive research efforts to understand and control arsenic mobilization, the FDEP  
12 and USEPA now acknowledge multiple means to allow the continued safe use of ASR through a variety  
13 of technical and administrative processes. A recent letter from the USEPA to the FDEP, discussing this  
14 recent milestone, is contained in **Appendix A**.

### 15 1.3 ASR and the Comprehensive Everglades Restoration Plan

16 South Florida’s existing water management system consists of an extensive network of canals, levees  
17 and water control structures, constructed as part of the Central and Southern Florida Flood Control  
18 Project (C&SF Project). Authorized by Congress in the late 1940s, the C&SF Project was constructed for  
19 many purposes: to provide flood control; to provide water supply for municipal, industrial and  
20 agricultural uses, as well as for Everglades National Park; to help prevent saltwater intrusion; and to help  
21 protect fish and wildlife resources.

22 Today, due to water management system limitations, discharges to the Everglades and estuaries are  
23 often too much or too little, and frequently occur at the wrong time of year. In addition, the C&SF  
24 Project sends billions of gallons per day of fresh water to tide that could otherwise be captured and  
25 stored for use when needed. The use of ASR technology to support CERP water management goals was  
26 first envisioned in 1996 as part of the consensus Conceptual Plan of the Governor’s Commission for a  
27 Sustainable South Florida. The commission recommended in the plan, transmitted to then-governor  
28 Lawton Chiles, that “ASR technology should be investigated to determine its feasibility on a regional  
29 scale.”

30 The C&SF Project Comprehensive Review Study (“Restudy”; USACE and SFWMD, 1999) presents a  
31 framework for Everglades restoration, preservation, and protection of the south Florida ecosystem  
32 while providing for other water-related needs of the region, such as municipal, industrial, and  
33 agricultural water supply and flood protection. The Restudy, now known as the CERP, is a cooperative  
34 effort containing 68 components, and including structural and operational changes to the existing C&SF  
35 Project. Implementation of the CERP is designed to improve the quality, quantity, timing and  
36 distribution of water flows, restore and enhance natural systems, and improve fish and wildlife habitats  
37 to promote recovery of native flora and fauna, including threatened and endangered species.

1 Of the 68 original project components recommended in the CERP, seven components involved ASR  
 2 systems. Combined, these components include as many as 333 wells with a total storage capacity of  
 3 nearly 1.7 billion gallons per day. To address the uncertainties of ASR technology prior to regional  
 4 implementation of these components, the CERP also recommended the construction of ASR pilot  
 5 projects along the Caloosahatchee River, the Hillsboro Canal and adjacent to Lake Okeechobee. Two  
 6 ASR pilot systems were constructed and tested. Results and conclusions are summarized in USACE and  
 7 SFWMD (2013).

8 The CERP ASR components are envisioned to take surplus fresh surface water, treat it as required for  
 9 permit compliance, and then store it in the Floridan aquifer system for subsequent recovery during dry  
 10 periods. If implemented as part of CERP, ASR is anticipated to significantly increase freshwater storage  
 11 capacity in the C&SF system. It is also expected to provide better management of Lake Okeechobee  
 12 water levels over the long term (years), and in doing so, can minimize damaging high-volume freshwater  
 13 releases to the St. Lucie and Caloosahatchee estuaries. During dry periods, water recovered from ASR  
 14 wells would augment surface water supplies and maintain the water levels and/or flows within Lake  
 15 Okeechobee, the St. Lucie and Caloosahatchee rivers and associated canals throughout south Florida.  
 16 **Figure 1-2** shows the generalized locations of the CERP ASR wells as envisioned in the CERP (USACE and  
 17 SFWMD, 1999).

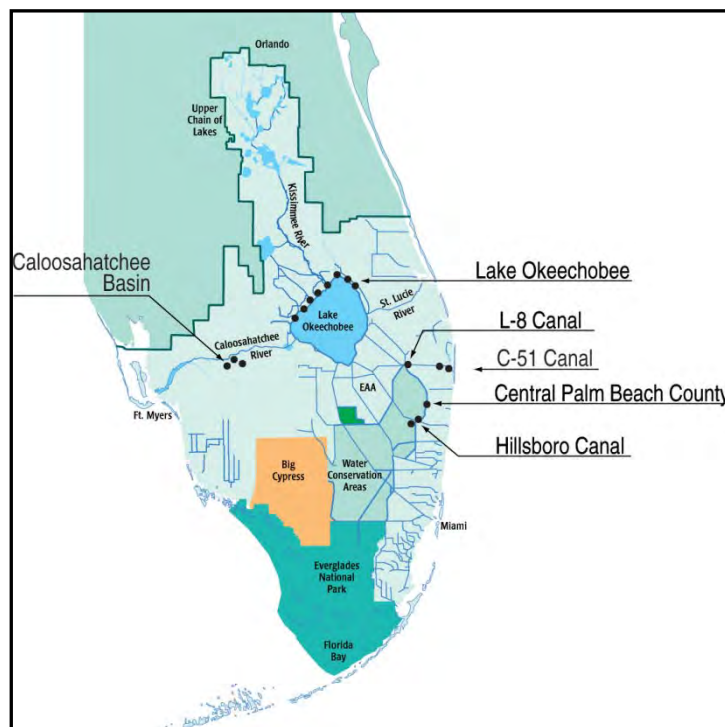


Figure 1-2 -- Generalized CERP ASR Project Locations.

18 The CERP also proposes to use ASR in longer-range water supply planning by storing water during wet  
 19 years and delaying recovery until it is needed, potentially years later, and during multi-year droughts

1 common in South Florida. Although ASR wells have been used in Florida for seasonal storage, the  
2 technology has never been implemented on such an unprecedented regional, multi-year scale.

### 3 1.4 Development of the CERP ASR Regional Study

4 Due to the limited understanding of effects from regional-scale ASR implementation, the South Florida  
5 Ecosystem Restoration Working Group formed the ASR Issue Team in September 1998 to conduct an  
6 independent scientific review of the conceptual CERP ASR system. The team's charter was to develop an  
7 action plan and identify projects needed to address the hydraulic, hydrogeologic and geochemical  
8 uncertainties associated with ASR. The final report from the ASR Issue Team was published by the  
9 SFERWG (ASR Issue Team, 1999) and recommended the study of seven issues as follows:

- 10 1. Characterization of the quality and variability of source waters that could be  
11 pumped into the ASR wells.
- 12 2. Characterization of regional hydrogeology of the Floridan aquifer system.
- 13 3. Analysis of critical pressure for rock fracturing.
- 14 4. Analysis of local and regional changes in groundwater flow patterns.
- 15 5. Analysis of water-quality changes during storage in the aquifer.
- 16 6. Potential effects of ASR on mercury bioaccumulation for ecosystem restoration  
17 projects.
- 18 7. Relationships among ASR storage interval properties, recovery rates and recharge  
19 volume.

20 The CERP ASR pilot projects and ASR Regional Study were conceived to address many of these  
21 uncertainties. The pilot projects provided the ASR Regional Study with platforms to conduct scientific  
22 and engineering studies as part of the adaptive assessment strategy. The seven issues identified by the  
23 ASR Issue Team were later augmented by other concerns raised by the National Research Council (NRC)  
24 Committee on the Restoration of the Greater Everglades Ecosystem's (CROGEE; NRC, 2001; 2002) and  
25 the public. In general, the CROGEE recommendations tracked those published in the ASR Issue Team  
26 report, with one exception. It was noted that the environmental and biological effects of 1.7 billion  
27 gallons per day of recovered water discharged back to the Everglades ecosystem was poorly  
28 understood. Therefore, the CROGEE recommended further studies to document or predict the effects  
29 of ASR-recovered water on the Greater Everglades ecosystem.

30 The goals of the ASR Regional Study, in coordination with the ASR pilot projects, were as follows:

- 31 • Answer the questions concerning the feasibility of regional-scale CERP ASR  
32 implementation.
- 33 • Reduce uncertainties related to regional-scale CERP ASR implementation by conducting  
34 scientific and engineering studies based on existing and newly acquired data.

- 1           • Develop a regional groundwater model of the FAS to identify an appropriate magnitude  
2           of ASR operations with minimal impact to the environment and existing users of the  
3           Floridan aquifer system.

4   The tasks required to perform the ASR Regional Study are described in the original CERP Aquifer Storage  
5   and Recovery Regional Study Project Management Plan (ASR Regional Study PMP; USACE and SFWMD,  
6   2003). This study was developed by a multiagency team consisting of staff from the following entities:  
7   the SFWMD; the USACE; the FGS; the FDEP; the USEPA; the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS); the U.S. Fish  
8   and Wildlife Service (USFWS); the Florida Fish and Wildlife Conservation Commission (FFWCC); and local  
9   government agencies. The CROGEE conducted an independent technical review of the ASR Regional  
10   Study PMP to examine the adequacy of the proposed scientific methods to answer the issues raised by  
11   the ASR Issue Team and the original CROGEE review. Their findings were documented in National  
12   Research Council (2002).

### 13   1.5   Federal Authority and Authorization

14   The Water Resources Development Act of 2000 (WRDA 2000), Public Law 106-541, was enacted in  
15   December 2000. Title VI of WRDA 2000 approved the Comprehensive Everglades Restoration Plan and  
16   authorized an initial suite of projects plus design studies for many CERP components.

17   The Lake Okeechobee and Hillsboro ASR Pilot Projects were authorized by Congress in section 101(a)  
18   (16) of the WRDA 1999 (113 Stat. 276). Three ASR systems were planned under the Lake Okeechobee  
19   Pilot Project. These systems would be located around Lake Okeechobee, at the Kissimmee River  
20   (Okeechobee County), Port Mayaca (Martin County), and Moore Haven (Glades County). The Hillsboro  
21   ASR Pilot Project was the fourth system to be developed, and was authorized simultaneously with the  
22   Lake Okeechobee ASR Pilot Project. The WRDA 1999 authorization was modified in section 101 (b) (2)  
23   (B) (i) of the WRDA 2000 (114 Stat. 2681) to authorize a fifth ASR pilot system on the Caloosahatchee  
24   River (Hendry County). The Lake Okeechobee and Hillsboro ASR Pilot Projects authorization was  
25   modified further in section 6001 (a) of the WRDA 2007 (121 Stat. 1041) to increase the total cost of the  
26   project from \$27,000,000 (WRDA 1999) to \$42,500,000. Further definition of the ASR pilot projects was  
27   provided in section 6001 (b) (1) of the WRDA 2007, which stated "...that operation and maintenance  
28   costs of the Lake Okeechobee and Hillsboro ASR pilot projects shall remain a non-Federal responsibility".  
29   Subsequently, a Design Agreement was signed between the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers and the South  
30   Florida Water Management District to conduct these design studies including the PIR studies for the  
31   CERP ASR components.

32   The ASR Regional Study was not one of the original projects proposed in the CERP. Subsequent to the  
33   approval of the Regional ASR Study PMP in 2003, the project was funded as a separate feasibility-level  
34   study. The PMP described the various tasks to be conducted in support of the regional ASR evaluation,  
35   which would be conducted over a period of approximately nine years, at an estimated cost of  
36   \$55,000,000.

1    **1.6    State Authority**

2    During the 1999 legislative session, Florida lawmakers created Section 373.1501 of the Florida Statutes  
3    and amended Section 373.026 of the Florida Statutes. Section 373.1501 of the Florida Statutes provides  
4    a legislative finding that the CERP is important for restoring the Everglades ecosystem and for sustaining  
5    the environment, economy, and social well-being of south Florida. Its purpose is to facilitate and  
6    support the CERP through an approval process concurrent with Federal government review and  
7    congressional authorization. Further, this section ensures that all project components are implemented  
8    through appropriate processes and are consistent with the balanced policies and purposes of Chapter  
9    373 of the Florida Statutes, specifically Section 373.026. Section 373.026 (8)(b) directs the FDEP to  
10   collaborate with the SFWMD and to approve each project component, with or without amendments,  
11   within a specified period.

12   In the 2000 legislative session, the Florida Legislature created an act relating to Everglades restoration  
13   and funding, amending Section 215.22 of the Florida Statutes and creating Section 373.470 which is  
14   cited as the “Everglades Restoration Investment Act.” The purpose of this act is to establish a full and  
15   equal partnership between the state and the Federal governments for the implementation of the CERP.  
16   This act requires that a PIR be approved in accordance with Section 373.026 of the Florida Statutes  
17   before the SFWMD and the USACE execute a Project Cooperation Agreement.

18

19

## 2 Initial Studies and Related Projects

The ASR Regional Study team has addressed uncertainties associated with regional-scale CERP implementation involving a pilot-scale data collection effort at two ASR systems, which were then applied to various models to evaluate effects of ASR implementation on a regional (full) scale. Cycle testing at ASR pilot systems reduced uncertainties related to ASR system design, operation, permitting and regulatory compliance, and cost. For expanded discussion of the pilot projects, refer to the CERP ASR Pilot Project Technical Data Report (USACE and SFWMD, 2013). However, for convenience, a summary of the ASR pilot projects is provided below.

In addition to the development of the pilot ASR systems, other studies were initiated between 2003 and 2007 to address those issues which had the potential to impede ASR implementation. Other early studies provided baseline hydrological and ecological characteristics, for comparison of conditions after the completion of cycle testing. Finally, other projects have been undertaken as part of CERP and by other state-led initiatives that anticipate the use of ASR technology. Brief descriptions of those programs, projects and features are included herein.

### 2.1 ASR and Hydrogeology Literature Review

A reference database was compiled to include all references (published and unpublished), geophysical logs, lithologic descriptions, aquifer hydraulic properties, and other relevant hydrogeologic data available from various agencies dealing with the Floridan Aquifer System (FAS) in peninsular Florida from Lake County south to Key West up to 2006. The product was an annotated bibliography with abstracts, and a table of data associated with the abstract, along with information on available format and location. A reference list of more than 1,600 key documents related to ASR technology and the hydrogeology was compiled by the USACE and its contractors. Hydrogeologic and hydrologic characteristics and data were incorporated into early development of the ASR Regional groundwater flow model, and the initial hydrogeologic framework of Reese and Richardson (2008). All site-specific data (well construction reports, aquifer performance test data for example) were archived in the SFWMD DBHYDRO database. The literature review subsequently was incorporated into a larger CERP reference database available internally on the Cerpzone website.

### 2.2 Exploratory Wells and Initial Water Quality Characterization Studies

Exploratory well construction was completed at each proposed ASR pilot system location. The purpose was to confirm at each site that the FAS was productive and hydraulically capable of storing up to 5 MGD as envisioned in the CERP. The exploratory wells provided information about the hydrogeology of each site, and enabled the collection of water samples and geophysical data to determine aquifer characteristics. Results were summarized in the following reports: Hillsboro ASR (HASR), Bennett et al. (2001); Kissimmee River ASR (KRASR), CH2M Hill (2004); Port Mayaca ASR (PMASR), Bennett et al. (2004); Caloosahatchee River ASR (CRASR), Water Resource Solutions Inc. (2005); and Moorehaven ASR (MHASR), Bennett and Rectenwald (2002).

1 Additional characterization of baseline FAS groundwater quality was completed so that water-quality  
2 changes during ASR cycle testing could be identified or simulated (Tetra Tech, 2005a). Major and trace  
3 inorganic constituents and stable isotopes were analyzed in samples from 20 wells open to the Upper  
4 Floridan Aquifer (UFA) and Avon Park Permeable Zone (APPZ; **Figure 3-1**), supplementing data obtained  
5 from 5 proposed ASR pilot sites. Organic compounds (volatile and semi-volatile organics, pesticides,  
6 herbicides) were analyzed in 4 quarterly groundwater samples from each proposed ASR system (Tetra  
7 Tech, 2005a). Native FAS groundwater quality at the CERP ASR systems is summarized in USACE and  
8 SFWMD (2013). Native FAS groundwater quality throughout south Florida is summarized in **Chapter 5**.

9 Concurrent with the exploratory well program, other data collection efforts were initiated to support  
10 ASR operations. A study to characterize spatial and seasonal surface water quality variability was  
11 completed (PBS&J, 2003; Tetra Tech, 2005b). This information supported the design of the surface  
12 treatment systems, specifically for filtration and disinfection processes. Concurrently, a series of  
13 treatment technology studies were undertaken to evaluate different filtration systems that could  
14 remove turbidity, solids, and biological constituents from the source water, prior to being pumped into  
15 the ASR wells (Carollo Engineers, 2003). Disinfection studies also were undertaken to determine the  
16 most cost effective technology to meet regulatory criteria applicable to ASR systems. Among the  
17 disinfection technologies evaluated were ozonation, bank filtration, ultraviolet radiation, and  
18 mechanical separation (HSA Engineers and Scientists, 2003; PBS&J, 2004). A water treatment and  
19 pumping process was then designed to meet regulatory permitting criteria at each pilot ASR system.

### 20 **2.3 Early Evaluation of Mercury Methylation Potential in the FAS**

21 The mobilization, transport, and fate of mercury, and potential for increased mercury methylation were  
22 concerns identified by both the ASR Issue Team (1999) and the NRC (2002). A guiding hypothesis is that  
23 storage of surface water having measurable mercury in a sulfate-reducing aquifer would increase the  
24 mercury methylation rate. Consequently, recovery would distribute water with more methyl mercury  
25 into the surface water environments.

26 The potential for ASR cycle testing to increase mercury and methyl mercury was evaluated in a  
27 combined field and laboratory study completed by Krabbenhoft et al. (2007). Native FAS groundwater  
28 showed negligible concentrations of mercury and methyl mercury (mean values are 0.41 ng/L and 0.07  
29 ng/L, respectively). Laboratory incubation of organic carbon- and sulfate-rich surface water and  
30 limestone did not show any increase in mercury and methyl mercury under sulfate-reducing conditions.  
31 Loss of mercury during incubation experiments may result from sorption to aquifer material. Additional  
32 discussion of mercury methylation potential is found in **Section 8.4**.

### 33 **2.3 Early Ecological Characterization Projects**

34 Many of the uncertainties identified by the NRC (2002) focused on identification of ecological and  
35 ecotoxicological effects of recovered water on freshwater communities and ecosystems. Baseline  
36 studies were initiated to characterize freshwater habitats and communities for later comparison of



1 conditions at the completion of cycle testing. A large dataset consisting of mercury analyses in fish  
2 tissues also was compiled.

3 Baseline conditions of ecological communities at the five proposed ASR pilot systems (KRASR, HASR,  
4 PMASR, MHASR, and CRASR) were summarized in Tetra Tech (2007). This study characterized surface  
5 water and sediment quality characteristics, and macroinvertebrate and fish community composition.  
6 The study completed habitat assessments using the FDEP stream conditions index and the Vegetative  
7 Index of Wetland Conditions protocols. Fish tissue also was analyzed for mercury.

8 Baseline sediment quality results suggest that mercury and zinc frequently were detected at high  
9 concentrations. Habitat assessment indices showed that KRASR and CRASR baseline stream conditions  
10 were characterized as “most disturbed”, and PMASR and HASR were “somewhat disturbed”. The stream  
11 condition index (developed using macroinvertebrate species occurrence and abundance) varied  
12 seasonally and with location, with no statistically significant trends shown during four quarterly samples  
13 at each proposed ASR system. The fish community assessment results indicated that fish communities  
14 differ among all proposed ASR system locations. Native and total fish diversity was lowest at CRASR, and  
15 greatest at KRASR and MHASR. Mercury (primarily as methyl mercury) was detected in all fish tissue  
16 samples (n=262), at concentrations ranging between 0.412 mg/kg and 0.85 mg/kg.

## 17 2.4 The CERP ASR Pilot Projects

18 Three ASR pilot projects were authorized for the CERP ASR Program: Lake Okeechobee, HCASR, and  
19 CRASR. The scope of ASR envisioned around Lake Okeechobee was extensive because this project  
20 included construction of three separate ASR systems (PMASR, KRASR, and MHASR), bringing the total to  
21 five pilot projects. **Figure 2-1** shows the locations of the proposed pilot projects. KRASR and HASR  
22 systems are the only CERP ASR pilot systems constructed to date.

23 Sites for the ASR pilot projects were chosen based on location, land ownership, proximity to available  
24 surface water, and the lack of sensitive species or natural resources likely to be affected by pilot project  
25 operations. A siting analysis (Brown et al., 2005) was conducted for all well sites based on such factors  
26 as availability of surface water, property constraints, impacts to people, wetlands and threatened and  
27 endangered species, cultural resources, and aesthetics. A graphic showing site suitability for ASR  
28 systems show that areas having high “siting scores” lie north and west of Lake Okeechobee (**Figure 2-2**).  
29 Recommended sites were all similar in that they were publicly owned properties and had been  
30 previously developed or disturbed, thus minimizing the environmental impact of pilot project  
31 construction. The ASR well siting index was helpful for prioritizing locations under consideration for  
32 future construction of ASR systems, and to highlight areas that should undergo more rigorous evaluation  
33 during subsequent hydrogeologic investigations.

34 The ASR Pilot Projects were designed, constructed, and operated simultaneous with execution of the  
35 ASR Regional Study. Data obtained from operations of the ASR pilot systems have been incorporated

- 1 into hydraulic, hydrogeological, and ecological aspects of the ASR Regional Study, and serve to validate
- 2 some model simulations.

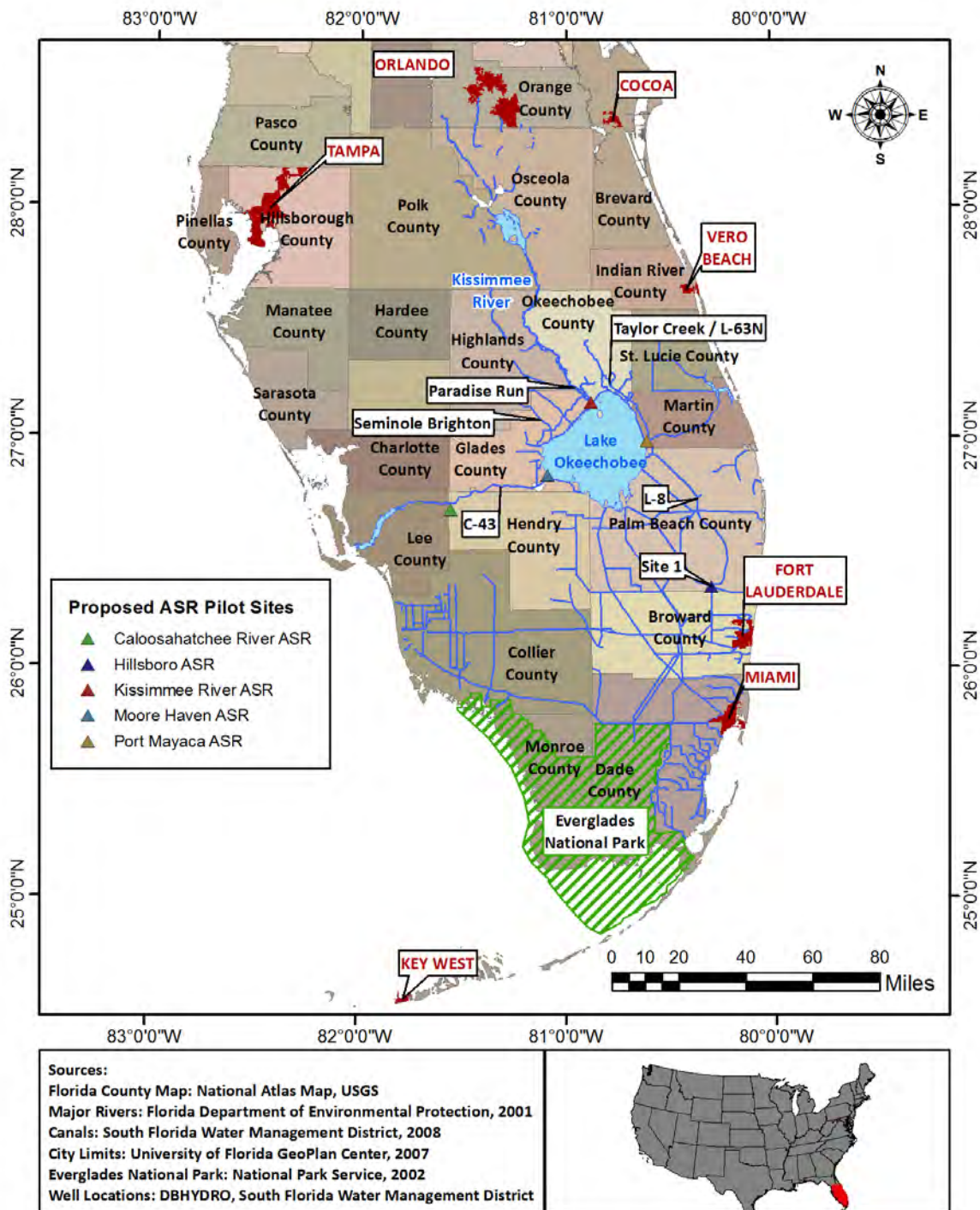


Figure 2-1 -- Map showing locations of proposed CERP and non-CERP ASR systems.

3

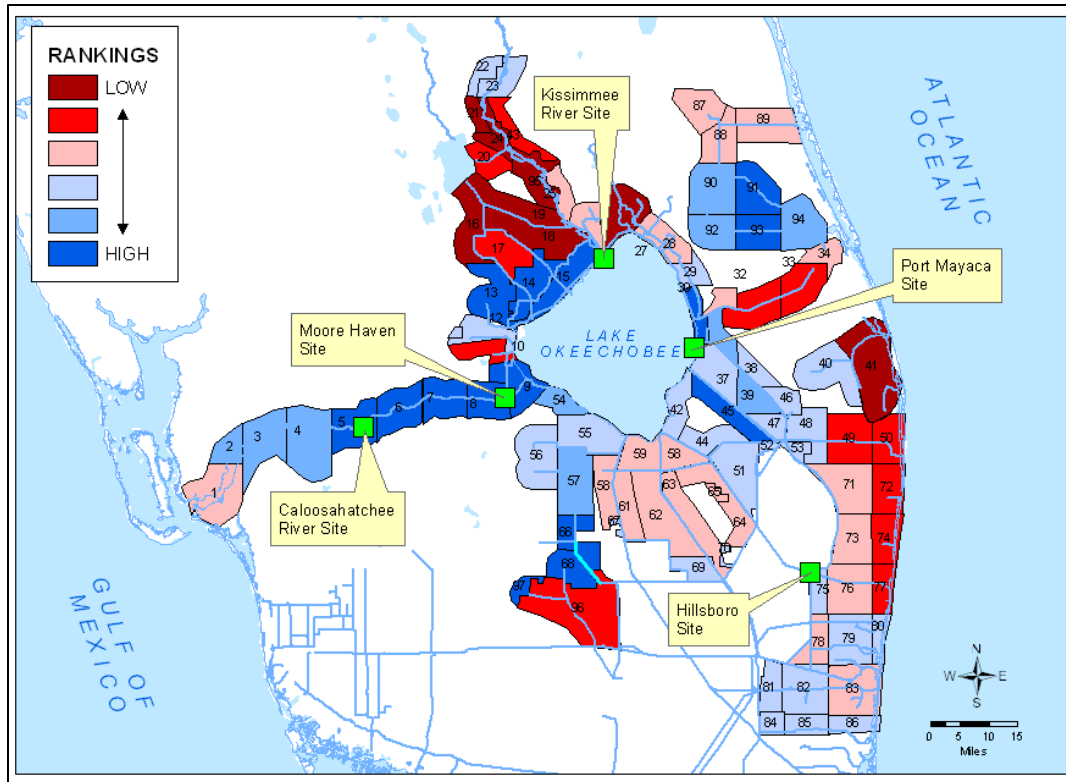


Figure 2-2 -- Results of the ASR well siting study.

Figure from Brown et al. (2005). Numbers within polygons are for index only, not ranking.

### 1 2.4.1 Kissimmee River ASR Pilot Project

2 The Kissimmee River ASR (KRASR) Pilot Project is located on the eastern bank of the  
 3 C-38 Canal (Kissimmee River), 5 miles west of the City of Okeechobee (**Figure 2-1, Figure 2-3**). This  
 4 facility is designed as a single-well ASR system having a production capacity of 5 MGD. Surface water is  
 5 drawn from the Kissimmee River, and then treated with a pressure media filter (sometimes referred to  
 6 as a sand filter) coupled with ultraviolet disinfection to meet primary drinking water standards prior to  
 7 recharge into the upper Floridan Aquifer (UFA). The filter media is a combination of gravel, sand and  
 8 anthracite. Treated surface water is stored at depths between 572 and 880 feet below land surface  
 9 (bls). A cycle testing strategy involving short and long recharge, storage, and recovery periods was  
 10 developed and implemented at KRASR. When stored water is recovered and retreated, it is discharged  
 11 through a constructed cascade to aerate the water to make it compatible with surface water before it  
 12 enters the river.

13 Exploratory well construction at the KRASR system was initiated in 2003 and completed in 2004 by the  
 14 SFWMD (CH2M Hill, 2004). The KRASR system incorporated several monitor wells that had been  
 15 constructed previously by the SFWMD for the Regional Floridan Aquifer Groundwater (RFGW)  
 16 monitoring program, for cost savings. These wells were supplemented by three storage zone monitor  
 17 wells constructed by the USACE. A single-zone storage zone monitor well (SZMW) located 350-ft from

1 the ASR well (MW-10) was completed in 2007 (Golder Associates, Inc., 2007). A dual-zone SZMW (OKF-  
2 100 U and L; Golder Associates, Inc. 2006) serves as a distal monitor well open to the UFA and APPZ  
3 located approximately 1,100 ft from the ASR well. Well OKH-100 monitors water levels in the overlying  
4 Hawthorn Group confining unit. Well OKS-100 monitors water levels in the surficial aquifer.  
5 Conceptualization and design of the surface facility began in 2003, culminating in a design  
6 documentation report (USACE and SFMWD, 2004). Plans and specifications were completed for the  
7 surface facility, and a request for proposals (RFP) for construction of the surface facility was issued  
8 during January 2006. The surface facility was constructed and accepted after performance testing was  
9 completed during December 2007. During performance testing, it became clear that the original two-  
10 unit ultraviolet (UV) disinfection system was insufficient for coliform inactivation. After consultation  
11 with the FDEP, the construction contract was modified to add a third UV unit and by-pass piping so that  
12 the UV system could be tested without recharging the Floridan Aquifer. ASR system modifications and  
13 additional operational tests were completed, and a revised ASR system performance submittal was  
14 accepted in December 2008. Cycle testing was initiated in January 2009. The ASR wellfield was  
15 subsequently expanded with the addition of two distal SZMWs between cycle test 2 and 3, to evaluate  
16 effects in the aquifer at distances up to 4,200-ft away from the ASR well. The fourth and final cycle test  
17 was completed in July 2013.

18 The KRASR system surface facility construction was completed in late 2007, at a cost of \$6,138,253  
19 (contract 1 award plus modifications). Four storage zone monitor wells plus a surficial aquifer well were  
20 constructed at a cost of \$1,741,171. Post-construction system upgrades and testing of the UV  
21 disinfection system were required to ensure continuous operation and regulatory compliance. This  
22 delayed the initiation of operational cycle testing until January 2009. Four operational cycle tests were  
23 completed at the KRASR system in July 2013. For each successive cycle test, the volume of surface  
24 water recharge and the duration of storage in the aquifer increased. Cycle test 4 was one of the largest  
25 single-well recharge events conducted to date in Florida, and most closely resembles the typical  
26 operation envisioned in the CERP for Lake Okeechobee. Percent recovery of recharged water from the  
27 UFA was approximately 100 percent by volume for each cycle test, which exceeds the maximum percent  
28 recovery estimated for the CERP. High percent recoveries are expected at KRASR because the native  
29 groundwater is relatively fresh.

#### 30 2.4.2 Hillsboro ASR Pilot Project

31 The Hillsboro ASR (HASR) Pilot Project is located west of Boca Raton (southwestern Palm Beach County)  
32 adjacent to the Loxahatchee National Wildlife Refuge and the Hillsboro Canal (**Figure 2-1, Figure 2-3**).  
33 This facility was designed as a single ASR well system having a production capacity of 5 MGD. The ASR  
34 system withdraws surface water from the Hillsboro Canal through an intake-discharge structure. Similar  
35 to the KRASR system, surface water is treated to meet primary drinking water standards via screen  
36 filtration with UV disinfection prior to recharge. Treated surface water is stored at depths between  
37 1,015 and 1,225 feet bls. A cycle-testing strategy involving shorter recharge, storage, and recovery  
38 durations was evaluated at the HASR pilot system. This project is in close proximity to the proposed

1 CERP Site 1 Impoundment at Fran Reich Preserve, and was originally envisioned as the first of up to 30  
2 ASR wells that could be integrated into that CERP feature.

3 Exploratory well construction at the HASR system was initiated in 1999 and completed in 2001 by the  
4 SFWMD. Additional monitor wells were constructed at the site during subsequent years.  
5 Conceptualization and design of the surface facility began in 2004, culminating in a design memorandum  
6 (PBS&J, 2005). Plans and specifications were completed shortly thereafter, and a construction contract  
7 was awarded by the SFWMD during December 2005. Construction of all wells and the surface facility  
8 was completed by November 2008 at a cost of \$2,277,598.30 (construction award plus modifications).  
9 There were several factors that delayed initiation of cycle testing at the HASR system. Recharge was not  
10 permitted due to low water levels in the Hillsboro Canal during late 2008 and 2009. The position of the  
11 vertical turbine pump in the ASR well was adjusted for better operation. These issues were resolved and  
12 cycle testing was initiated in January 2010. The third and final cycle test was completed by June 2012.



Figure 2-3 -- Photographs showing the Kissimmee River ASR system (left) and the Hillsboro ASR system (right).

13 Three cycle tests at HASR were designed to test the feasibility of wet-season recharge and dry-season  
14 recovery during an annual cycle test. Percent recovery improved from 21 percent during cycle test 2, to  
15 41 percent by volume during cycle test 3. Lower percent recovery is expected at HASR (compared to  
16 KRASR) due to mixing with native brackish groundwater during each cycle test.

### 17 2.4.3 Port Mayaca ASR Pilot Project

18 The Port Mayaca ASR (PMASR) Pilot Project was designed, and an exploratory well (EXPM-1) was  
19 constructed in 2004 by the SFWMD. Well MF-37 was converted to a dual-zone (UFA and APPZ) monitor  
20 well by the USACE in 2007 (Mactec Engineering and Consulting, 2007). The UFA occurs at depths  
21 between 800 and 900 ft bls, which is favorable for ASR implementation. This pilot project is of particular  
22 interest to the CERP ASR program because the design called for a multi-ASR well facility, to determine  
23 the hydraulic interactions among a cluster of ASR wells. **Figure 2-4** presents a conceptual design of the  
24 multi-well system.

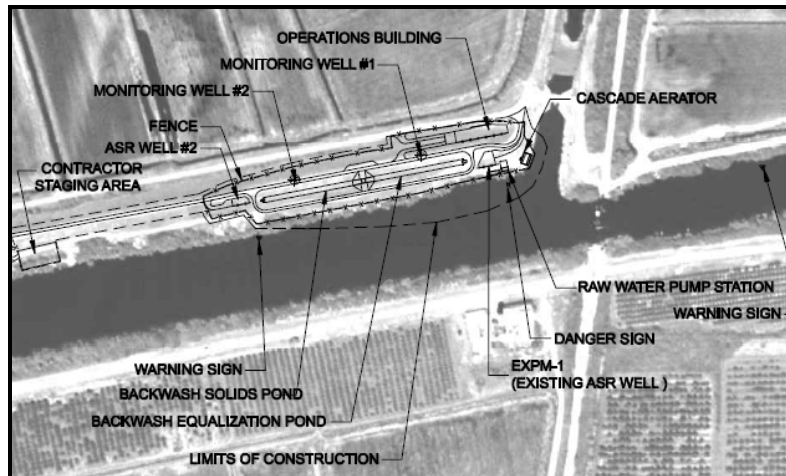


Figure 2-4 -- Aerial photograph showing plan view of the proposed Port Mayaca ASR system.

#### 1 2.4.4 Conclusions and Recommendations from the CERP ASR Pilot Projects

2 The following conclusions were drawn from cycle testing at KRASR and HASR systems. Data and  
 3 interpretations from cycle testing at the individual systems are documented in the CERP ASR Pilot  
 4 Project Technical Data Report (USACE and SFWMD, 2013).

- 5 • Five MGD ASR systems can be permitted, designed, constructed and operated in geographically  
 6 diverse areas in South Florida.
- 7 • The hydrogeologic characteristics of the upper portions of the FAS are laterally continuous, and  
 8 suitable for implementation of ASR systems in areas of water availability important to  
 9 Everglades Restoration. Some variability in aquifer characteristics make it prudent to conduct  
 10 an exploratory program at the location where ASR is being considered.
- 11 • No effects of the ASR pilot projects were observed on the overlying Surficial Aquifer System  
 12 (SAS). The thickness of the Hawthorn Group sediments ranges between 400-ft and 700-ft at the  
 13 pilot sites, providing effective hydraulic separation between the SAS and storage zone in the  
 14 FAS.
- 15 • Surface water in South Florida generally is suitable for subsurface storage via ASR systems. The  
 16 high organic content (i.e., color) and presence of coliform bacteria in surface water requires  
 17 treatment focused on filtration and disinfection technologies.
- 18 • Despite a clear understanding of potential challenges beforehand, and several efforts including  
 19 literature searches and pre-pilot-project bench and field-scale testing, the functionality of the  
 20 ASR Pilot Project water quality treatment systems was continuously challenged given the  
 21 surface water quality and variability. Further research and testing of filtration and disinfection  
 22 systems beyond those tested in the CERP ASR Pilot Projects would be beneficial to avoid or  
 23 minimize some of the operational challenges experienced.
- 24 • Published research from cycle testing at KRASR indicates that arsenic is released but is  
 25 subsequently precipitated in the aquifer during a single cycle test, such that nearly all recovered  
 26 water in successive cycle tests is in regulatory compliance with the Safe Drinking Water Act.

- 1 • Despite the generally favorable results of the ASR pilot projects, arsenic mobilization and  
2 attenuation is still an issue that must be addressed regardless of location. This will require  
3 regulatory flexibility until the ASR storage zone is conditioned with successive cycles of  
4 operation -- and/or additional water quality treatment is conducted -- to achieve regulatory  
5 compliance with the 10 µg/L arsenic drinking water standard.
- 6 • As stated in the Pilot Project Design Report – and as experienced at the ASR Pilot Projects – ASR  
7 systems should ideally be located adjacent to large, flowing water bodies to provide sufficient  
8 water availability for storage and provide flexibility to comply with National Pollution Discharge  
9 Elimination System (NPDES) permit requirements by allowing for mixing zones in surface water  
10 bodies for water quality parameters as appropriate.
- 11 • The regulatory relief mechanisms associated with the (1) Underground Injection Control (UIC)  
12 Program (i.e., water quality criteria exemptions for secondary standards; administrative orders  
13 for arsenic and total coliform); and (2) National Pollutant Discharge Elimination System (NPDES)  
14 Program (i.e., mixing zones for select parameters) that were granted by FDEP were critical to the  
15 testing program. Most of these requirements would be anticipated to be critical for any future  
16 CERP ASR implementation.
- 17 • ASR systems located in the Lake Okeechobee area and completed in the upper portions of the  
18 Floridan Aquifer can achieve upwards of 100 percent recovery of stored water due to the  
19 freshwater quality of the aquifer. Conversely, the brackish quality of the Floridan aquifer in  
20 South Florida (e.g., HASR) will require successive cycles over a few years to achieve a target of  
21 70 percent recovery.
- 22 • Given the exploratory nature of the CERP ASR pilot projects, operational and monitoring costs  
23 were expected to be greater than those for municipal ASR systems and that assumption proved  
24 to be correct. Some cost savings can be realized (compared to cycle testing costs at CERP ASR  
25 systems) by reducing groundwater quality monitoring frequency or number of analytes,  
26 especially if newer systems are located in the vicinity of the CERP ASR systems.
- 27 • Water quality testing of recovered water from the ASR Pilot Projects did not result in any  
28 unforeseen subsurface geochemical reactions that would cause adverse environmental effects  
29 on the receiving surface water body other than arsenic as previously anticipated and discussed.
- 30 • Some reduction of source water phosphorus concentrations occurs during ASR storage, and this  
31 is postulated to result from microbial uptake, aquifer filtration, dilution and/or precipitation as  
32 calcium phosphate. This observation should be considered when selecting storage and  
33 treatment facilities to achieve CERP objectives.
- 34 • Wellhead operating pressures observed during the recharge phase at both CERP ASR systems  
35 were monitored as required by permit. As expected, wellhead pressures did not approach the  
36 calculated thresholds to initiate fracturing of the overlying Hawthorn Group confining  
37 sediments. It is unlikely that hydraulic fracturing and subsequent upward movement of stored  
38 water into the overlying Surficial Aquifer System will occur during ASR cycle testing.
- 39 • Some degree of periodic well maintenance, in the form of wellbore cleaning or acidization  
40 should be anticipated at operational systems, as a long-term procedure to keep ASR wells  
41 hydraulically efficient.

- 1 • Multi-well ASR systems should be designed -- based in part on numerical modeling -- to ensure  
 2 that appropriate, conservative well spacing is implemented so that theoretical fracture  
 3 pressures are not approached and subsurface storage is optimized.

## 4 2.5 Other Related Projects

5 ASR is a water resource management technology that can be integrated into other projects within and  
 6 beyond the CERP. Several of these projects were executed by the SFWMD as non-CERP projects.  
 7 Project locations are shown on **Figure 2-1**.

### 8 2.5.1 CERP Site 1 Impoundment at Fran Reich Preserve

9 The proposed Site 1 Impoundment is an above-ground storage reservoir located on a 1,660 acre  
 10 footprint that is bounded on the south by the Hillsboro Canal, on the north and west by the L-40 canal,  
 11 and on the east by a header canal, as shown on **Figure 2-5**. This project is divided into two phases:  
 12 Phase I will reinforce the L-40 levee that separates the Loxahatchee National Wildlife Reserve from the  
 13 impoundment; Phase II will complete the impoundment levee reinforcement, add two pump stations,  
 14 and incorporate the HASR system into impoundment operations. When completed, this project could  
 15 integrate up to 30 ASR wells within its operation. This combined facility would be one of the few  
 16 conjunctive ASR-reservoir operations in Florida.

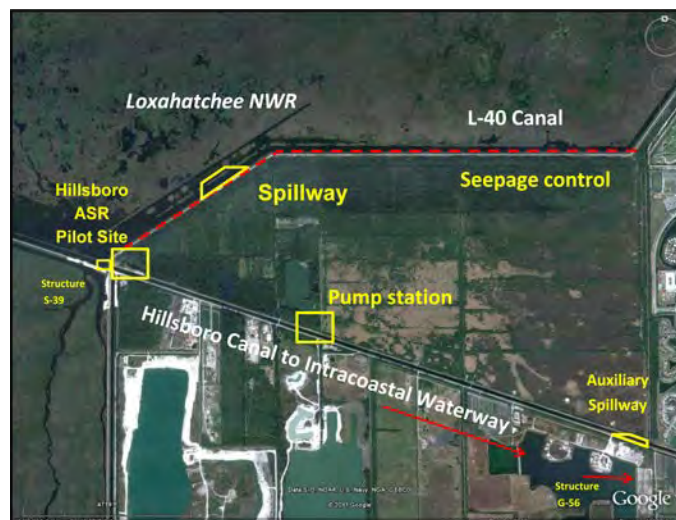


Figure 2-5 -- Aerial photo showing the Hillsboro ASR pilot system and other water management structures associated with the proposed Site 1 Impoundment project.

### 17 2.5.2 CERP C-43 Reservoir

18 The Caloosahatchee River (C-43) West Basin Storage Reservoir (WBSR) Project was initiated under the  
 19 Water Resources Development Act (WRDA) of 2000. The project includes an above-ground reservoir



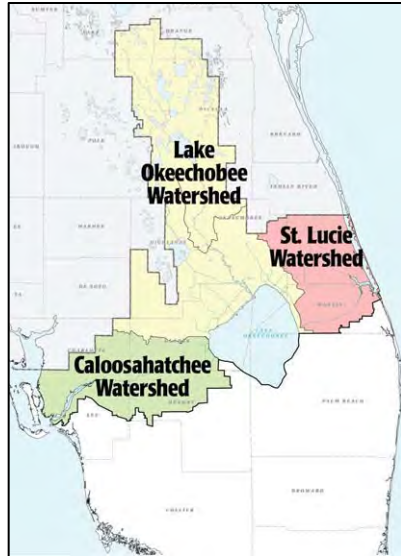
1 having a total storage capacity of approximately 170,000 acre-feet, and also will integrate up to 44 ASR  
2 wells. The reservoir will be located in the C-43 Basin, which spans Hendry, Glades, Charlotte, Collier, and  
3 Lee Counties (**Figure 2-1**). This project is designed to capture C-43 Basin runoff and releases from Lake  
4 Okeechobee. The SFWMD acquired the project land and completed the construction and testing of test  
5 cells to evaluate seepage barriers and levee construction design. This information was applied to the  
6 detailed design of the reservoir, which was completed in January 2008. Later in 2008, a corporate  
7 decision was made to suspend development of this project. In August 2014, initial stages of the C-43  
8 WBSR were re-initiated. Currently, all necessary permits have been obtained. Revisions to project  
9 design of the reservoir and pump station were initiated by the SFWMD in August 2014.

### 10 2.5.3 CERP L-8 Reservoir

11 The CERP Loxahatchee River Watershed Restoration Project (formerly known as the Northern Palm  
12 Beach County Project) may integrate up to 10 ASR wells associated with the L-8 reservoir feature (**Figure**  
13 **2-1**). The L-8 site originally was acquired to provide an element of the minimum flows and levels (MFL)  
14 recovery strategy for the Loxahatchee River. Recently, the Restoration Strategies Regional Water  
15 Quality Plan incorporated the L-8 reservoir as one of its features. It is now under construction for use as  
16 a flow equalization basin for the eastern flow-way, and will provide storage to allow for the delivery of  
17 consistent flows that are needed to optimize performance of stormwater treatment areas. The target  
18 date for the completion of this feature is 2016.

### 19 2.5.4 Northern Everglades and Estuaries Protection Plan

20 Underscoring the State's commitment to restoring the Greater Everglades ecosystem, the Florida  
21 Legislature in 2007 expanded the Lake Okeechobee Protection Act to strengthen protection for the  
22 Northern Everglades by restoring and preserving Lake Okeechobee and the Caloosahatchee and St. Lucie  
23 rivers and estuaries (**Figure 2-6**). Implementation of the Northern Everglades and Estuaries Protection  
24 Plan (NEEPP) will improve the quality, quantity, timing and distribution of water to the natural system  
25 and re-establish salinity regimes suitable for maintaining healthy, naturally diverse and well-balanced  
26 estuarine ecosystems. The health of the Northern Everglades will be enhanced by improving land  
27 management to reduce nutrient run-off, by constructing treatment wetlands to improve water quality  
28 and by completing water storage projects to better connect, manage and distribute water to the natural  
29 system. Those responsible for this plan are considering the use of ASR to optimize storage capacity,  
30 treatment and the timing, location, and distribution of flows. Additionally, three ASR projects were  
31 initiated by the SFWMD as distinct projects within the NEEPP, including the Seminole Brighton  
32 Reservation, the L-63N Canal (Taylor Creek) and Paradise Run. The Northern Everglades & Estuaries  
33 Protection Program includes the following concepts:



- Recognizes that the Lake Okeechobee, Caloosahatchee and St. Lucie watersheds are critical water resources of the State.
- Builds upon and consolidates numerous restoration activities into a comprehensive approach.
- Expands the use of the Save Our Everglades Trust Fund to include Northern Everglades restoration and extends it through 2020.

Figure 2-6 -- The project area of the NEEPP.

### 1 2.5.5 Seminole-Brighton ASR Project

2 The Seminole-Brighton project site is located on the north bank of the C-41 Canal in Glades County  
 3 (**Figure 2-1**), on agricultural lands of the Brighton Reservation of the Seminole Tribe. Exploratory well  
 4 construction was completed on behalf of the Seminole Tribe to evaluate ASR feasibility and hydrologic  
 5 characteristics of potential storage zones in the UFA and APPZ (Missimer Groundwater Science, 2007).  
 6 Aquifer performance testing results indicated that the hydrologic characteristics of the UFA and APPZ  
 7 were suitable for ASR. Subsequently, alternatives for the design of the surface facility were developed  
 8 for pre-treatment and disinfection of source water prior to recharge.

### 9 2.5.6 L-63N (Taylor Creek) ASR System Reactivation

10 The L-63N ASR system was one of the first ASR systems developed in the region, with construction of an  
 11 exploratory well and a dual-zone monitor well completed in 1989 adjacent to Taylor Creek in  
 12 Okeechobee County (**Figure 2-1**). This ASR system was envisioned as a large-capacity (10 MGD) system  
 13 with a large storage interval (1,275 ft to 1,700 ft bls) in the APPZ. Four cycle tests were conducted in  
 14 1989 and 1991 (Reese and Alvarez-Zarikian, 2007). Recharge volumes ranged between 181 and 355  
 15 million gallons (MG), but percent recoveries were low (2.7 to 7.2 percent by volume). Low recovery  
 16 performance probably occurred because the durations of the recharge phase were of short (20 to 65  
 17 days), and storage occurred in a highly transmissive aquifer (APPZ). Longer recharge phases and larger  
 18 recharge volumes could result in improved percent recovery at this ASR system. Presently, the design  
 19 for reactivation of the system does not include a disinfection system, and a petition by the SFWMD for  
 20 an aquifer exemption currently is pending with the USEPA.

### 1 2.5.7 Paradise Run ASR System

2 The Paradise Run project site is located seven miles north of KRASR, on the west bank of the Kissimmee  
 3 River south of its confluence with C-41A and spillway and lock structure S-65E in Glades County (**Figure**  
 4 **2-1, Figure 2-7**). The project site is within a former alluvial plain wetland and meander belt of the  
 5 Kissimmee River. An exploratory borehole was tested, and monitor well (HIF-42) construction was  
 6 completed in 2008 (CH2M Hill, 2008). A conceptual ASR system design for a 10-well ASR system that  
 7 would recharge and recover water from the UFA and APPZ (CH2M Hill, 2008).



Figure 2-7 -- Image showing proposed location for the Paradise Run ASR system.

8 This project defined the thickness and hydrologic characteristics of potential storage zones in the UFA  
 9 and the APPZ. The ASR system would use surface water from the Kissimmee River to recharge the  
 10 aquifers through well pairs open to the UFA and APPZ. The conceptual design of this ASR system  
 11 incorporates several novel features such as passive (artesian) recovery to reduce energy consumption,  
 12 and use of wetlands for rehydration and ecosystem restoration.

### 13 2.5.8 Central Everglades Planning Project

14 In October 2011, the intergovernmental South Florida Ecosystem Restoration Task Force endorsed a  
 15 state-federal initiative to speed up planning for key Everglades restoration projects. The Central  
 16 Everglades Planning Project (CEPP) defines a suite of restoration projects in the central Everglades.  
 17 When completed, approximately 210,000 acre-feet (ac-ft) of water will be captured annually and  
 18 directed south to provide ecological benefits. CEPP components are integrated, and include: Everglades  
 19 Agricultural Storage Reservoirs, Water Conservation Area 3 (WCA-3) Decompartmentalization and  
 20 Sheetflow Enhancement, S-356 Pump Station Modifications, L-31 Levee Seepage Management, Flow to  
 21 Northwest and Central WCA-3A, and Everglades Rain-Driven Operations. Several of the features within  
 22 this plan may utilize ASR to optimize storage capacity, treatment and the timing, location, and  
 23 distribution of flows, although integration of ASR into any specific component within the plan is  
 24 conceptual at this time.

### 3 Hydrogeologic and Geophysical Investigations

Expansion of ASR technology to a regional scale requires a detailed understanding of the hydrogeologic setting and hydraulic characteristics of major aquifers and permeable zones of the Floridan Aquifer System. These data define a conceptual hydrogeologic framework, which is the basis for the Regional Groundwater Flow and Solute Transport model described in **Chapter 7**.

The hydrogeologic framework for the FAS developed in two phases: a preliminary framework (Reese and Richardson, 2008), and a final hydrogeologic framework (Reese, 2014). These works build on earlier hydrogeologic investigations published by the USGS for Martin and St. Lucie Counties (Reese, 2004), Palm Beach County (Reese and Memberg, 2000), Broward County (Cunningham, 2013; Reese and Cunningham, 2014), and southwest Florida (Reese, 2000).

#### 3.1 Preliminary Hydrogeologic Framework

A comprehensive understanding of the hydrogeologic framework of the Floridan Aquifer System (FAS), and how that framework influences the movement of water within the FAS, is the foundation for addressing questions about regional ASR implementation on the scale envisioned for Everglades restoration. **Figure 3-1** presents a conceptual geologic column of south Florida's hydrogeologic and lithostratigraphic units as it appeared in the preliminary hydrogeologic framework.

Few studies have mapped the entire FAS in Florida. When the ASR Regional Study was initiated, the principal reference (Miller, 1986) was becoming quite dated. Since Miller (1986), numerous deep wells had been drilled for hydrogeologic testing (e.g. FAS test well programs at SFWMD, SWFWMD, and St. Johns River Water Management District (SJRWMD)). Hydrogeologic exploration projects also were developed to evaluate deep well injection into the Boulder Zone, and Lower Floridan Aquifer as a water supply source. It was recognized that these, and other new data sources, might significantly alter the conceptualization of the FAS envisioned by Miller (1986). The scope of the preliminary hydrogeologic framework, as originally defined, was to synthesize previous major regional works on the FAS into a single comprehensive view of the hydrostratigraphy and hydraulic properties of the FAS from Orlando to Key West.

A detailed review of eight significant regional publications about the FAS was conducted. Combined, these reports encompassed the entire study area and presented a fairly comprehensive (though disconnected) picture about the state of hydrogeologic knowledge of the FAS. In addition to the literature review, newly compiled hydrogeologic data from approximately 400 deep wells were incorporated into the preliminary hydrogeologic framework. These data included lithologic descriptions, geophysical logs, interpreted elevations for hydrostratigraphic formations, aquifer pumping tests, and water-quality analyses. All data for the project are located in the SFWMD environmental database, DBHYDRO.

35

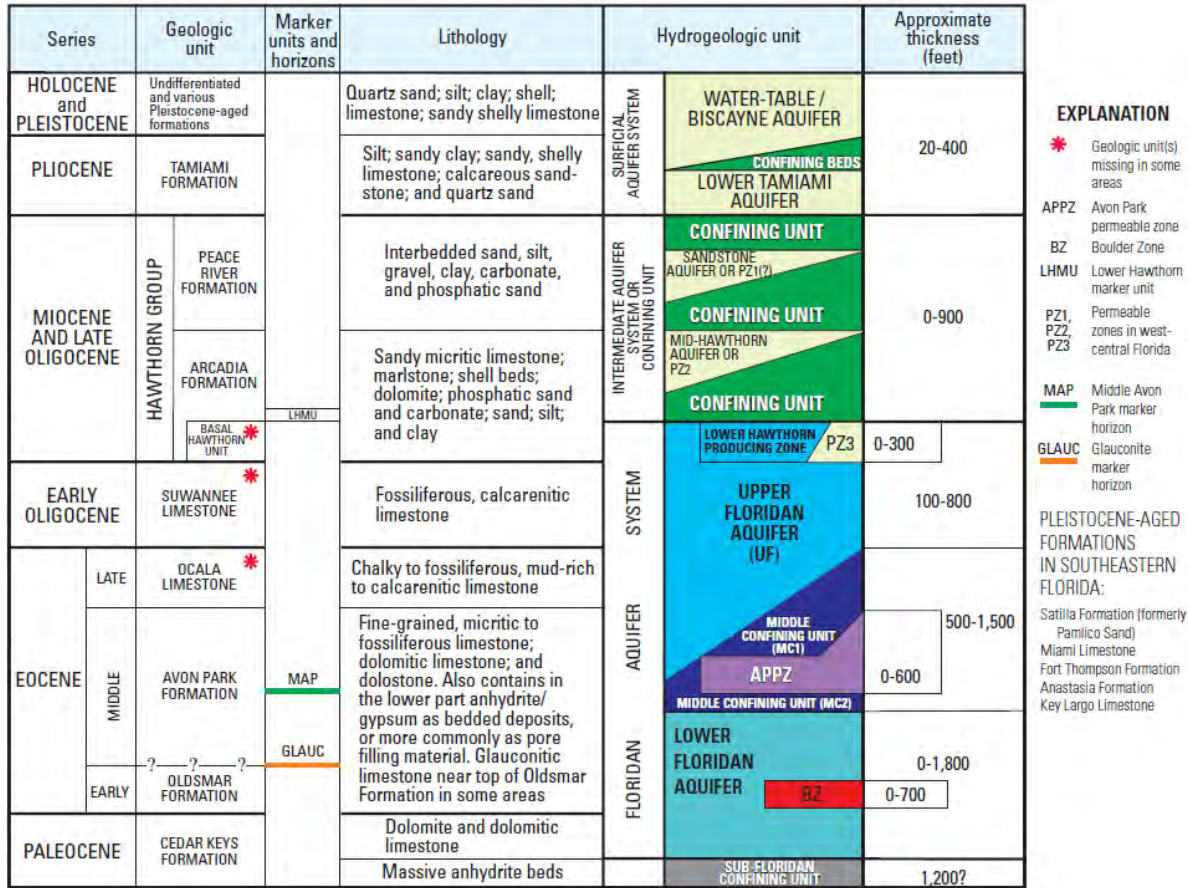


Figure 3-1 -- Chart showing correlation of hydrogeologic units as defined for the ASR Regional Study, with stratigraphic units and their lithologies. Figure from the preliminary hydrogeologic framework (Reese and Richardson, 2008; Figure 8).

- 1 Geologic cross-sections across the study area were then used to identify and resolve discrepancies in the
- 2 literature (Figure 3-2). The team generated maps of bounding surfaces and hydraulic properties for the
- 3 major hydrogeologic units of the FAS. This effort was labeled preliminary because it utilized only data
- 4 that was obtained during the literature search and database compilation tasks. The preliminary
- 5 framework results were subjected to independent expert review, and then utilized as the conceptual
- 6 hydrogeologic model for the ASR Regional Study groundwater flow and solute transport model. Key
- 7 findings from this task were published in Reese and Richardson (2008). In addition to the map products,
- 8 key findings include:
  - 9 • Identification and resolution of differences in hydrogeologic nomenclature and interpretation
  - 10 across the study area.
  - 11 • Introduction and delineation of a major, regionally correlative productive zone referred to as the
  - 12 Avon Park Permeable Zone (APPZ). This zone formerly was a poorly defined permeable zone in
  - 13 the Middle Floridan Aquifer (MFA).

- 1       • Development of a correlative or approximate time-stratigraphic framework to identify and  
2       define aquifers, producing zones, and confining units within the FAS and to determine their  
3       structural relations.

4       The preliminary framework also identified data gaps and areas requiring additional analysis. In general,  
5       the amount of data available from wells decreased with depth because fewer wells are drilled to the  
6       depths (about 3,000 ft deep) fully penetrating the FAS. Additional hydrostratigraphic data were needed  
7       in several areas, including central Palm Beach County and the Lower Kissimmee Basin. Additional  
8       information about the hydraulic properties of the FAS along an area thought to be a hydrologic “divide”  
9       in the center part of the state was also identified. These areas of missing information were guided  
10      subsequent data collection efforts and construction of new test wells.

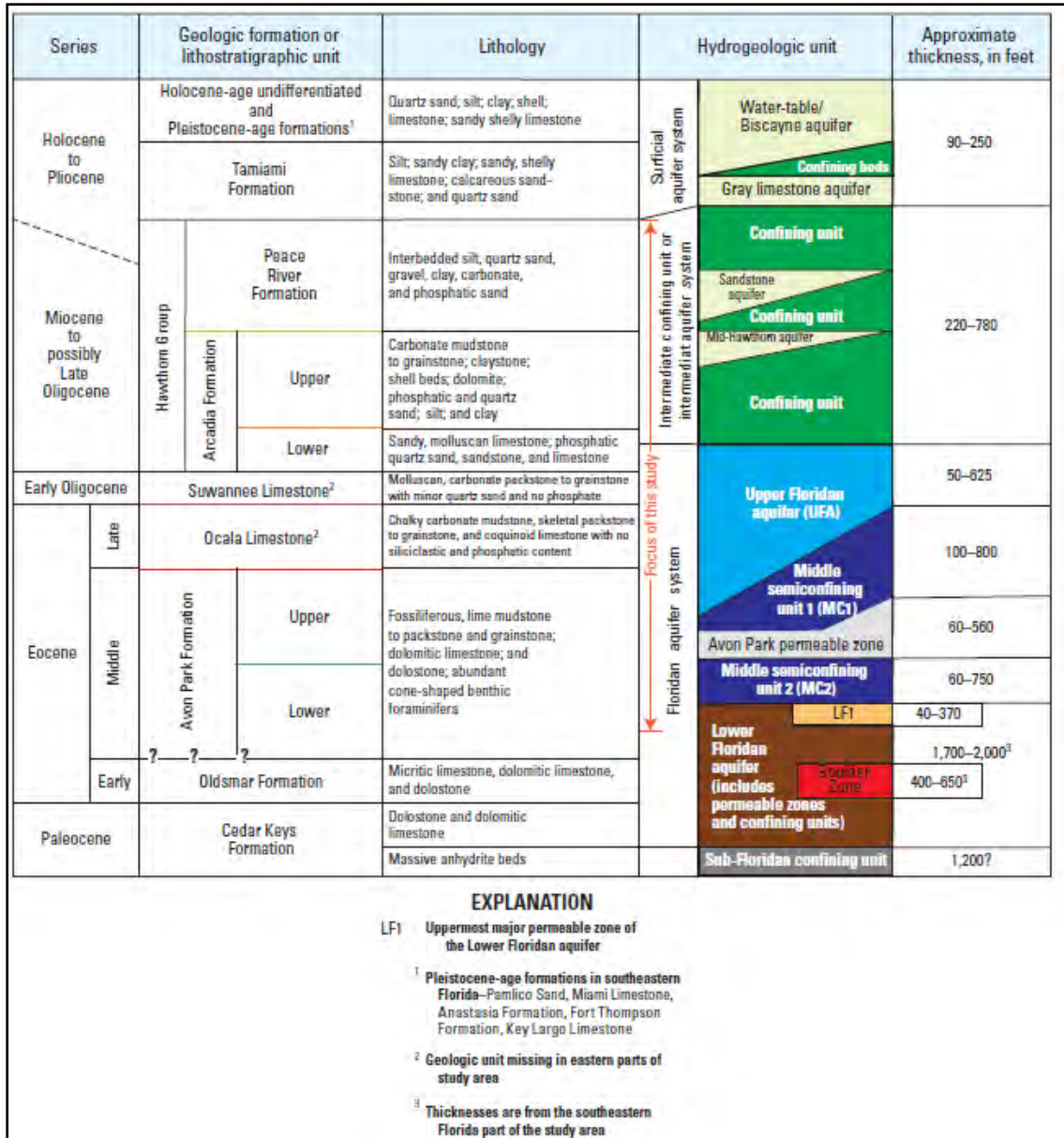
### 11    3.2    Final Hydrogeologic Framework

12      Additional hydrogeologic, lithologic, and geophysical data were obtained by the USGS, USACE, SFWMD,  
13      and water utilities since publication of the preliminary hydrogeologic framework (Reese and Richardson,  
14      2008). Much of the data are summarized in well construction reports and other technical publications  
15      detailed in the following sub-sections. Reese (2014) interpreted these data in a regional context, and  
16      refined the existing FAS hydrogeologic framework (**Figure 3-3**).

17      New hydrogeologic cross-sections show the distribution of three major continuous permeable zones  
18      within the FAS: the UFA, the APPZ, and an uppermost major permeable zone in the Lower Floridan  
19      Aquifer (LFA). These permeable zones were recognized and defined in Reese and Richardson (2008), but  
20      a much greater resolution of these features is provided for the Lake Okeechobee region by Reese  
21      (2014).

22      The UFA commonly serves as the storage zone at many ASR systems in south Florida. Reese (2014)  
23      reports the lateral extent and hydraulic characteristics of the UFA in the Lake Okeechobee region. The  
24      UFA is thinnest in the northwestern portion of Lake Okeechobee, and thickest around the lake’s  
25      southern end. The upper boundary of the UFA commonly coincides with the erosional contact of the  
26      Ocala Limestone. A preferential flow zone was identified at this hydrostratigraphic horizon (Reese and  
27      Alvarez-Zarikian, 2007), and was estimated to represent 60 percent of total flow in the ASR well at  
28      KRASR (Mirecki et al., 2012). This preferential flow zone is a regional feature observed in wells open to  
29      the UFA near Lake Okeechobee. The upper surface of the Ocala Limestone and overlying Arcadia  
30      Formation also show pronounced depressions, having relief of up to 300 ft along the northeastern and  
31      southwestern sides of Lake Okeechobee. These structures, now mapped, could be the result of karst  
32      collapse structures that were identified elsewhere in seismic reflection studies (Cunningham, 2013).

33



1

2 Figure 3-2 -- Chart showing correlation of hydrogeologic units as defined for the ASR Regional  
 3 Study, with stratigraphic units and their lithologies. Figure from the final hydrogeologic  
 4 framework of Reese (2014).

5 In addition to the map products, key findings from the final framework include:

- 6 • The lateral extent of the APPZ is further defined. Hydraulic connectivity within the APPZ in wells  
 7 along the Atlantic coast of Martin and Palm Beach Counties is uncertain.
- 8 • The lateral extent of the upper permeable zone of the LFA is further defined. Hydraulic  
 9 connectivity in wells west of Lake Okechobee (Labelle and Glades County) is uncertain.

### 1 3.3 Floridan Aquifer Monitoring Network Expansion

2 Previous investigations of the FAS in south Florida identified the lack of sufficient water-level data to  
3 develop a comprehensive groundwater model. Water-level data are needed to define existing  
4 conditions, and to calibrate the groundwater model for the prediction of future groundwater levels. The  
5 geographic distribution of the available water-level data was focused primarily along the coasts,  
6 whereas few data were available in the interior of the state. A critical need for sites showing the vertical  
7 distribution of water levels within the FAS also was identified. The ASR Regional Study allowed for the  
8 installation and maintenance of continuous water-level recorders at several FAS wells in key locations to  
9 improve the quality and quantity of data available for groundwater modeling (**Figure 3-4**).

10 The current extent of the FAS recorder network is shown in **Figure 3-5**. Thirty sites were added to the  
11 network since project initiation, with many of the sites monitoring multiple depth intervals within the  
12 FAS. The current network consists of 70 sites monitoring 95 discrete zones within the FAS. Each  
13 monitored interval was surveyed and instrumented with automatic recorders, pressure transducers, and  
14 telemetry equipment to transmit the recorded pressure data to the SFWMD. These data are reviewed  
15 by SFWMD staff, converted to water-level data and uploaded to the DBHYDRO database. All sites are  
16 visited quarterly for maintenance service and an instrumentation calibration check.

17



Figure 3-3 -- A continuous groundwater monitoring station at an FAS well.



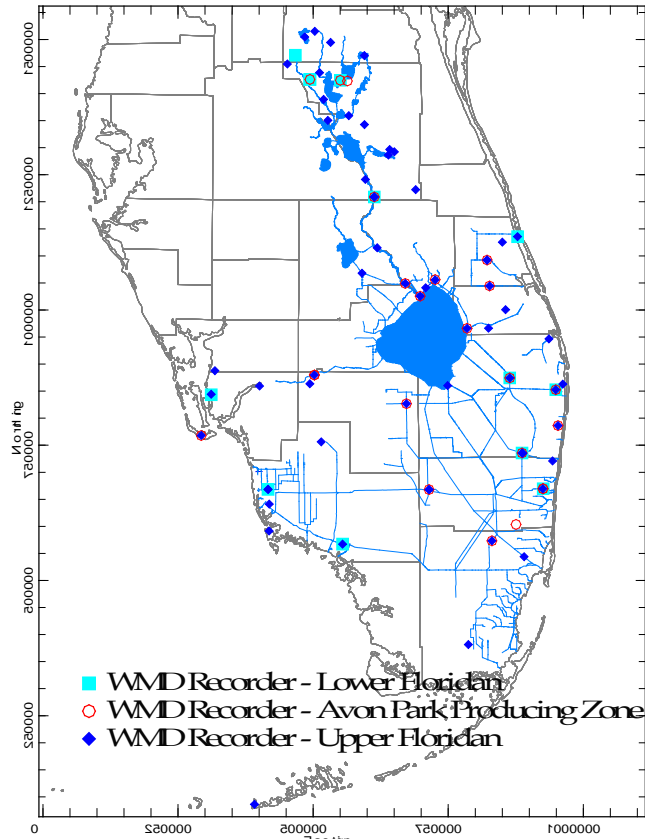


Figure 3-4 -- Current FAS water-level recorder network.

1

## 2 3.4 Well Construction for Hydrologic and Geophysical Testing

3 Construction of four individual wells was specified within the hydrogeologic field data collection  
 4 program for the ASR Regional Study, which supplemented an existing hydrogeologic data collection  
 5 program at SFWMD. By 2011, five additional FAS wells or well clusters were constructed by the SFWMD  
 6 to augment their existing Regional Floridan Aquifer Monitoring program. Well construction and aquifer  
 7 performance testing (APT) results are cited as references in **Table 3-1**, and are available for download in  
 8 the SFWMD DBHYDRO database. These wells were constructed at Allapattah (Sunderland, 2008),  
 9 Alligator Alley, L-8 (Anderson, 2008), S-65A (AECOM Water, 2008), S-65C (Sunderland et al., 2011), and  
 10 northwest Lake Okechobee (CH2M Hill, 2008). The initial field data collection plan conformed closely  
 11 to the vision outlined in the PMP. As project goals, schedule, and funding evolved over time, the plan  
 12 was adapted to adjust to these constraints. Proposed locations for field data collection tasks are shown  
 13 in **Figure 3-6**.

14

1

| <b>Legend</b>   | <b>Field Task</b>  | <b>Hydrogeologic Report Reference</b>  |
|---|--|--|
| TWP   | Task 1: Test Well Pairs  | CH2M Hill, 2007a, b; CH2M Hill, 2008; Anderson, 2008; Sunderland, 2008; AECOM Water, 2008; Sunderland et al., 2011   |
| PM  | Task 2: ASR Pilot Site Monitor Wells                           | Bennett et al., 2001; Bennett and Rectenwald, 2002; Golder Associates, Inc., 2006, 2007; Mactec, 2007; Water Resource Solutions, Inc., 2004, 2005; Entrix, 2010 a, b |
| CC  | Task 3: Continuous Cores                                       | CCBRY-1 at CRASR; in Arthur et al., 2007.  |
| SPS   | Task 4: Single Wells near Pumping Stresses                     | Sunderland et al., 2011  |
| SR  | Task 5: Seismic Reflection Survey                              | Lake Okeechobee - CH2M Hill, 2006; Townsend Canal - Walker Marine Geo-physical Co. LLC, 2004   |
| All   | Task 6: Supplementing the SFWMD Water-level Monitoring Network | Same as Task 1   |
| All   | Task 7: Water-Quality Monitoring Network                       | Same as Task 1   |
| TT  | Task 8: Tracer Tests   | Not conducted  |
| APT   | Task 9: Aquifer Performance Testing at Existing Wells          | Same as Task 6 plus Clewiston FAS well   |
| TOM   | Task 10: Tomography  | Port Mayaca ASR  |
|   | Task 11: Post cycle test logging / in-situ dissolution         | Not conducted  |
| Note: Field task locations are identified by "legend" acronyms on <b>Figure 3-6</b> . |  |  |

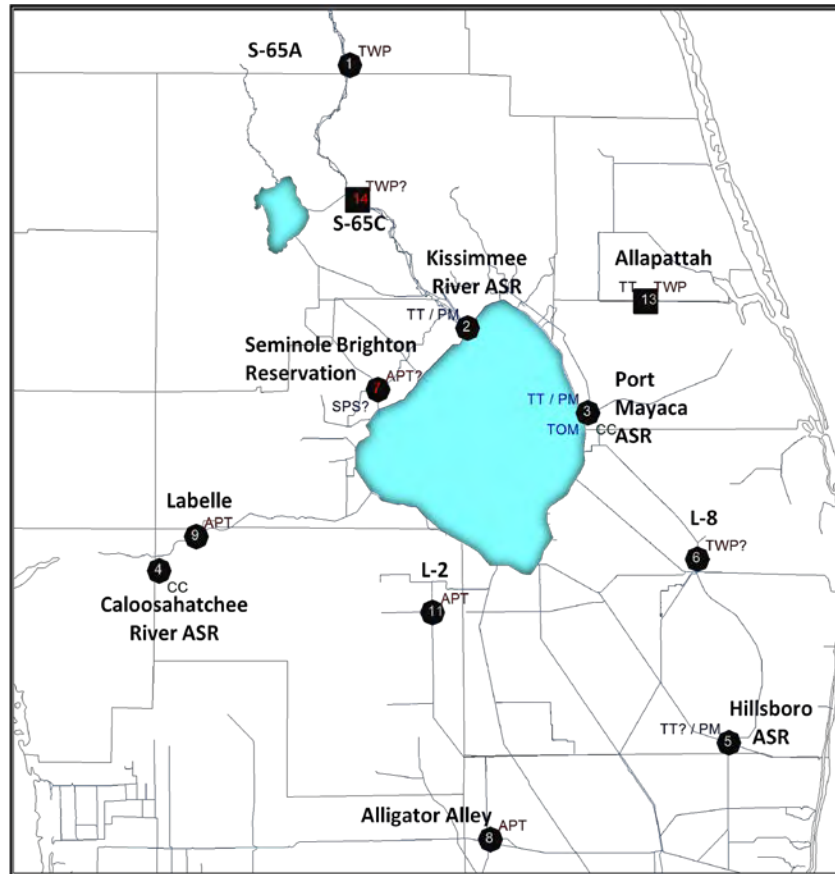


Figure 3-5 -- Map showing locations of wells for hydrologic and geophysical data collection. Acronyms defined in Table 3-1.

- 1 Test and monitor well locations were chosen based on proximity to source waters for ASR, availability of
  - 2 existing wells, and other hydrogeologic factors. Two existing wells, at L-2 and LaBelle, were
  - 3 rehabilitated and retrofitted to accommodate further exploration of the FAS (CH2M Hill, 2007a,b).
  - 4 Additional wells and testing supplemented the development of the four CERP ASR Pilot Project sites
  - 5 (CRASR, HASR, KRASR, and PMASR). These well tasks included conversions of single-zone to dual zone
  - 6 wells at KRASR (Golder Associates, Inc., 2006), PMASR (Mactec, 2007), and CRASR (Water Resource
  - 7 Solutions, Inc., 2004, 2005) plus construction of additional storage zone monitor wells at KRASR (Golder
  - 8 Associates, Inc. 2007; Entrix, 2010 a,b). New wells were constructed at Allapattah (Sunderland, 2008),
  - 9 Alligator Alley, L-8 (Anderson, 2008), S-65A (AECOM Water, 2008), S-65C (Sunderland et al., 2011), and
  - 10 northwest Lake Okeechobee (CH2M Hill, 2008). Wells at these sites were designed to provide
  - 11 hydrogeologic information and serve as long-term monitoring sites in the FAS and confining units.
- 
- 12 The test wells were designed to characterize distinct zones of the FAS to be monitored during the ASR
  - 13 Regional Study. The storage zone typically targeted for use is the UFA, but the APPZ and the Lower
  - 14 Floridan aquifers also were considered. A variety of hydrogeologic data were collected at the test well

1 sites, including water quality, rock cuttings and cores, APT data, and borehole geophysical logs to  
 2 provide information about the lithology and the physical properties of the water, rock, and borehole.

### 3 3.5 Estimation of Hydraulic Parameters in the FAS

4 A major objective of the hydrologic portion of the ASR Regional Study was to synthesize all existing  
 5 hydraulic data for the FAS, for regional characterization of potential storage zones, and also to support  
 6 groundwater flow model development. The preliminary hydrogeologic framework defined boundary  
 7 conditions for layers representing aquifers and confining units. Estimates of aquifer transmissivity and  
 8 storage parameters were compiled from APTs, packer tests, core permeability measurements, and other  
 9 hydrologic tests conducted in the FAS of south Florida. Test data were evaluated in context of the  
 10 lithologic units penetrated, and the degree of penetration of the aquifer, then reviewed for technical  
 11 soundness. After this quality assurance process was completed, hydraulic data were entered into the  
 12 SFWMD DBHYDRO database, and incorporated into the ASR Regional groundwater flow model.

13 The majority of aquifer testing conducted previously in the FAS was performed either to assess the  
 14 potential for water supply, or to assess confinement for deep well (Boulder Zone) injection facilities.  
 15 Water supply applications often produce tests that encompass multiple hydrostratigraphic units. Tests  
 16 that encompassed more than one production interval, or production interval and confining unit, were  
 17 identified and coded. **Table 3-2** summarizes the results of the test classifications.

| Table 3-2 -- Classification of Hydraulic Test Data. Table shows number of tests that describe hydraulic characteristics of each aquifer and/or confining unit. |  |              |      |
|--|--|--------------|------|
| Code   | Hydrostratigraphic Unit                              | APT / Packer | Core |
| IC/IA  | Intermediate Confining Unit/<br>Intermediate Aquifer | 32           | 5    |
| UF   | Upper Floridan                                       | 113          | 36   |
| UFP  | Upper Floridan, partial (P)                          | 165          |      |
| MC1  | Middle Confining Unit 1                              | 9            | 45   |
| MC1P   | Middle Confining Unit 1 partial                      | 27           |      |
| UFMFP  | Upper Floridan /<br>Middle Floridan partial          | 52           |      |
| UFMF   | Upper Floridan/Middle Floridan                       | 9            |      |
| MF   | Middle Floridan                                      | 26           | 8    |
| MFP  | Middle Floridan partial                              | 39           |      |
| MC2  | Middle Confining Unit 2                              | 0            | 62   |
| MC2P   | Middle Confining Unit 2 partial                      | 76           |      |
| LF1  | Lower Floridan Unit 1                                | 29           | 22   |
| LF1P   | Lower Floridan Unit 1 partial                        | 9            |      |
| LC   | Lower Confining Unit                                 | 0            | 151  |
| LCP  | Lower Confining Unit partial                         | 25           |      |

Notes: P indicates partial penetration of that unit or aquifer

## 1 3.6 Supplementary Analyses of Field Data

2 Additional geotechnical and geophysical analyses were performed at individual wells to better  
3 characterize the FAS. These studies were completed by the SFWMD using CERP and other non-CERP  
4 funds.

### 5 3.6.1 Sequence Stratigraphic Analysis: ROMP 29A Corehole

6 Sequence stratigraphy is a specialized branch of geology that links sediment deposition to changes in sea  
7 level. The basic idea is to map rock layers based on identification of transgressive (sea level rising) and  
8 regressive (sea level falling) sequences. This approach was developed to predict subsurface patterns in  
9 rock material and permeability. A sequence stratigraphic approach to understanding the subsurface  
10 geology in the FAS was evaluated to identify relationships between sequences and the flow  
11 characteristics of the aquifer. This understanding was sought to better predict aquifer characteristics in  
12 the areas between test wells, which would help determine the regional extent of water-bearing layers  
13 feasible for ASR.

14 A study was initiated with the USGS to describe and interpret the lithology in a single continuous  
15 corehole in the context of sequence stratigraphy, and evaluate the utility of this information for  
16 delineation of candidate flow zones and confining units for CERP ASR (Ward et al., 2003). The Regional  
17 Observation Monitoring Program (ROMP) 29A test well, located in Highlands County (**Figure 2-1**), was  
18 used for this evaluation. Well 29A penetrated the Avon Park Formation, Ocala Limestone, Suwannee  
19 Limestone and Hawthorn Group, representing rocks of Middle Eocene to Miocene age (40–10 million  
20 years before present) to a depth of 1,244 feet bls.

21 The report provides a detailed description of the Avon Park Formation of Middle Eocene age, Ocala  
22 Limestone of Late Eocene age, and Suwannee Limestone of Late Eocene and Oligocene ages. Particular  
23 attention was given to the stratigraphic distribution and thickness of porous and permeable zones and  
24 their relation to a sequence-stratigraphic framework established from this core. Lithologic descriptions  
25 are based on examination of 834-ft of slabbed core and 59 petrographic thin sections, and include  
26 petrologic and microfaunal analyses to determine the mineralogy, geologic age, and paleoenvironments  
27 of deposition. Percent vuggy porosity was estimated by a new method for the quantification of vuggy  
28 porosity using digital borehole images (Cunningham et al., 2004).

29 Geophysical log and APT data collected in Highlands County and elsewhere were compared to assess  
30 relationships among geology, hydrogeology, and transmissivity. Within this interval, the USGS was able  
31 to identify numerous sequences of rock, relating lithology to various stages of a rising and falling sea, as  
32 shown in **Figure 3-7**. The USGS then related lithologies to hydrologic characteristics, such as:

- 33 • Distribution of flow in the well from geophysical logs
- 34 • A quantification of the primary source of porosity
- 35 • Transmissivity from aquifer performance tests in the region

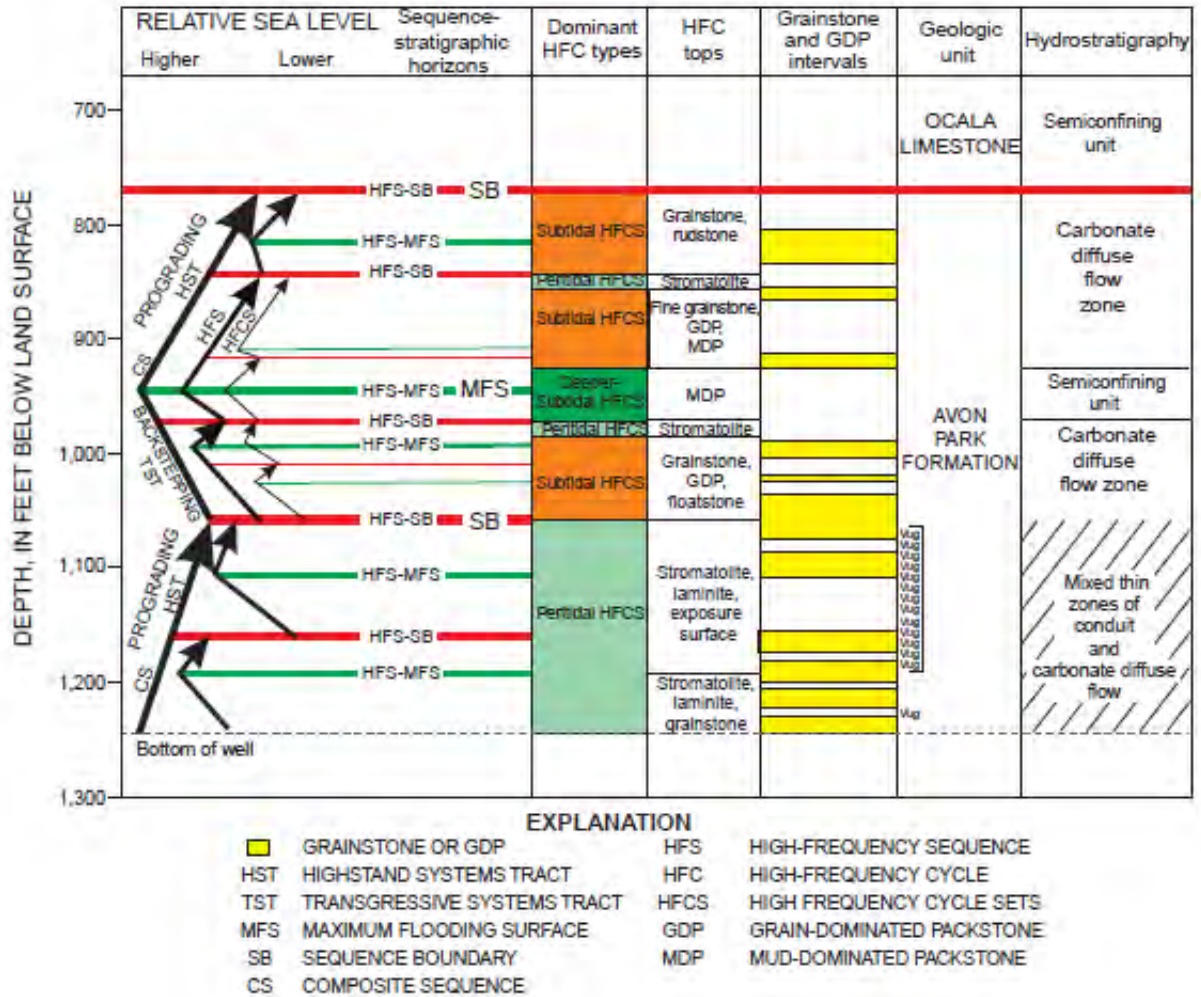


Figure 3-6 -- Summary of sequence stratigraphic horizons from the ROMP 29A core. Figure from Cunningham et al. (2004).

1 Results of these analyses indicated a correlation between zones of diffuse flow (most suitable for ASR)  
 2 and certain portions of the cyclostratigraphic sequence. This study indicated that use of a sequence  
 3 stratigraphic approach could reduce the risk of miscorrelation of groundwater flow zones and confining  
 4 units and should be considered during future ASR-related investigations, should additional continuous  
 5 core data become available.

### 6 3.6.2 Lineament Analysis

7 The concept of surficial topographic, geologic, or biologic elements reflecting the bedrock or  
 8 geomorphic characteristics of an area has been recognized by geologists for over one hundred years.  
 9 However, the practice of mapping lineaments and fractures received little attention until after World  
 10 War II. Using aerial photography, geologists in the oil industry incorporated lineament and fracture  
 11 trace analysis in their research to identify joint and fracture patterns, faults, and other geologic and  
 12 geomorphic features. The purpose of the lineament analysis for this project was to identify subsurface

1 features that could be observed on the land surface in order to develop relationships between geologic  
2 structures and areas of enhanced groundwater flow within the FAS.

3 Because of south Florida's low topographic relief, the surface features that identify lineaments are lakes,  
4 sinkholes and solution depressions, stream alignments and river patterns, and variations in soil and  
5 vegetation patterns. This investigation (USACE, 2004) involved lineament identification on Landsat  
6 digital photographs and comparison of those lineaments with known geologic features. **Figure 3-8**  
7 shows the lineaments identified in south Florida. The red lines in the figure have been documented in  
8 previous lineament studies, whereas the black lines are more conjectural and have yet to be confirmed  
9 through field observation. Azimuths and lengths of each lineament were measured and rose diagrams  
10 and histograms were created. Digital orthophoto quadrangle aerial photos also were viewed as part of  
11 the analysis for the CERP ASR pilot projects. The size of the study area limited the field proofing of  
12 potential lineaments.

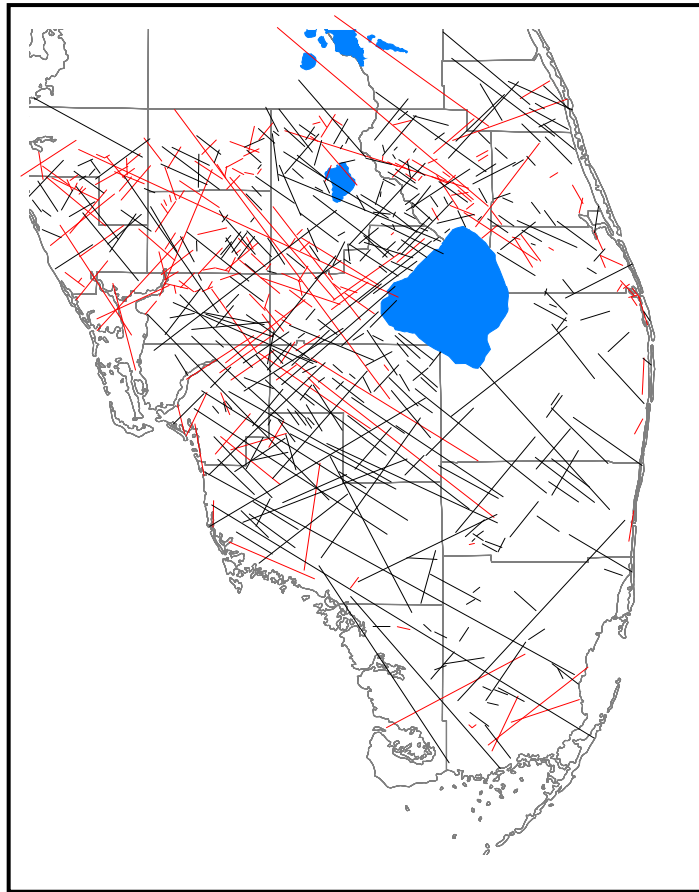


Figure 3-7 -- Lineament map of south Florida. Figure from USACE (2004).

13 Six Landsat multi-spectral scanner (MSS) false color images were assembled to create a mosaic covering  
14 south Florida having a resolution of about 98 feet (30 meters). The images were manipulated to show  
15 various MSS band combinations, with bands 4, 5 and 7 showing the best contrast for identifying

1 lineaments. The lineament analysis was performed using ArcMap™ geographic information system (GIS)  
2 and mapping software to map the lineaments as a coverage layer.

3 A total of 548 lineaments were mapped in the study area. Of these, 63 are equal to or greater than 25  
4 miles in length. Lineaments defined on Landsat imagery at CERP ASR pilot project locations were cross-  
5 checked for correspondence on digital orthophoto quadrangle aerial photos, thus adding confidence to  
6 the significance of the photo-linear. Further confidence gained by noting that the lineament study  
7 duplicated many lineaments identified by other authors.

8 The findings show that the regional geologic structure and hydrogeologic character tend to parallel  
9 surface lineament trends. The data suggest that many lineaments may indicate subsurface fractures or  
10 perhaps faults extending from the basement structures through the overlying rock and are reflected on  
11 the ground surface. One of the most noteworthy findings of this investigation was the concentration of  
12 northeast-trending lineaments along the northern Caloosahatchee River corridor and the northwest side  
13 of Lake Okeechobee. Here, lineaments seem to correlate to a deep basement feature or other deep  
14 geologic structure. Water quality in the FAS degrades significantly south of these features.

15 Other noteworthy findings were: 1) lineaments coinciding with a mapped fault and in areas of higher  
16 chloride concentrations and higher UFA groundwater temperatures in the northeast study area; and 2)  
17 the northwest-trending lineaments in the southwest portion of the study area, which appear to  
18 correlate with naturally occurring upward leakage through semi-confining and confining units, and  
19 inferred faulting and structure in the FAS, Hawthorn Group, and SAS. The lineament study was a useful  
20 contribution to the ASR Regional Study. However, additional data are required to incorporate extensive  
21 lineament structure and orientation into the ASR Regional groundwater model.

### 22 3.6.3 Borehole Fracture Analysis/Image Logging

23 Results from the Phase I regional groundwater model showed that the initial conceptualization for the  
24 model, and by extension, our understanding of the FAS flow system at that time, significantly under-  
25 predicted the heads in southeast Florida. The Phase I model was unable to produce a reasonable match  
26 for predevelopment heads in the Upper Floridan and APPZ south of Lake Okeechobee. The groundwater  
27 modeling team investigated this problem by using the model to evaluate alternate conceptualizations of  
28 the flow system (USACE, 2006). One of the more promising alternatives was the application of regional  
29 anisotropy, increasing the permeability in the FAS along the axis of the peninsula, to direct water more  
30 rapidly southward. Results from the surface lineament analysis encouraged the hypothesis of  
31 preferential orientation of flow in the FAS. The following analysis of geophysical log data from the test  
32 well drilling determined that data were insufficient to support anisotropy as a contributing factor for  
33 model calibration.

34 The groundwaterflow-system within the FAS is highly complex. The FAS contains both primary and  
35 secondary permeability. The secondary permeability ranges from pin-point vugs to caverns, but much of  
36 it appears to be associated with enhanced dissolution along bedding and fracture planes. The degree to



1 which natural fracturing governs the nature of flow within the FAS is poorly understood. In an effort to  
 2 better characterize the relationship among fractures and secondary permeability, anisotropy, and  
 3 productivity, borehole image logs were run on number of wells shown on **Figure 3-9**. These data were  
 4 interpreted using methods for fracture analysis.

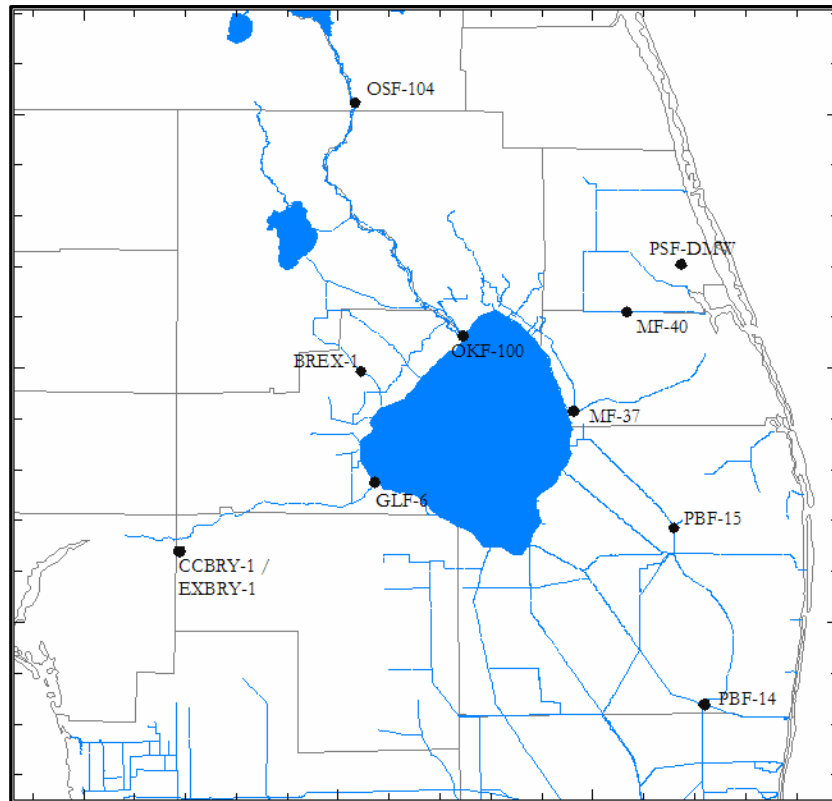


Figure 3-8 -- Locations of wells used for the borehole fracture analysis.

5 Several types of specialty geophysical imaging logs were run and evaluated by independent experts from  
 6 Schlumberger™ or Petris Technology Inc™. These logs produce electronic pictures of the rocks and fluids  
 7 encountered by a drilled borehole:

- 8 • OBI - Optical Borehole Imager: produces high resolution optical image of the borehole wall that  
 9 is fully oriented in 3-d space
- 10 • FMI - Full bore Formation Micro-Imager: produces high resolution electrical resistivity image of  
 11 the borehole wall that is fully oriented in 3-d space
- 12 • UBI - Ultrasonic Borehole Imager: produces high resolution acoustic reflection amplitude and  
 13 travel time image of the borehole wall that is fully oriented in 3-D space

14 The resulting borehole images were analyzed to identify the presence, orientation and dip of planar  
 15 features (bedding planes and fractures) within the borehole log. The individual well analyses from Petris  
 16 and Schlumberger were compiled, and each feature tagged according to its formation, hydrogeologic

1 unit, and flow status (based on correlation to flow log results). In addition to frequency and dip angles,  
 2 the strike orientation (dip azimuth + 90°) of the observed fractures were summarized to determine if  
 3 preferential orientations existed that might lead to directional anisotropy in the permeability of the FAS.  
 4 **Figure 3-10** presents the strike orientations for all of the observed fractures in this study.

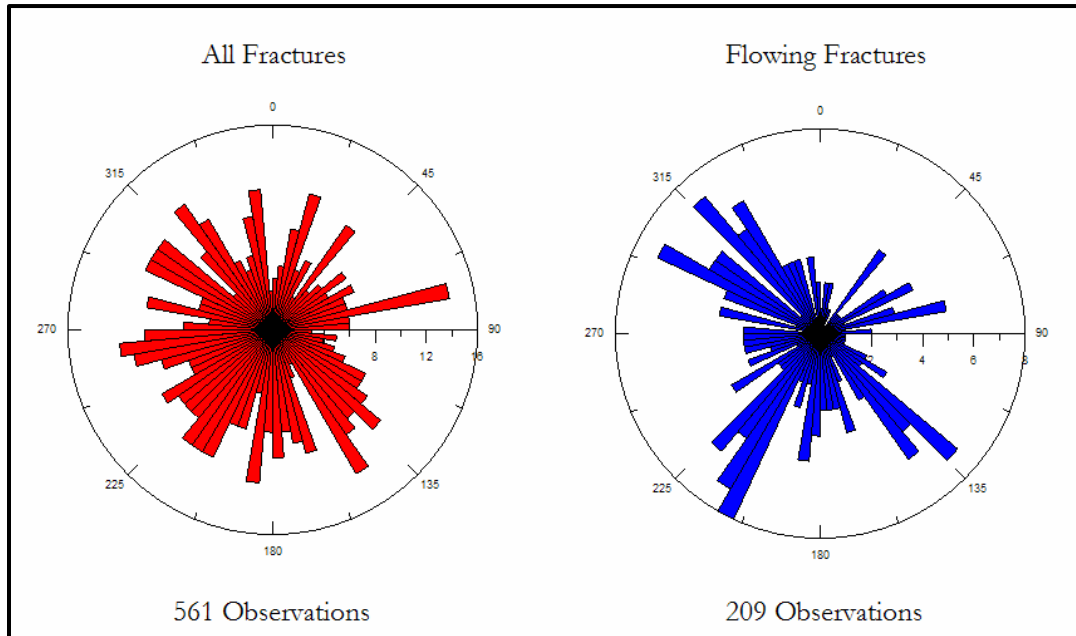


Figure 3-9 -- Strike orientation of all fractures from the image log dataset.

5 The polar coordinate plots represent fracture strike orientation in units of degrees from north. The  
 6 length of the bar represents the frequency of occurrence of fractures at that orientation. When all  
 7 fracture orientations are combined, the orientations looked fairly random. But when the display  
 8 included only fractures with observed productivity, some patterns began to emerge. These patterns are  
 9 resolved further if the orientation data sub-set is grouped by aquifer. The following general  
 10 observations were made from the sub-set data:

- 11 • There are distinct trends in fracture orientation within the aquifers of the FAS.
- 12 • The trends are clearest within productive intervals.
- 13 • The trends are not the same in different aquifer units.
- 14 • Increasing complexity in fracturing tends to increase with depth

15 Based on USACE (2006), the fracture orientation data from the UFA lent itself best to application of  
 16 regional anisotropy to improve model calibration (**Figure 3-10**). Here, the dominant strike orientation  
 17 for flowing fractures within the UFA is overlain on a map of the estimated pre-development head in that  
 18 unit (Bush and Johnston, 1988). The alignment between the orientation of dominant strike, and the  
 19 orientation of the groundwater “high” that runs down the peninsula was intriguing, and constituted  
 20 sufficient support to pursue this avenue of investigation during the early phases of model calibration.  
 21 The data do not, however, support regional application within the entire UFA. Both wells OSF-104 and

1 PBF-14, for example, showed no indication of fracturing within this unit. There are also inherent biases  
 2 in the current log data-set which restrict its interpretation, and the extent to which it can be  
 3 extrapolated beyond the borehole scale. Two critical biases were identified in the data-set which affect  
 4 comparisons of fractures between different aquifers:

- 5 • There are significantly more data in the shallow FAS than in the deeper hydrogeologic units.
- 6 • Flowing intervals within each borehole were defined based on production logging under  
 7 conditions of artesian flow. This depends on an upward head gradient to induce flow into the  
 8 well, something generally not found in the LFA.

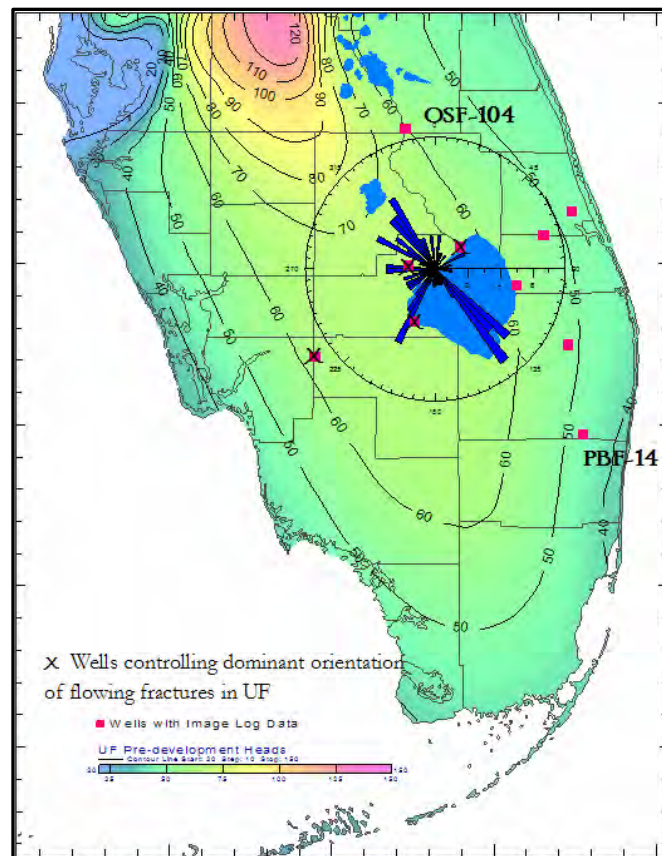


Figure 3-10 -- Flowing fracture orientation in the UFA and estimated pre-development heads.

9 Because of these biases, the image log data-set, if viewed in isolation, would lead to the conclusions  
 10 that; 1) there is a greater intensity of fracturing within the UFA than in the lower permeable units, and  
 11 2) that most fractures within the LFA are un-productive. We know from other data that these  
 12 conclusions are incorrect. Neither of these difficulties is insurmountable, but both require additional  
 13 field data collection to correct. Problem (2) requires different, and more costly test design to rectify,  
 14 while problem (1) is a simple matter of acquiring more sample data. The difficulty with making regional  
 15 extrapolations also is a problem of sample size. As depicted in **Figure 3-10**, data from only four wells

1 contributed to the strike orientation displayed. Of those wells, 75 percent of the fractures were from a  
2 single well, OKF-100, at the KRASR system.

3 The objective of this task was to evaluate the presence and orientation of preferential flow paths due to  
4 fracturing in the FAS, and whether data were sufficient to support the application of a regional  
5 coefficient of anisotropy in regional model calibration. Results from the logging and analysis clearly  
6 indicated preferential orientation of water producing fractures in certain wells, but the available data  
7 are insufficient for regional extrapolation. Due to this conclusion, anisotropy was not used in the final  
8 calibrated regional model. Acquisition and interpretation of additional image log data is promising for  
9 future study of preferential flow in the FAS.

#### 10 3.6.4 Clewiston APT Evaluation for Anisotropy

11 The lineament and borehole image log analyses focused on the question of anisotropy in the FAS. In an  
12 effort to better understand the degree to which anisotropy might affect aquifer responses, the question  
13 was approached from an additional direction. The City of Clewiston had recently installed a 4-well FAS  
14 wellfield. The orientation of the wells, and wellfield location in the data-poor interior offered the  
15 opportunity for further evaluation of the anisotropy question, while acquiring much needed hydraulic  
16 property data for the regional modeling. A 5-day APT was performed and analyzed at the City's new  
17 multi-well FAS wellfield (Water Resource Solutions, 2007). Well configurations during the test are  
18 shown in **Figure 3-11**.

19 The APT was accomplished by pumping PW-3 at a constant rate of 1,100 gpm for a period of five days.  
20 The water level changes in the pumping well and three observation wells (designated as PW-1, PW-2  
21 and PW-4) were measured using vented pressure transducers. The production zone consists primarily  
22 of microfossiliferous peloidal limestone of the Ocala Limestone Formation. The open-hole interval of  
23 the production wells extends from 700 to 1,250 ft bls, however, lithologic descriptions and geophysical  
24 logging information suggested the main flow zone was from 700 to 800 ft bls.

25 The transmissivity, storage, and leakance values of the aquifer were calculated using multiple methods.  
26 Results from the analyses indicated that the average transmissivity of the aquifer was about 22,700  
27 ft<sup>2</sup>/day. The average storage coefficient of the aquifer is  $3.0 \times 10^{-4}$ , and the average leakance of the  
28 aquifer was about  $4.2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ day}^{-1}$ .

29 The common methods used to derive hydraulic coefficients from APT data assume that the aquifer is  
30 isotropic, i.e, the hydraulic conductivity of the aquifer is the same in all directions. In reality most  
31 aquifers are anisotropic. The hydraulic conductivity in the direction of flow ( $K_x$ ) tends to be greater than  
32 that perpendicular to flow ( $K_y$ ). The ratio  $K_x: K_y$  or  $T_x: T_y$  (if the thickness of the aquifer is constant) is  
33 referred to as the anisotropy ratio. In this study, Hantush's method (1966) was used to determine the  
34 anisotropy of the aquifer at the project site on a horizontal plane.



Figure 3-11 -- Well configurations during the Clewiston APT.

1 Using the above-referenced analysis, the results indicated that the principal axis of anisotropy (x-axis) is  
 2 at an angle ( $\theta$ ) of about  $95^\circ$  from the straight line joining the pumping well PW-3 and the observation  
 3 well PW-1, and the minor axis of anisotropy (y-axis) is  $90^\circ$  to this axis (**Figure 3-12**). The ratio of  
 4 anisotropy ( $T_x/T_y$  or  $m$ ) was calculated to be 7.04. The transmissivity value along the x-axis ( $T_x$ ) was  
 5 about  $73,000 \text{ ft}^2/\text{day}$  and the transmissivity value along the y-axis ( $T_y$ ) was about  $10,500 \text{ ft}^2/\text{day}$ . This  
 6 evaluation was a helpful demonstration to the groundwater modeling team, when evaluating various  
 7 potential orientations and magnitudes of anisotropy to insert into the model during calibration.

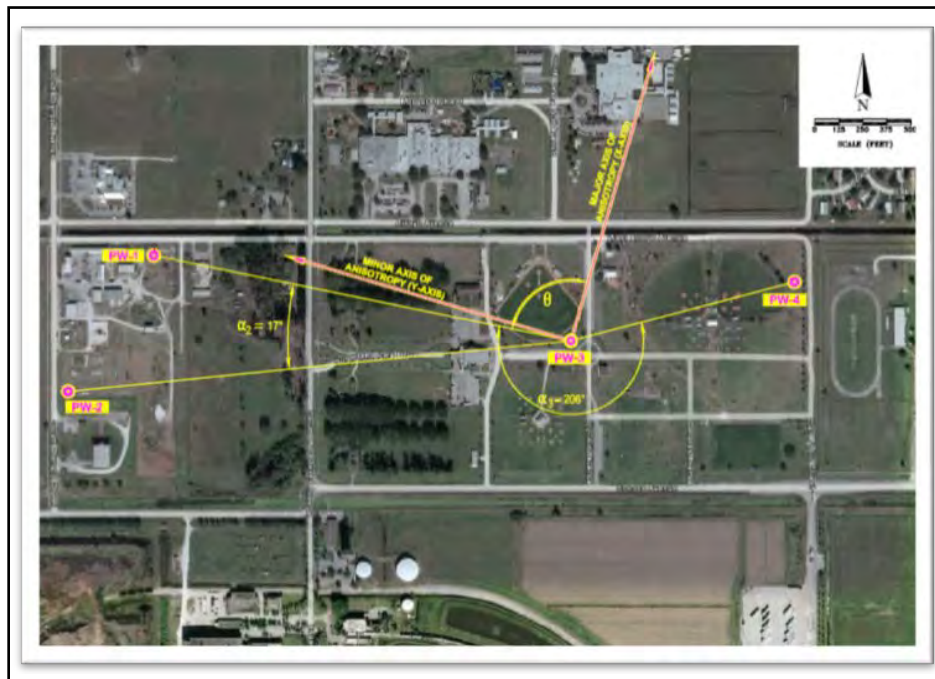


Figure 3-12 -- Primary axes of anisotropy within the Clewiston wellfield.

## 1 3.7 Geophysical Characterization of the FAS

### 2 3.7.1 Analysis of Existing Seismic Reflection Data

3 Numerous seismic reflection geophysical surveys were performed in southern Florida by oil companies  
4 since 1960, with most of the surveys conducted from the 1970s through the 1990s. These surveys  
5 targeted oil producing zones at depths of approximately 10,000 to 14,000 feet bls. Within the past  
6 decade, advances in the field of geophysical data processing have made it possible to reprocess and  
7 reanalyze some of this older, existing seismic data to provide geologic and potentially hydrogeologic  
8 information for the lower portion of the Hawthorn Group and FAS occurring at depths of approximately  
9 500 to 2,500 bls. Given the many seismic lines that traverse areas for which no other data were  
10 available, it was prudent to investigate the possibility of reprocessing available seismic reflection data in  
11 the hopes that the seismic data could “fill in” data gaps, where information from wells was otherwise  
12 not available.

13 A seismic data coverage map was obtained from Seismic Exchange, Inc. (SEI) for a large area of Florida,  
14 extending from north of Lake Okeechobee to the southern tip of Florida. **Figure 3-13** presents a map  
15 area showing some of the seismic lines that were available for purchase or “lease”, if the data had the  
16 potential to be re-processed for imaging the FAS. A senior geophysicist assessed general data  
17 parameters of several of the existing seismic lines for review, and an area just south of Lake Okeechobee  
18 was selected for further evaluation. Thirteen lines were selected for further assessment, based on  
19 general proximity to Lake Okeechobee and line orientation (URS, 2003). Data acquisition parameters for  
20 each line were obtained from SEI for comparison and assessment. Each line was evaluated for the  
21 geophone interval, shot interval, fold, and cost to lease. From this review, five lines were chosen for  
22 subsequent visual review of sample sections from SEI.

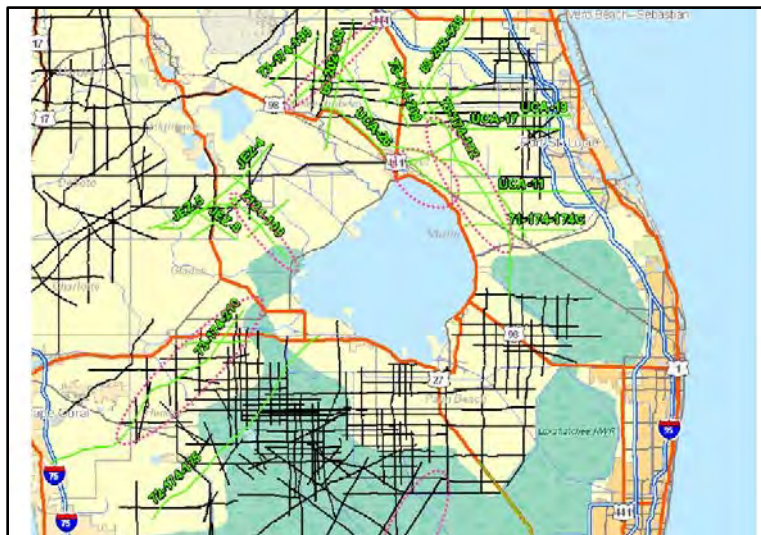


Figure 3-13 -- Available seismic lines in an area of south Florida.

23 After securing the data from their Houston office, SEI met with URS for data review. The review  
24 consisted of examination of one hard copy of each line. This hard copy review was limited to what SEI

1 provided to protect confidentiality of data that might subsequently be purchased or leased for oil  
2 exploration. The project team could not obtain multiple copies with various display parameters unless  
3 the data were leased. As a result, some expertise was required to estimate the value that additional  
4 reprocessing would likely produce for a given data set. Based on review of the hard copy seismic  
5 sections, two seismic lines were recommended for subsequent lease and reprocessing. One of the lines  
6 utilized dynamite as the seismic source with an east-west orientation, and the other line used a vibroseis  
7 source also with an east-west orientation. Both lines had favorable acquisition parameters that could be  
8 processed to enhance shallow data resolution (URS, 2003). For future consideration, the lines chosen for  
9 interpretation represent some of the better seismic data that were available in the area.

10 The seismic data consisted of portions of two 2-D seismic lines acquired in the 1980s by SEI. The original  
11 acquisition parameters targeted potential oil-producing zones from 10,000 to 14,000 feet bls. One line  
12 was acquired using a dynamite source and recorded p-wave seismic data. The other line was acquired  
13 with vibroseis, using a truck-mounted controlled source vibrator, and also recorded p-wave seismic  
14 data. The reprocessing sequence included a variety of programs that are normally applied to common  
15 midpoint (CMP) seismic data. After initial analysis the exact sequence steps were designed. During  
16 various steps the processing analyst reviewed the results to ensure optimum data quality. Processing  
17 programs have many functions including sorting data traces into CMP format, applying static and  
18 velocity functions, editing and removing unwanted noise, enhancing frequency content, scaling data for  
19 presentation, plotting data, and a variety of other data analysis techniques.

20 The reprocessed seismic lines were delivered to the project team that then gave consideration to overall  
21 value of the data, and its potential usefulness in filling in data gaps in the FAS interval of south Florida.  
22 Although the reprocessed data gave indications of structural attributes, definition of actual  
23 hydrogeologic features within the FAS was beyond the resolution of the seismic profiles. This exercise  
24 was a successful demonstration of the potential to acquire and reprocess existing, older seismic data.  
25 However, the cost of the data, confidentiality issues, and subsequent reprocessing fees outweighed the  
26 usefulness of the data for purposes of regional ASR evaluation. In the future, as seismic reprocessing  
27 techniques evolve, this type of evaluation might warrant reconsideration.

### 28 3.7.2 Seismic Survey of Lake Okeechobee

29 The preliminary hydrogeologic framework revealed that the largest single data gap in evaluating the  
30 hydrogeology of the FAS was beneath Lake Okeechobee. Therefore, a marine seismic reflection survey  
31 was conducted to identify structural trends that could pose obstacles to regional-scale CERP ASR  
32 implementation. Seismic reflection uses the principles of seismology to estimate the properties of the  
33 Earth's subsurface from reflected seismic waves. **Figure 3-15** presents the configuration of the seismic  
34 surveys that were conducted in the Lake. Interpretations of these seismic lines were compiled for Lake  
35 Okeechobee and tributaries (CH2M Hill, 2006) and the Townsend Canal (Walker Marine Geophysical Co,  
36 LLC, 2004).

1 Marine surveys are conducted using vessels capable of towing seismic cables known as streamers.  
 2 Modern surveys use multiple streamers deployed in parallel to record data suitable for the  
 3 interpretation of the structures beneath the seabed. A single vessel may tow up to 10 or more  
 4 streamers, each approximately 6 kilometers in length, spaced 50 to 150 meters apart. Hydrophones are  
 5 deployed at regular intervals within each streamer. These hydrophones are used to record sound  
 6 signals that are reflected back from structures within the rock. To calculate where subsurface features  
 7 are located, navigators compute the position of both the sound source and each hydrophone group that  
 8 records the signal. Accurate positioning is achieved by using a combination of acoustic networks,  
 9 compasses and Global Positioning System (GPS) receivers.

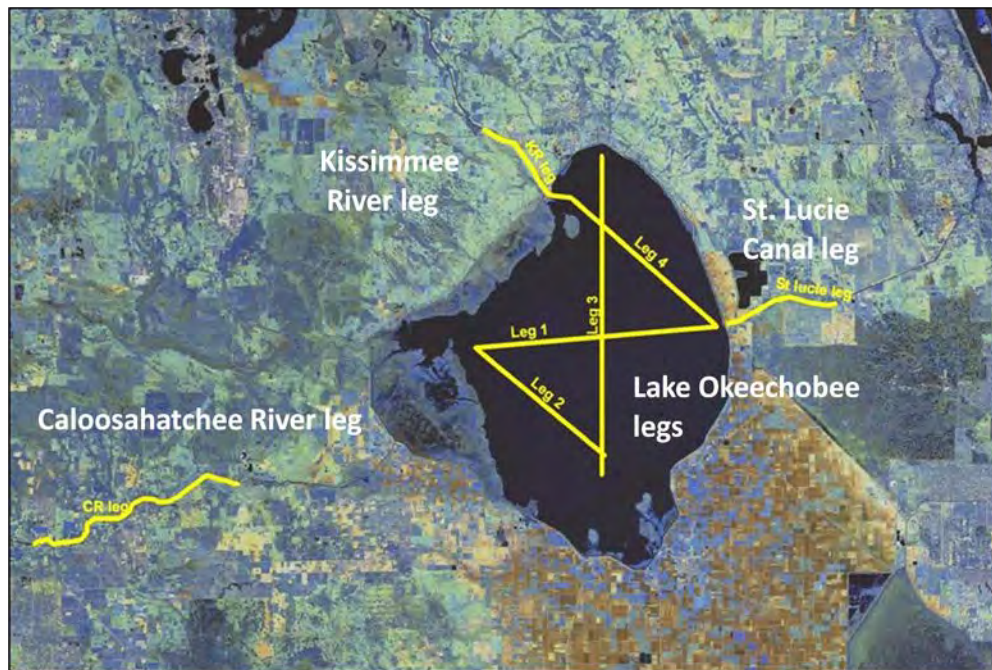


Figure 3-14 -- Location of seismic surveys conducted in Lake Okeechobee.

Figure redrawn from USACE (2006).

10 **Figure 3-16** shows the seismic reflection data from Leg 4 of the Lake Okeechobee seismic reflection  
 11 survey. After reviewing the various seismic lines, the most significant geological **observation made was**  
 12 that the formations beneath Lake Okeechobee are generally flat lying, with an apparent dip (fault) and  
 13 thickening of beds in a southward direction. This was good news to the extent that the FAS is  
 14 continuous beneath the lake, and no obvious structural hazards were indicated by the seismic lines.

15 The second most significant geologic feature is the erosional unconformity in the Hawthorn Group seen  
 16 in the western portion of Lake Okeechobee. This feature appears to show erosion of up to 400 feet  
 17 through flat lying beds with re-deposition of mostly non-flat lying material. Some apparent “paleo”  
 18 channels are visible in the re-deposited material.

19 A third feature interpreted by the lines is the presence of significant lateral disruptions in the profiles  
 20 that are caused by softer material near the surface. Fracture zones and/or faulting may also have



- 1 caused these anomalies. Other velocity anomalies probably exist in the deeper beds; however, they are
- 2 difficult to discern because of the generally discontinuous nature of the reflections in this zone.

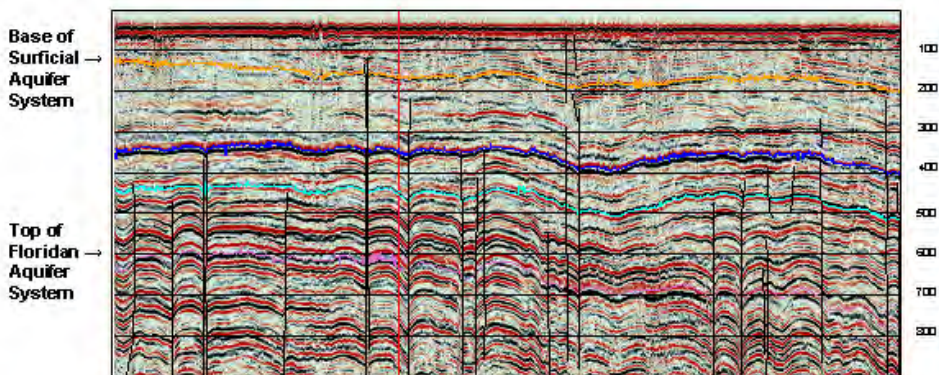


Figure 3-15 -- The Leg 4 seismic line from Lake Okeechobee seismic survey (see Figure 3-15). Figure redrawn from USACE (2006).

### 3 3.7.3 Cross-Well Tomography at Two ASR Pilot Sites

- 4 Understanding the continuity of local flow zones in an aquifer is needed to simulate the flow and
- 5 transport in a groundwater model. Tomography is a tool that can be used to assess that continuity.
- 6 Seismic tomography is similar to a computed tomography (CT) scan, but instead of using X-rays to create
- 7 an image, seismic waves are used to digitally map a profile of the Earth. In cross-well tomography, a
- 8 tomograph is used to measure an acoustic signal transmitted from a one well to a receiver located in a
- 9 neighboring well to create a map of the properties of the geologic formations between the wells, as
- 10 shown in **Figure 3-17**. These data can used to map the distribution of porosity and permeability between
- 11 the two wells.

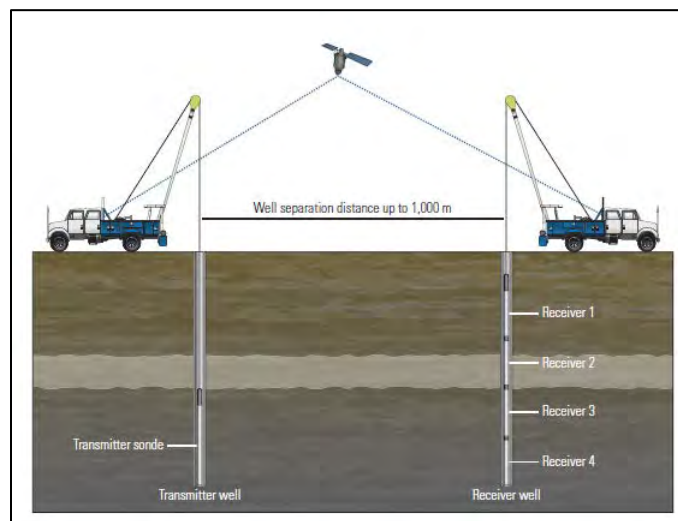


Figure 3-16 -- Diagram showing data acquisition for the cross-well tomography investigation.

1 At the Port Mayaca ASR pilot site, tomography was conducted between the ASR well and the storage  
 2 zone monitor well MF-37, located 1,200-ft north-northeast of the proposed ASR well EXPM-1  
 3 (Southwest Research Institute, 2007). The tomograph profile was integrated with geophysical log data to  
 4 relate the tomography data with hydrogeologic parameters. The relationships between the tomograph  
 5 and geophysical log data were used to generate high-resolution profiles showing the distribution of  
 6 porosity and permeability between the wells. **Figure 3-18** shows the aquifer permeability at Port  
 7 Mayaca using cross-well tomography. Warmer colors (toward red) indicate greater permeability,  
 8 whereas cooler colors (toward blue) represent lesser permeability. These data could be used for local-  
 9 scale groundwater modeling at the Port Mayaca ASR system, and will be re-evaluated when the results  
 10 of cycle testing are available from this pilot project. The data will also be useful when additional wells  
 11 are installed at the site, to guide the depth to which additional storage and monitoring intervals should  
 12 be constructed.

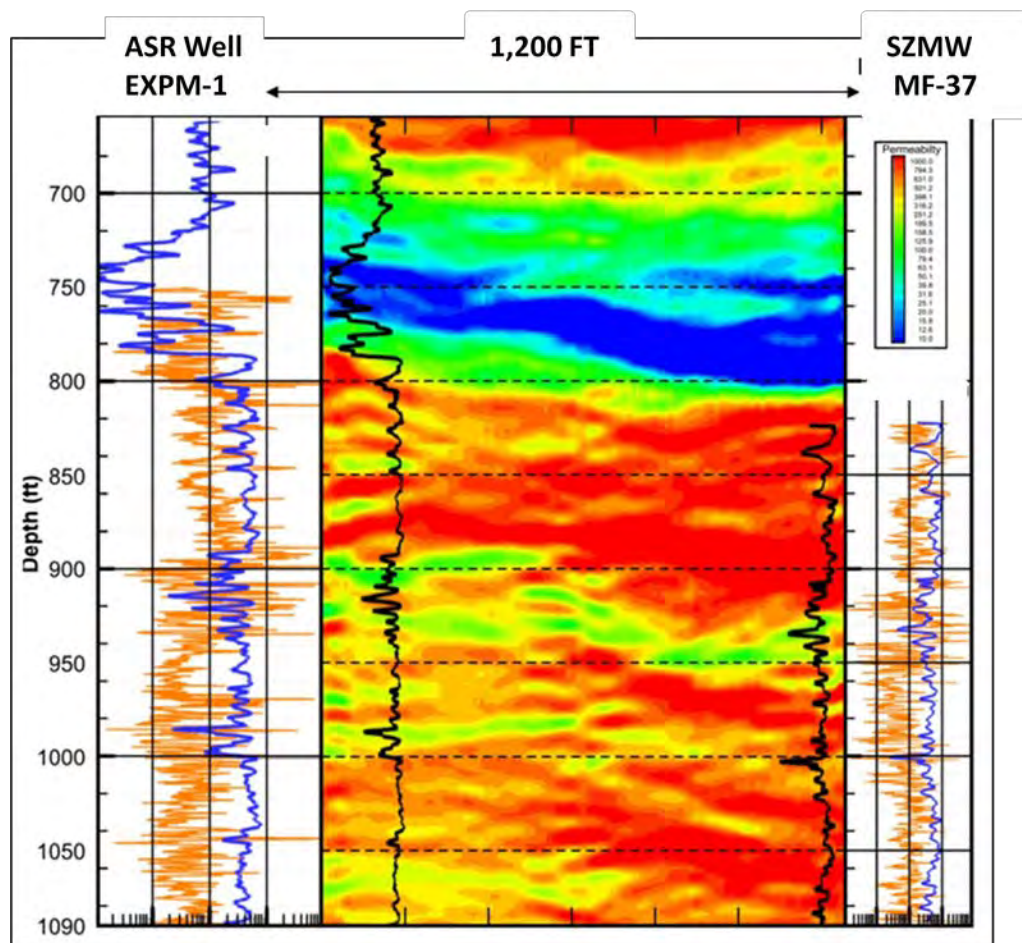


Figure 3-17 -- Results of tomography survey at the Port Mayaca ASR pilot site.

13 Cross-well seismic measurements were conducted at the Hillsboro ASR pilot site between the ASR well  
 14 (PBF-13) and the 330-ft SZMW (PBF-10R) using a TomoSeis advanced piezo-ceramic X-series source and  
 15 a 10-level hydrophone system (Parra et al., 2006). The survey depth interval was from 550-ft to about

1 1225-ft bls and covered a series of flat-lying limestones with some interbedded sandstones. The sweep  
 2 length was 1.2 seconds at a sampling rate of 125 microseconds from 200 to 2000 hertz (Hz). Source and  
 3 receiver depth sampling spacing was 2.5 ft; resulting in about 38,300 recorded traces. Actual reflection  
 4 coverage below the total depth for each well was limited by well spacing, as well as the deepest source  
 5 and receiver locations in each well. The vertical resolution of the reflection data for this profile was  
 6 about 2 ft. The reflection image was inverted for impedance using the band-limited method (a feature  
 7 of the Hampson-Russell STRATA software (CGG, Houston TX). **Figure 3-19** shows the tomographic image  
 8 between the two wells at depths from 750-ft to 1550-ft bls. The Vp and density logs were overlain on  
 9 the impedance image, and the image shows good correlation with the well logs. In particular, the  
 10 impedance clearly shows the main boundaries of the upper and lower productive horizons that  
 11 correspond to the high impedance zones identified in red.

12 Cross-plots of impedance with permeability and porosity were used to derive empirical relationships (or  
 13 impedance cross plot fit equations) for permeability ( $k$ ) and porosity ( $\phi$ ) for depths of 950 to 1250 ft.  
 14 These relationships were used to convert the impedance to produce the overlaying permeability and  
 15 porosity images (**Figure 3-19**). These images show continuous and discontinuous flow units. The lateral  
 16 continuous flow unit observed in yellow, between 1020 to 1040 ft bls, has an average permeability of  
 17 2000 millidarcies (md), and an average porosity of 30 percent (observed in blue in the porosity image at  
 18 a depth of about 1020 ft). This flow zone was delineated as a continuous reflector in the reflection  
 19 image.

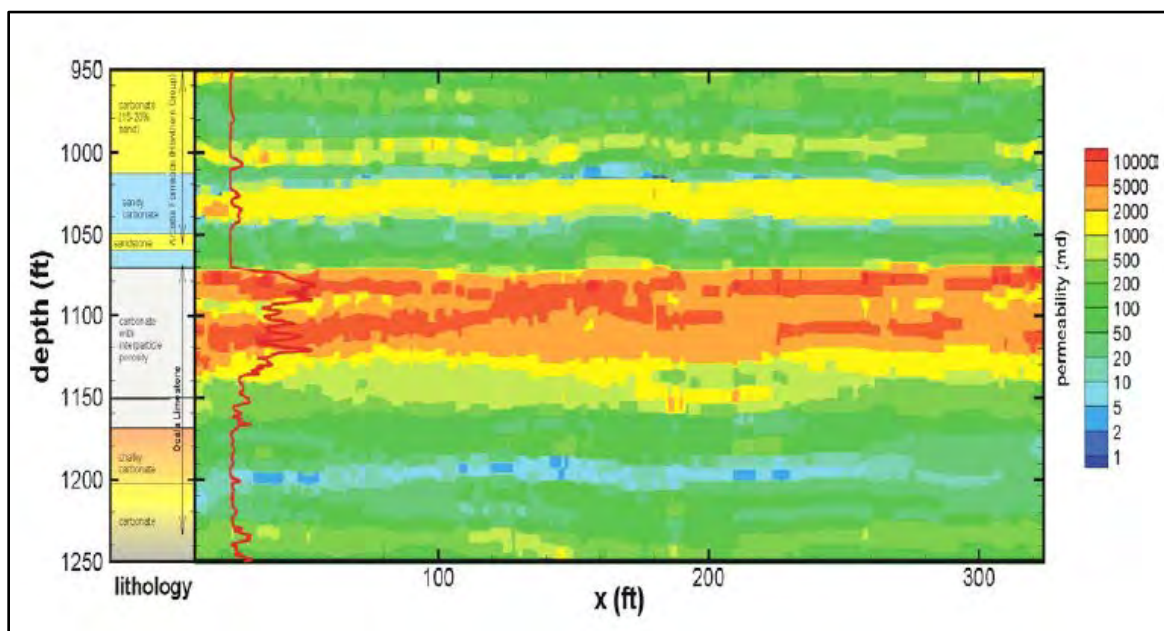


Figure 3-18 -- Tomographic image from cross-well seismic data at the Hillsboro ASR system.

Figure redrawn from Parra et al. (2006).

## 1 4 Geotechnical Investigations

### 2 4.1 Introduction

3 An important component of the ASR Regional Study was to determine the magnitude and extent of  
4 pressure-induced changes that could potentially result from the recharge of up to 1.67 billion gallons of  
5 water per day into the FAS and the overlying Hawthorn Group confining unit. Specifically, this analysis  
6 was intended to determine the potential for ASR to induce fractures, subsidence, or over-pressuring  
7 within these formations.

8 The magnitude of the increase or decrease in piezometric pressure within the UFA during recharge and  
9 recovery cycles is highly dependent upon numerous factors such as aquifer transmissivity, well spacing,  
10 and aquifer porosity. During ASR recharge, increases in hydraulic head of 100-ft to 200-ft (equivalent to  
11 40 to 100 pounds per square inch (psi) near the pumping wells are possible based upon both analytical  
12 and numerical models (Brown et al., 2005). Conversely, during ASR recovery, decreases in static head of  
13 similar magnitudes are possible. Pressure-induced changes might present planning and engineering  
14 constraints that limit ASR development.

15  
16 Piezometric heads within the FAS range from approximately 60-ft relative to the National Geodetic  
17 Vertical Datum 1929 (NGVD29) north of Lake Okeechobee to 50-ft NGVD29 in central Palm Beach  
18 County (Sepúlveda, 2002; USACE and SFWMD, 2004). Increased heads substantially higher than those in  
19 the current regional flow system could also lead to changes in groundwater flow direction or velocity.  
20 For ASR design purposes, the pressure-induced changes may also constrain wellhead design or pump  
21 selection.

22  
23 Hydraulic fracturing originally was developed during the 1930s and 1940s by the oil industry as a means  
24 to enhance production of oil wells. During these early years of development, hydraulically induced  
25 fracturing was thought to occur when the hydraulic pressure at any specific point in the well exceeded  
26 the pressure due to the weight of the overburden at that point. Since these early developments, it has  
27 been shown through research and field application efforts that hydraulically induced fracturing can be  
28 initiated at pressures ranging from much lower to somewhat higher than the local overburden pressure  
29 and that it is related to rock strength parameters and alignment and magnitude of in-situ stresses. As  
30 reported by Driscoll (1986), hydraulic pressures that caused fracturing ranged from a low of 0.5 psi/ft of  
31 depth in poorly consolidated coastal plain sediments to 1.2 psi/ft of depth for crystalline rock. Bower  
32 (1978) indicated that hydraulically induced fracturing could be initiated at a pressure as low as 50  
33 percent of the overburden pressure, but more typically the pressure should not exceed 67 percent of  
34 the overburden pressure in order to reduce fracturing potential. Recent oil industry guidelines  
35 discussed by Ehlig-Economides and Economides (2010) indicated that almost all reservoirs will  
36 hydraulically fracture within a range from 0.71 to 0.82 psi/ft of depth.

37 As a rough guide, drilling professionals estimate the injection pressure required to induce fracturing in a  
38 borehole as a value of 1 psi/ft of depth plus an additional 1,500 psi (Sterrett, 2007). Overall, these

1 general hydraulically induced fracturing criteria envelope a wide range of pressures that could initiate  
2 the onset of fracturing for wide ranges of in-situ states of stress and rock matrix types. Therefore, it is  
3 necessary to calculate site-specific hydraulic pressures that may initiate the onset of hydraulically  
4 induced fracturing based on FAS rock matrix mechanical properties and in-situ stress conditions. The  
5 following subsections describe the development of a geotechnical evaluation of hydraulic fracturing  
6 potential in the context of regional ASR implementation.

## 7 4.2 Desktop Evaluation of Hydraulically Induced Fracturing

8 ASR system operation can increase or decrease aquifer pressure, with the potential to induce rock  
9 fracturing during recharge and subsidence during recovery. An initial desktop evaluation was completed  
10 to estimate the potential for hydraulically induced fracturing of the FAS rock matrix and subsidence due  
11 to consolidation of the Hawthorn Group (Brown et al., 2005). Results of that analysis are summarized in  
12 the following subsections.

### 13 4.2.1 Potential for Rock Fracturing

14 ASR cycle testing will result in changing head in the FAS. A hydrologic model was developed to simulate  
15 head changes and resultant hydraulic pressures that could occur during ASR system operation. Results  
16 of 337 aquifer performance tests (APTs) performed in the UFA were compiled to characterize the  
17 variability of aquifer hydraulic properties throughout the south Florida region. The mean transmissivity  
18 was 13,000 ft<sup>2</sup>/day for tests in the UFA, which is considerably lower compared to the UFA of central and  
19 northern Florida. There, transmissivities range between 50,000 and 250,000 ft<sup>2</sup>/day (Miller, 1997). The  
20 mean storage coefficient and the mean leakance values are 0.0005 (n=168) and 0.00005 (n=104),  
21 respectively. The storage coefficient ranged between approximately 0.005 and 0.00005. The leakance  
22 value ranged between approximately 0.001 and 0.00001 per day.

23 After a reasonable range of hydrogeologic parameters was determined for the study area, modeling was  
24 conducted using both analytical solutions and the numerical MODFLOW model (McDonald and  
25 Harbaugh, 1988). The initial analytical solution evaluations, developed by Hantush and Jacob (1954) and  
26 Walton (1962), considered a leaky confined aquifer under steady-state conditions. The evaluation  
27 included one ASR well recharging or recovering from the UFA at 5 MGD. This evaluation showed  
28 changes in head of up to 120-ft for the average transmissivity of 13,000 ft<sup>2</sup>/day, and only a 25-ft change  
29 for a high transmissivity condition of 50,000 ft<sup>2</sup>/day. A MODFLOW model simulated effects on head at  
30 an ASR system consisting of five ASR wells. Two wellfield designs were simulated where each consisted  
31 of a centrally placed well surrounded by four wells spaced at approximately 1,000-ft and then again at  
32 2,000-ft. Each of the five wells was operated at a recharge or recovery pumping rate of 5 MGD, for a  
33 total well field production rate of 25 MGD. Using the average transmissivity of 13,000 ft<sup>2</sup>/day, and  
34 running the model to steady-state conditions, the maximum head increase at the centrally located well  
35 exceeded 130-ft. A maximum head increase of 90-ft to 100-ft was shown using the 2,000-ft well field  
36 spacing scenario. These simulations showed that well spacing is an important factor to be considered in  
37 ASR design.

## 1 4.2.2 Fracturing Due to Shear Stress

2 Using the simulated UFA hydraulic heads determined by the analytical model and the numerical  
3 MODFLOW model, the potential shear stresses induced by ASR recharge could be estimated. The critical  
4 shear stresses that occur in the limestone matrix were estimated using a Mohr stress envelope analysis.  
5 The expected normal total stress on the critical failure surface was calculated using classical solids  
6 mechanics equations.

7 The calculated shear stresses indicated that failure of the limestone matrix is unlikely if actual ASR  
8 system operations are similar to those simulated in this study (i.e., aquifer pressures are kept to levels  
9 determined during modeling). Generally the computations revealed that the expected shear stresses  
10 will be six to eight times less than the allowable failure stress level. Even if lower limestone cohesion  
11 values are chosen (e.g., results from new compressive testing), failure stresses will not be exceeded  
12 through normal ASR system operations. Obviously, well spacing is an important consideration to  
13 minimize pressure changes in the UFA and consequently, it is an important aspect for evaluating  
14 hydraulic fracturing issues. Therefore, closer well spacings may drive UFA pressures higher during ASR  
15 operation. These higher pressures (or lower pressures during recovery) can increase the actual shear  
16 stresses so that the stress-state could approach the allowable rock shear stress of a limestone. If the  
17 limestone matrix fails due to high shear stresses, preferential flow pathways may form in the aquifer  
18 increasing hydrodynamic dispersion, diffusion, and potential buoyancy stratification. These changes  
19 would likely result in poor ASR system performance. Again, various design constraints should be  
20 optimized to develop the most efficient ASR well cluster system while minimizing the possibility of  
21 limestone matrix failure due to shear.

## 22 4.2.3 Hydraulic Fracturing

23 Hydraulic fracturing was the second possible failure mechanism to be investigated. The petroleum  
24 industry routinely uses hydraulic fracturing to enhance the permeability of a rock formation around an  
25 oil recovery well. Consequently, much research of this topic (related to the oil industry) is already  
26 available in the literature. Hubbert and Willis (1957) describe critical recharge stresses necessary to  
27 create new matrix fractures and extend existing fractures. They also noted that new fractures would  
28 propagate perpendicular to the least principal stress. Basically, the pressure increase required to hold  
29 open and extend an existing fracture should be equal to or greater to the least principal stress. In areas  
30 of normal faulting, the least principal stress is normally horizontal while in areas of high tectonic activity,  
31 the least principal stress may be oriented on the vertical (Hubbert and Willis, 1957). Therefore, in  
32 tectonically quiescent areas of the United States (such as Florida), the fractures caused by excess pore-  
33 water pressure would likely be in the near-vertical orientation.

34 Hubbert and Willis (1957) developed a relationship for the water pressure required to initiate new  
35 fractures or enlarge existing ones. This relationship was utilized to evaluate potential for hydraulic  
36 fracturing at the various ASR system sites. The analysis concluded that if heads are limited to 250-ft or  
37 less in the study area, hydraulic fracture initiation is unlikely. The value of 250-ft was chosen as an

1 upper limit on hydraulic heads that could be reasonably developed in the UFA during the recharge phase  
2 of an ASR cycle test.

#### 3 4.2.4 Fracturing Due to Aquifer Dilatancy

4 The third desktop evaluation of potential rock fracturing mechanism in the UFA was an analysis of  
5 dilatancy potential. All materials dilate (or change in volume) in response to shearing strains (Domenico  
6 and Schwartz, 1998). As the rock matrix dilates due to the increased fluid pressures, microscopic  
7 fractures may form. Pore volume increases can lead to the formation of microfractures that may  
8 increase the local-scale hydraulic conductivity of the UFA. The onset of dilatancy can occur at one-third  
9 of the allowable shear stress for a rock matrix. Handin et al. (1963) noted that in sedimentary rocks  
10 (including limestone), the ratio of the fluid pressure to the confining pressure should not exceed 0.8.

11 The analysis of dilatancy indicated that the ratio value would be exceeded north of Lake Okeechobee  
12 when the total UFA head is approximately 183-ft (NGVD29). In the central Lake Okeechobee region, the  
13 ratio may be exceeded when the total UFA head is approximately 225-ft NGVD29. In the south Lake  
14 Okeechobee region, the ratio may be exceeded when the total UFA head is approximately 275-ft. This  
15 analysis does appear to provide a useful guide to constrain the anticipated fluid pressures that could  
16 occur during ASR system operation.

17 The analysis completed during this initial evaluation clearly demonstrated that pressure-induced  
18 hydraulic fracturing of limestones in the UFA, or total limestone matrix failure, is highly unlikely if  
19 aquifer pressures are constrained to the maximum defined in the Underground Injection Control permit  
20 (typically 66 percent of the casing pressure test, or 66 psi for a 100 psi test).

#### 21 4.2.5 Subsidence Evaluation

22 Groundwater extraction is one of the most common causes for land subsidence. The greatest  
23 magnitude of subsidence occurs where significant water-level declines are coupled with confining units  
24 that are thick and composed of compressible materials. In addition to the compressibility properties of  
25 the sediment there are two factors that control the extent of land subsidence: the magnitude of water-  
26 level or hydraulic head decline, and the duration of that decline. The first factor controls the driving  
27 force of subsidence, while the second controls the probability of subsidence. Land subsidence takes  
28 place only as fast as the pore water can be squeezed out of the sediment layer. It usually takes decades  
29 for extensive subsidence to take place, as demonstrated through documented cases of subsidence  
30 worldwide. Based on the evaluation in this study, because it is difficult for pore water to drain from a  
31 low permeability clay unit (Hawthorn Group sediments) the time required for the estimated subsidence  
32 to be complete, could be decades. This is the case only if ASR wells are pumped continuously over that  
33 period. No ASR well is anticipated to be pumped constantly as envisioned in CERP. The ASR wells will be  
34 operated in an alternating manner of recharge, storage, and recovery. Therefore, it is likely that land  
35 subsidence induced by ASR operation will be insignificant, and should not pose any ASR development  
36 constraints.

#### 1 4.2.6 Desktop Study Conclusions

2 The desk-top study results indicate that only a few of the possible pressure-induced changes examined  
3 have the potential to constrain ASR development in south Florida. First, practical limitations involving  
4 basic pump availability, pipe pressure limitations, and electricity demand will constrain the total  
5 allowable head (or pressure) at each ASR wellhead. Second, pressure-induced change limitations  
6 outlined here will slightly constrain ASR operations.

7 For ASR wells located north of Lake Okeechobee, it is recommended that the average hydraulic head of  
8 well clusters be limited to a maximum of 183-ft NGVD29 (80 psi) or less. This threshold exceeds the  
9 typical ASR wellhead pressures observed during the recharge phase of cycle testing at KRASR. Maximum  
10 ASR wellhead pressures observed during recharge at KRASR were approximately 60 psi during cycle test  
11 1, and decreased to approximately 25 psi during cycle test 4 (USACE and SFWMD, 2013). The maximum  
12 ASR wellhead pressure allowed by the Underground Injection Control (UIC) permit is 66 psi at this  
13 location.

14 For ASR wells located east or south of Lake Okeechobee, it is recommended that the average hydraulic  
15 head of well clusters be limited to a maximum of 225-ft NGVD29 (97.5 psi) or less. Analysis of allowable  
16 thresholds south of Lake Okeechobee suggest permissible hydraulic head up to 275-ft NGVD29.  
17 However, under this scenario, pressures greater than 100 psi would be generated, which would require  
18 specialized well casing and piping materials to be installed at significantly higher cost. Maximum ASR  
19 wellhead pressures observed during the recharge phases at HASR, located southeast of Lake  
20 Okeechobee generally were less than 66 psi (USACE and SFWMD, 2013), so specialized well casing  
21 materials are not required for ASR operation.

22 Brown (2007) completed complementary work to further refine estimates of potential subsidence due  
23 to ASR system operations. Specifically, a more sophisticated analysis was completed using a stochastic  
24 approach where key variables were assigned to a model using standard probabilistic distributions to  
25 determine the magnitude and duration of subsidence. The model was based upon an ASR system that  
26 exhibits typical geologic and hydrogeologic conditions. The model was run for 20,000 iterations using a  
27 classic Monte Carlo simulation and resulting probability density functions were plotted and analyzed.  
28 Considering all factors, it was predicted that after 50 years of ASR operation the amount of subsidence  
29 would not be significant and likely less than 4-in. Subsidence occurred only in close proximity of the ASR  
30 well field.

#### 31 4.3 Geotechnical Evaluation of Fracturing Based on Rock Core Analysis

32 Geibel and Brown (2012; **Appendix B**) expanded the original work of Brown et al. (2005) to determine  
33 the critical threshold of water pressure that marks the onset of hydraulically induced fracturing of the  
34 UFA rock matrix and the overlying Hawthorn Group sediments at proposed CERP ASR systems. Brown et  
35 al. (2005) suggested that additional mechanical rock property data be collected and analyzed to support  
36 a refined evaluation of hydraulically induced fracturing of the FAS rock matrix. A geotechnical



1 evaluation was conducted, to include collection and analysis of additional geotechnical data from core  
2 samples, for seven proposed ASR system locations: Caloosahatchee River, Moorehaven, Kissimmee  
3 River, Port Mayaca, Hillsboro, Seminole-Brighton, and Paradise Run (**Figure 2-1**).

#### 4 4.3.1 Background

5 To understand the potential for and orientation of hydraulically induced fracturing, the in-situ state of  
6 the regional stress field is considered. In a geologic unit a stress field exists composed of three principal  
7 stress components, the maximum ( $\sigma_1$ ), intermediate ( $\sigma_2$ ), and minimum ( $\sigma_3$ ). Under nearly flat ground  
8 that is not subjected to significant tectonic forces, such as that exhibited at the proposed ASR locations,  
9  $\sigma_1$  will be oriented in the vertical direction while  $\sigma_2$  and  $\sigma_3$  will be oriented in the horizontal direction  
10 and be compressive in nature (Goodman, 1980). Based on the directional distribution of the in-situ  
11 regional stress field  $\sigma_2$  is near or equal in magnitude to  $\sigma_3$  allowing for two-dimensional stress analysis  
12 (Rahn, 1986). In addition to the principal stresses, shear and normal stresses also are present and acting  
13 upon the rock matrix as driving or resisting forces, respectively, for fracture initiation.

14 Other factors that may influence UFA rock matrix stability include: (1) resultant stress intensity on the  
15 well borehole wall due to decreasing pressure in the well, (2) magnitude redistribution of pre-drilling in-  
16 situ principal stress field, (3) chemical dissolution of FAS rock matrix, and (4) fatigue failure of the well  
17 borehole wall due to cyclic ASR operations. Effects, whether positive or negative, from these factors on  
18 the initiation of hydraulically induced fracturing will be very minimal and confined to rock matrix at and  
19 very near the well borehole wall. Although present, they are minor components of potential induced  
20 fracturing and are of limited concern.

21 Hydraulically induced fracturing of the overlying Hawthorn Group sediments, if realized, would be the  
22 result of vertical upward propagation of fractures initiated within the FAS. A fracture propagation arrest  
23 model based on geologic formation elasticity, and in-situ stress factors that influence the arrest of  
24 propagating hydraulic fractures was applied to address fracturing concerns of the Hawthorn Group  
25 sediments.

#### 26 4.3.2 Methodology

27 Three primary evaluation methods were used to determine critical threshold water pressures at which  
28 the potential onset of hydraulically induced fracturing will occur at a specific point in the UFA. Two  
29 additional evaluation methods were utilized to determine hydraulically induced fracturing potential to  
30 check the outcomes of the three primary methods. A typical ASR system will recharge or recover water  
31 directly into or out of the UFA, thereby imparting hydraulically induced fracture driving stresses to the  
32 aquifer. Stress due to the weight of overburden is the primary stress that resists hydraulically induced  
33 fracturing. Within the UFA, stress from overburden is least at the top of the aquifer. This will render  
34 the top of the UFA most vulnerable to the onset of hydraulically induced fracturing making it the point  
35 of interest for the evaluation methods. For the three primary methods, a factor of safety (FS) of ten  
36 percent was applied to the results to account for assumptions applied to the evaluations and to define

1 “safe” ASR system design and operational water pressure thresholds above which caution should be  
2 exercised.

### 3 4.3.2.1 Shear Method

4 The shear method involves an analysis of shear stresses that develop as a result of the principal stresses  
5 acting at the evaluation point of interest. Ultimately, the shear strength of the UFA rock matrix and the  
6 shear stress acting on a critical failure plane are determined and compared. If the imposed shear stress  
7 is greater than the shear strength of the UFA rock matrix, the potential exists for hydraulically induced  
8 fracturing along some critical failure plane within the rock matrix. Fracturing due to shear may be  
9 induced at the well borehole wall or at any point within the FAS where hydraulic pressure conditions  
10 favor failure.

### 11 4.3.2.2 Tensile Method

12 Hydraulic fracturing at a particular point on a well borehole wall will be induced when the pressure of  
13 the fluid in the well exceeds the minimum principle stress ( $\sigma_3$ ) by an amount equal to the tensile  
14 strength of the rock. After a fracture is induced into the borehole wall, a small localized heterogeneous  
15 stress field is formed at its tip and controls its propagation. The fracture geometry and loading  
16 configuration, termed the stress intensity factor, control the magnitude of the stress field.  
17 Microfractures will develop within the stress field when its magnitude is sufficient, and the density of  
18 the microfractures increases as the magnitude of the stress field increases. The fracture toughness of  
19 the rock matrix is a resisting force against fracture propagation. Fracture toughness is related to rock  
20 matrix properties such as strength, composition, and temperature, and during laboratory rock specimen  
21 testing, the applied rate of loading and magnitude of the confining pressure. At a critical stress intensity  
22 level, where the stress intensity factor is equal to or greater than the fracture toughness, the hydraulic  
23 fracture will propagate as the individual microfractures coalesce to form a macrofracture within the  
24 fracture tip stress field (Pollard and Aydin, 1988). An induced hydraulic fracture plane will be generated  
25 and propagate parallel to the principal stress axes of  $\sigma_1$  and  $\sigma_2$  and will therefore be perpendicular to the  
26  $\sigma_3$  stress axis. However, the orientation and propagation of fractures also can be influenced by  
27 anisotropy or planar in-homogeneities in the rock (i.e., bedding, schistosity, cleavage, joints, etc.) and by  
28 nearby stress fields produced by propagating fractures (Smith, 1989; Pollard et al., 1982).

### 29 4.3.2.3 Microfracture Method

30 The microfracture method provides a way to evaluate the hydraulically induced microfracturing  
31 potential of FAS rock matrix due to water-pressure conditions. Handin et al. (1963) suggested that  
32 abnormally high pressure results in dilatancy effects within the rock matrix. Dilatancy is the change in  
33 volume of a material when subject to shearing or other deformation forces. As the rock matrix dilates  
34 due to increasing pressure, the pore volume increases and may materialize in the form of microfractures  
35 (Palciauskas and Domenico, 1980). The resultant force causing the dilatancy effect on the pore space of  
36 the rock matrix is oriented parallel to the principal horizontal stress axes  $\sigma_2$  and  $\sigma_3$  and perpendicular to

1 the vertical stress axis  $\sigma_1$ . Therefore, resulting microfractures are oriented and propagate in a similar  
2 way to hydraulic fracture orientation and propagation described under the tensile method. Upon the  
3 development of microfractures, the excess pressure that initiated the dilatancy effect tends to be  
4 relieved (Keith and Rimstidt, 1985). However, if pressure continues to increase and cannot be  
5 sufficiently relieved by the existing microfracture network or other means, the microfractures will  
6 expand, and/or additional microfractures will develop. As individual microfractures propagate or their  
7 density increases, they can combine and lead to well-developed macrofracture planes (Sherman, 1973;  
8 Jaeger et al., 2007).

#### 9 4.3.2.4 Check Methods

10 Two check methods were implemented to assure predictive values are not grossly over or under  
11 represented using the three primary evaluation methods described above. Goodman (1980) presented  
12 a method based on the Mohr Coulomb linear failure criterion in terms of principal stresses at peak load  
13 condition. The pressure in pores and fissures required to initiate fracture of intact rock can be  
14 determined similar to the shear method. Calculation of pressure is based on an initial state of stresses,  
15 defined by  $\sigma_v$  and  $\sigma_H$  at some evaluation point of interest, and rock matrix strength and internal friction  
16 characteristics. A second check method is presented by Bouwer (1978), in which the initiation of  
17 hydraulically induced fracturing has the potential to occur either at a well borehole wall or within the  
18 FAS, similar to the tensile and microfracture methods, when the fluid pressure at the evaluation point of  
19 interest is equal to 50 to 67 percent of  $\sigma_v$ .

#### 20 4.3.3 Conceptual Model: Fracture Propagation Arrest Model

21 A criterion for successful ASR operation is to minimize the potential to hydraulically induce fracturing of  
22 the Hawthorn Group, which confines the storage zone at most proposed CERP ASR systems. Fracturing  
23 of Hawthorn Group sediments could result in uncontrolled migration of recharge water, and could  
24 reduce the percent recovery during ASR operation. In addition, fracturing of the Hawthorn Group would  
25 result in vertical propagation of fractures initiated within the UFA. Gudmundsson and Brenner (2001)  
26 present a model of hydraulically induced fracture propagation arrest based on a function of three  
27 factors: discontinuities, variations in the modulus of elasticity (E) within or between geological layers,  
28 and stress barriers. Any single or combination of these three factors has the potential to redistribute  
29 the fracture, promoting a hydraulically induced stress field at the tip of a propagating fracture. The  
30 propagating fracture could then potentially be redirected and ultimately become arrested.

31 A discontinuity is a feature that exhibits low or negligible tensile strength, such as a defined contact  
32 between two differing geological materials. A preexisting discontinuity will prevent the stress  
33 perturbation associated with the propagating crack tip from being transmitted across the discontinuity.  
34 Therefore the hydraulic fracture will propagate along the plane of the discontinuity rather than to  
35 penetrate across the discontinuity. A value of E is a measure of the stiffness of the rock, and greater  
36 values of E indicate greater stiffness. Hydraulic fracture propagation has a tendency to be arrested at  
37 the contact of two geological materials exhibiting substantially different values of E (Gudmundsson and

1 Brenner, 2001). A stress barrier is a zone in which the compressive or tension stresses, aligned  
2 perpendicular to the direction of hydraulic fracture propagation, are greater or less than those observed  
3 in adjacent zones (Gudmundsson and Brenner, 2001). A stress barrier will result in the hydraulic  
4 fracture tip stress to redistribute and dissipate in such a manner that it penetrates only a short distance  
5 within the rock mass hosting the stress barrier. This redistribution of hydraulic fracture tip stress limits  
6 the distance of fracture propagation into the rock mass hosting the stress barrier, followed by arrest.

#### 7 4.3.4 Laboratory Testing and Results

8 Mechanical and elastic properties of the UFA rock matrix that are used in fracturing and fracture  
9 propagation arrest modeling include the angle of internal friction ( $\Phi$ ), cohesion (C), and the E.  
10 Components  $\Phi$  and C are determined from Mohr stress envelopes while E is determined from stress-  
11 strain curves. In order to develop the Mohr stress envelopes, unconfined and confined compressive  
12 strength laboratory testing results of FAS rock core specimens were utilized, and if available, tensile  
13 strength laboratory results were also incorporated into the evaluation. Additionally, during laboratory  
14 testing, axial strain readings were recorded, which were then coupled with associated stress readings to  
15 develop stress-strain curves, allowing values of E to be determined for the rock specimens.

16 All rock specimens were collected using air rotary core-drilling techniques. Rock specimens for  
17 geotechnical analysis were obtained by sub-sampling cores in the laboratory, so that each sub-sample  
18 had a typical diameter of 2.2-in. All rock specimens were from the Ocala Limestone and the Suwannee  
19 Limestone, and their lithologies consisted of intact, fine-grained, slightly muddy limestone with very few  
20 shells and vugs. Rock specimen preparation was completed to meet shape, length-to-diameter ratio,  
21 and crystal size-to-diameter criteria in accordance with ASTM method D 4543 (ASTM, 2008).

22 Strength and strain testing of the rock specimens followed ASTM method D 7012 (ASTM, 2013)  
23 requirements and was completed under approximate in-situ stress and temperature conditions that  
24 would be encountered during ASR operation. A stiff testing machine coupled with a servo system was  
25 used to conduct the tests. The servo system automatically regulated the stress rate applied by the  
26 testing machine to achieve a constant strain rate of 0.03 percent/minute. This practice significantly  
27 reduced the chance for catastrophic failure of the rock specimen at or just beyond its ultimate strength,  
28 allowing stress-strain readings to be compiled substantially beyond the ultimate strength of the  
29 specimen. Overall, testing results were valid and exhibited minimal data-use uncertainty based on  
30 adherence to rock specimen preparation criteria prescribed in ASTM method D 454f3 (ASTM,2008). No  
31 discernible effects on UFA rock matrix strength due to moisture content and temperature control of  
32 specimens, a reasonably applied strain-controlled loading rate, stability of the testing machine, and  
33 appropriate rock specimen failure modes were exhibited during strength testing.

34 All mechanical rock properties presented in Brown et al. (2005) were compiled and included in the data  
35 set developed to determine properties to be used in the hydraulically induced fracturing evaluation  
36 methods. Arithmetic mean values of 28.9° and 332 psi were determined for  $\Phi$  and C, respectively, to be  
37 used in the hydraulically induced fracturing evaluation methods. Testing results of eighteen samples for

1 E ranged from  $0.33 \times 10^6$  to  $17.4 \times 10^6$  psi at confining pressures ranging from 0 to 210 psi. These data  
 2 served as the basis for the fracture propagation arrest model.

3 **Table 4-1** shows the predicted maximum allowable total head (TH) and wellhead pressures that could  
 4 initiate hydraulically induced fracturing utilizing the primary evaluation methods at each proposed ASR  
 5 system. Hydraulically induced fracturing, under the primary methods, can be initiated at the well  
 6 borehole wall or anywhere within the UFA when the critical threshold level is reached at any point in the  
 7 hydraulic pressure field. However, the mechanics of hydraulically induced fracturing under the tensile  
 8 method require that the critical threshold level be reached within the well borehole to initiate fracturing  
 9 of the well borehole wall. The mechanics for the shear and microfracture methods require the total  
 10 pressure to remain at or above the critical threshold level within the initiated fracture to impart its  
 11 propagation. Hydraulically induced fracturing will not be initiated nor propagated at any pressure below  
 12 the critical threshold level. To reach the critical threshold level, recharge of water into the UFA is  
 13 required. However, fracture initiation and propagation can still occur during recovery if the TH remains  
 14 at or above the critical threshold level.

**Table 4-1 -- Predicted Water Pressure Thresholds Above Which Hydraulically Induced Fracturing May Be Induced at the Top of the UFA.**

| ASR System        | Shear Method    |                    | Tensile Method  |                    |                 |                    | Microfracture Method |                    |                 |                    |
|-------------------|-----------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|----------------------|--------------------|-----------------|--------------------|
|                   | TH (ft<br>NGVD) | Pressure*<br>(psi) | TH (ft<br>NGVD) | Pressure*<br>(psi) | TH (ft<br>NGVD) | Pressure*<br>(psi) | TH (ft<br>NGVD)      | Pressure*<br>(psi) | TH (ft<br>NGVD) | Pressure*<br>(psi) |
|                   | FS/No FS        | FS/No FS           | FS              | FS                 | No FS           | No FS              | FS                   | FS                 | No FS           | No FS              |
| Caloosahatchee R. | >>400           | >>164              | 309             | 125                | 343             | 139                | 220                  | 86                 | 244             | 97                 |
| Moore Haven       | >>400           | >>167              | 455             | 190                | 505             | 212                | 321                  | 133                | 357             | 148                |
| Kissimmee River   | >>400           | >>168              | 301             | 125                | 334             | 139                | 210                  | 85                 | 233             | 95                 |
| Port Mayaca       | >>400           | >>164              | 412             | 169                | 458             | 189                | 296                  | 119                | 329             | 133                |
| Hillsboro         | >>400           | >>168              | 503             | 213                | 559             | 237                | 356                  | 149                | 395             | 166                |
| Seminole-Brighton | >>400           | >>163              | 360             | 146                | 400             | 163                | 260                  | 102                | 289             | 115                |
| Paradise Run      | >>400           | >>165              | 308             | 125                | 342             | 140                | 218                  | 86                 | 242             | 97                 |

TH = total head; NGVD = National Geodetic Vertical Datum, 1929; ft=feet; psi=pounds per square inch; FS = factor of safety applied at 10 percent; >> = significantly greater than. \*Pressure is calculated for ground surface (below TH) to aid in well head design. 1 ft = 0.3048 m; 1 psi = 0.006895 MPa.

15 The shear method results indicated that it is highly unlikely that hydraulically induced fracturing due to  
 16 shear failure will occur under any probable ASR operational condition, either at the well borehole wall or  
 17 within the FAS. The tensile method results indicate that hydraulically induced fracturing due to failure  
 18 of the well borehole wall is possible if ASR operations increase the TH to the predicted critical threshold  
 19 levels. Likewise, the microfracture method results indicate that hydraulically induced fracturing due to  
 20 microfracture development is possible if ASR operations increase the TH to the predicted critical  
 21 threshold levels. Results of the hydraulically induced fracturing check methods indicate that predictive  
 22 values derived from the primary shear, tensile, and microfracture methods do not grossly over- or  
 23 under-estimate the critical threshold levels at which fracturing is induced.

1 The UFA contains natural discontinuities such as open vugs, fractures, fractures filled with material of  
2 negligible tensile strength, joints, bedding planes, and a horizontal contact zone with the overlying  
3 Hawthorn Group sediments. Should a hydraulically induced fracture be developed and propagate within  
4 the UFA, it is highly likely that it will align with one of these discontinuities and be contained within the  
5 rock matrix of the UFA. Should the fracture encounter the horizontally oriented contact zone between  
6 the UFA and Hawthorn Group, it will likely propagate along the zone as the hydraulic fracture tip stress  
7 will be redistributed and align with the contact zone, following the discontinuity arrest model presented  
8 by Gudmundsson and Brenner (2001). The hydraulic fracture will propagate until the fracture tip stress  
9 is reduced to a level not conducive to overcoming fracture-resisting stresses and FAS discontinuity  
10 strength.

11 Vertical propagation of a hydraulically induced fracture from the UFA into the Hawthorn Group is  
12 unlikely. The Hawthorn Group sediments exhibit significantly lower stiffness values compared to the  
13 UFA rock matrix. Therefore, the fracture tip stress of a vertically propagating fracture initiated in the  
14 FAS is likely to be effectively redistributed and dissipated at the contact with the overlying Hawthorn  
15 Group. Dissipation of the tip stress at the Hawthorn Group contact would occur, consistent with the  
16 variation of stiffness arrest model presented by Gudmundsson and Brenner (2001). Significant stress  
17 barriers do not exist within the UFA or Hawthorn Group, therefore fracture propagation arrest due to  
18 this characteristic is not likely.

#### 19 4.3.5 Geotechnical Evaluation Conclusions

20 Three primary failure methods (shear, tensile, and microfracture) were evaluated as mechanisms for  
21 hydraulically induced fracturing. Brown et al. (2005) suggested that additional rock matrix testing be  
22 completed to refine the mechanical properties of the rock needed to complete the geotechnical  
23 evaluation. Additional rock testing was completed to define UFA rock matrix mechanical properties,  
24 similar to those properties determined the desktop evaluation completed by Brown et al. (2005). These  
25 mechanical rock properties along with in-situ stresses were characterized, and were the basis to  
26 determine the pressure values that would induce hydraulic fracturing at the top of the UFA. Shear  
27 method results indicate that an extremely high pressure in the UFA is required to initiate fracturing by  
28 shear failure. Tensile method results indicate that a relatively moderate pressure is required to initiate  
29 fracturing by tensile splitting of the well borehole wall. Microfracture method results indicate that a  
30 moderately low pressure is required to initiate microfracturing. It is unlikely that extremely high  
31 pressure values will be achieved during ASR operation; therefore, hydraulic fracturing due to shear  
32 failure is not a concern. However, moderate pressure values can potentially be achieved, initiating  
33 hydraulic fracturing due to tensile splitting of the well borehole wall. More likely, moderately low  
34 pressure values causing microfracture initiation may be achieved within maximum ASR operational  
35 limits. Two additional hydraulically induced fracturing check methods were applied and produced  
36 results consistent with the tensile and microfracture primary methods, providing for increased  
37 assurance of the predictive pressure values that may induce fracturing.

1   Hydraulically induced fracturing can be initiated at and propagate from the well borehole wall for all  
2   three fracture mechanisms, while the ability to initiate and propagate hydraulic fracturing away from  
3   the borehole wall and within the FAS can be achieved by shear failure and microfracture development.  
4   Hydraulically induced fracturing is not a concern at any pressure below the critical threshold level that  
5   may result from practical ASR operation. If the critical water pressure threshold is met for the top of the  
6   FAS, fracturing is more likely to occur there rather than in deeper portions of the FAS, as increasing  
7   overburden stress with depth will largely negate fracture-inducing stresses. If hydraulically induced  
8   fracturing of the FAS rock matrix is initiated, it will likely be vertically oriented; however, orientation and  
9   propagation may be influenced by anisotropy, planar inhomogeneities, or alignment of the principal  
10  stresses in the FAS. The potential for hydraulically induced fracturing of the Hawthorn Group, due to  
11  vertically upward propagating fractures initiated in the FAS, is very unlikely. Fractures initiated in the  
12  FAS would be arrested at or re-directed along the discontinuity formed by the interface of the FAS and  
13  Hawthorn Group. If the fracture were able to propagate through the discontinuity and into the  
14  Hawthorn Group sediments, the softer nature of these lithologies would dissipate stress and arrest its  
15  propagation. Results and conclusions of hydraulic fracturing initiation and propagation potential  
16  developed under Brown et al. (2005) are compatible with results and conclusions developed under  
17  Geibel and Brown (2012).  
18

## 5 Surface Water and Groundwater Quality Controls on ASR System Performance

Organic and inorganic constituents in surface water can affect geochemical reactions in the storage zone. Geochemical reactions, particularly those related to arsenic mobilization, differ at ASR systems that recharge lightly treated surface water (CERP systems) compared to those that recharge potable or treated drinking water (**section 5.8**). Native groundwater quality, with regard to inorganic constituents, will influence the percent recovery of stored water, particularly during early cycles. Surface water and groundwater compositions are characterized in the following sections, then interpreted to define important water quality changes that can improve or degrade ASR system operations. **Table 5-1** shows the descriptive statistical compilation of all water quality constituents compiled from the four sites.

### 5.1 Surface Water Quality Characteristics and Suitability for ASR Recharge

The following section addresses a major concern for regional ASR implementation, which is to characterize surface water quality of Lake Okeechobee and tributaries, and to evaluate these as suitable sources of recharge water for ASR operations. As discussed extensively in the CERP ASR Pilot Project Technical Data Report (USACE and SFWMD, 2013), source water quality at CERP ASR systems must comply with UIC regulations and Safe Drinking Water Act (SDWA) criteria with minimal pre-treatment, particularly without chemical addition. Surface water quality characteristics should not promote fouling of the filter and UV disinfection system, well and aquifer clogging, or otherwise impede recharge at the 5 MGD pumping rate at a typical CERP ASR system.

Surface water quality constituents that are most likely to impede ASR operations are: total and dissolved organic carbon (TOC, DOC) and its proxy indicator color; iron, turbidity, and total alkalinity. Elevated color, iron, and turbidity values will reduce ASR system performance by clogging filter beds and the well bore with inorganic precipitates or biofilms. These processes were observed at the CERP ASR pilot systems during cycle testing. Low total alkalinity concentrations will promote carbonate dissolution, most likely near the well bore. Limited dissolution can improve permeability and result in recharge pumping at lower wellhead pressures.

This evaluation shows surface water quality characteristics and interpretations at four proposed CERP ASR systems using data compiled for the period of record 2000 to 2014. Water quality samples were collected at structures close to each CERP ASR system: at S39 (Hillsboro); S78 (Caloosahatchee River); S308 (Port Mayaca where Lake Okeechobee discharges into the St. Lucie Canal); and S65E (5 miles north of the Kissimmee River ASR (KRASR) system). Water quality data were obtained from the SFWMD database DBHYDRO for each structure, with additional analyses obtained at the ASR wellhead during four recharge phases at KRASR. To evaluate regional variations in selected water quality constituents, datasets from each site are compared statistically. To evaluate temporal changes, particularly wet-dry season variations, selected constituent concentrations are superimposed on flow rate plots for each corresponding channel. Wet and dry seasons begin on the median historical date of May 20 and October 17 respectively, unless actual season dates defined by the National Weather Service (Miami) are known.



1

**Table 5-1 -- Descriptive Statistics of Surface Water Quality Characteristics Compiled at Structures Located Near Four Proposed CERP ASR Systems.**

| Constituent  | Unit                      | Structure S65E - Kissimmee River    |         |         |              |              |                   | Structure S78 - Caloosahatchee River |         |         |              |              |                   |
|--|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|---------|---------|--------------|--------------|-------------------|--------------------------------------|---------|---------|--------------|--------------|-------------------|
|  |                           | Median                              | 25 %ile | 75 %ile | Mini-<br>mum | Maxi-<br>mum | No. of<br>Samples | Median                               | 25 %ile | 75 %ile | Mini-<br>mum | Maxi-<br>mum | No. of<br>Samples |
| <b>Major Inorganic Constituents</b>                          |                           |                                     |         |         |              |              |                   |                                      |         |         |              |              |                   |
| pH   | std units                 | 7.0                                 | 6.7     | 7.4     | 5.5          | 9.1          | 393               | 7.6                                  | 7.3     | 7.8     | 6.4          | 8.5          | 82                |
| Spec. Conductan.   | µS/cm                     | 185                                 | 153     | 217     | 1.3          | 607          | 393               | 501                                  | 435     | 570     | 47.5         | 713          | 82                |
| Tot. Alkalinity  | mg/L as CaCO <sub>3</sub> | 38                                  | 30      | 44      | 14           | 68           | 406               | 129                                  | 111     | 158     | 76           | 200          | 82                |
| Calcium  | mg/L                      | 16.9                                | 13.5    | 19.6    | 8.0          | 32.2         | 109               | 51.5                                 | 42.5    | 64.8    | 29.2         | 88.7         | 81                |
| Magnesium  | mg/L                      | 3.9                                 | 3.3     | 4.7     | 2.1          | 7.3          | 109               | 10.0                                 | 8.6     | 11.8    | 6.1          | 18.1         | 81                |
| Sodium   | mg/L                      | 12.7                                | 11.0    | 14.8    | 6.7          | 23.8         | 109               | 29.2                                 | 23.4    | 35.3    | 15.5         | 73           | 80                |
| Potassium  | mg/L                      | 3.0                                 | 2.5     | 3.5     | 1.5          | 233          | 110               | 6.4                                  | 5.4     | 7.1     | 0.1          | 8.6          | 82                |
| Chloride   | mg/L                      | 22.7                                | 19.1    | 26.5    | 11.4         | 63.3         | 390               | 51.5                                 | 42.0    | 62.3    | 27.0         | 133          | 81                |
| Silica   | mg/L                      |                                     |         |         |              |              |                   | 7.6                                  | 5.5     | 9.0     | 2.7          | 12.5         | 81                |
| Sulfate  | mg/L                      | 11.4                                | 8.8     | 14.4    | 3.9          | 38.3         | 391               | 29.3                                 | 23.4    | 37.3    | 4.4          | 61.0         | 82                |
| Tot. Diss. Solids  | mg/L                      | 139                                 | 112     | 170     | 80           | 237          | 36                |                                      |         |         |              |              |                   |
| Turbidity  | NTU                       | 2.9                                 | 2.2     | 4.0     | 0.1          | 26.7         | 401               | 3.33                                 | 2.5     | 4.8     | 1.1          | 24.9         | 75                |
| Color  | PCU                       | 118                                 | 77      | 166     | 29           | 467          | 388               | 68                                   | 49      | 107     | 31           | 249          | 81                |
| <b>Organics, Nutrients, and Trace Inorganic Constituents</b> |                           |                                     |         |         |              |              |                   |                                      |         |         |              |              |                   |
| Diss. Org. Carbon  | mg/L                      | 18.0                                | 16.0    | 21.4    | 11.8         | 39.7         | 344               |                                      |         |         |              |              |                   |
| Total Org Carbon   | mg/L                      | 18.0                                | 16.0    | 20.9    | 11.7         | 36.9         | 348               | 1.2                                  | 0.91    | 1.6     | 0.53         | 1.9          | 5                 |
| Total Kjeldahl N   | mg/L                      | 1.08                                | 0.99    | 1.19    | 0.62         | 2.35         | 406               | 1.28                                 | 1.17    | 1.41    | 0.86         | 2.72         | 298               |
| Total Ammonia  | µg/L                      | 34                                  | 19      | 68      | < 5          | 541          | 395               | 38                                   | 20      | 76      | < 9          | 278          | 81                |
| Nitrite + Nitrate  | µg/L                      | 54                                  | 14      | 158     | < 5          | 755          | 389               |                                      |         |         |              |              |                   |
| Nitrate  | µg/L                      | 46                                  | 10      | 149     | < 2          | 575          | 361               |                                      |         |         |              |              |                   |
| Total Phosphorus   | µg/L                      | 71.5                                | 55      | 106     | 31           | 435          | 408               | 96                                   | 77      | 132     | 36           | 840          | 299               |
| ortho-Phosphorus   | µg/L                      |                                     |         |         |              |              |                   | 61                                   | 41      | 97      | 7            | 468          | 79                |
| Iron   | µg/L                      | 347                                 | 77.3    | 166     | 92           | 1,040        | 57                | 81                                   | 57      | 149     | 36           | 300          | 9                 |
| Arsenic  | µg/L                      | < 1.5                               |         |         |              |              | 5                 | <1.5                                 |         |         |              |              | 3                 |
| Mercury  | µg/L                      | < 0.2                               |         |         |              |              | 5                 |                                      |         |         |              |              |                   |
| <b>Structure S39 - Hillsboro Canal at WCA-1/2</b>            |                           |                                     |         |         |              |              |                   |                                      |         |         |              |              |                   |
| <b>Structure S308 - Port Mayaca</b>                          |                           |                                     |         |         |              |              |                   |                                      |         |         |              |              |                   |
| Constituent  | Unit                      | Median                              | 25 %ile | 75 %ile | Mini-<br>mum | Maxi-<br>mum | No. of<br>Samples | Median                               | 25 %ile | 75 %ile | Mini-<br>mum | Maxi-<br>mum | No. of<br>Samples |
|  |                           | <b>Major Inorganic Constituents</b> |         |         |              |              |                   |                                      |         |         |              |              |                   |
| pH   | std units                 | 7.70                                | 7.40    | 7.90    | 6.75         | 8.50         | 245               | 7.95                                 | 7.70    | 8.10    | 5.60         | 9.08         | 391               |
| Spec. Conductan.   | µS/cm                     | 588                                 | 411     | 743     | 160          | 1,202        | 246               | 462                                  | 403     | 552     | 239          | 3,500        | 394               |
| Tot. Alkalinity  | mg/L as CaCO <sub>3</sub> | 127                                 | 96      | 170     | 42           | 347          | 211               | 116                                  | 102     | 132     | 63           | 228          | 332               |
| Calcium  | mg/L                      | 38.2                                | 27.4    | 50.1    | 14.5         | 92.7         | 130               | 43.0                                 | 37.1    | 53.3    | 26.9         | 86.1         | 65                |
| Magnesium  | mg/L                      | 11.7                                | 6.9     | 17.0    | 3.1          | 29.5         | 133               | 10.9                                 | 10.1    | 12.3    | 6.3          | 17.0         | 64                |
| Sodium   | mg/L                      | 54.0                                | 34.4    | 71.3    | 14.3         | 115          | 135               | 34.5                                 | 29.4    | 43.9    | 15.9         | 61.5         | 62                |
| Potassium  | mg/L                      | 4.8                                 | 2.9     | 6.7     | 0.8          | 12.6         | 135               | 6.2                                  | 5.2     | 6.7     | 3.5          | 9.3          | 65                |
| Chloride   | mg/L                      | 85.2                                | 55.0    | 111     | 23.7         | 170          | 227               | 51.7                                 | 40.3    | 69.6    | 14.6         | 111          | 272               |
| Silica   | mg/L                      | 8.1                                 | 4.4     | 12.4    | 1            | 12.6         | 128               | 9.7                                  | 8.2     | 10.7    | 6.4          | 43.8         | 39                |
| Sulfate  | mg/L                      | 24.1                                | 12.1    | 42.9    | 1.8          | 83.3         | 146               | 30.3                                 | 21.1    | 28.5    | 15.0         | 59.2         | 57                |
| Tot. Diss. Solids  | mg/L                      |                                     |         |         |              |              |                   |                                      |         |         |              |              |                   |
| Turbidity  | NTU                       | 1.3                                 | 0.9     | 2.1     | 0.4          | 11.1         | 243               | 34                                   | 16.9    | 70.8    | 2.5          | 386          | 375               |
| Color  | PCU                       | 76                                  | 65      | 94      | 43           | 200          | 114               | 35                                   | 31      | 50      | 170          | 250          | 278               |
| <b>Organics, Nutrients, and Trace Inorganic Constituents</b> |                           |                                     |         |         |              |              |                   |                                      |         |         |              |              |                   |
| Diss. Org. Carbon  | mg/L                      | 21.6                                | 18.0    | 25.0    | 9.9          | 35.9         | 94                | 16.5                                 | 15.1    | 21.2    | 13.0         | 22.0         | 8                 |
| Total Org Carbon   | mg/L                      | 22.0                                | 1.4     | 25.5    | 9.5          | 36.5         | 94                | 13.4                                 | 12.7    | 14.0    | 11.3         | 25.3         | 103               |
| Total Kjeldahl N   | mg/L                      | 1.39                                | 1.16    | 1.59    | 0.77         | 2.71         | 245               | 1.37                                 | 1.19    | 1.68    | 0.88         | 4.57         | 388               |
| Total Ammonia  | µg/L                      | 16                                  | 11      | 23      | < 5          | 167          | 214               | 19                                   | 9       | 44      | < 5          | 50           | 372               |
| Nitrite + Nitrate  | µg/L                      | 9                                   | 5       | 18      | < 4          | 875          | 237               | 29                                   | 132     | 428     | < 4          | 963          | 377               |
| Nitrate  | µg/L                      | 10                                  | 5       | 36.5    | < 4          | 734          | 89                | 235                                  | 123     | 383     | 6            | 916          | 153               |
| Total Phosphorus   | µg/L                      | 20                                  | 14      | 30      | 8            | 132          | 243               | 172                                  | 128     | 242     | 67           | 908          | 385               |
| ortho-Phosphorus   | µg/L                      | 4                                   | 2       | 6       | < 2          | 75           | 247               | 63                                   | 49      | 83      | 2            | 579          | 390               |
| Iron   | µg/L                      | 19                                  | 11      | 44      | 6            | 104          | 33                | 991                                  | 599     | 1,744   | 170          | 7,148        | 55                |
| Arsenic  | µg/L                      |                                     |         |         |              |              |                   | 3.2                                  | 1.7     | 5       | 1.5          | 41           | 13                |
| Mercury  | µg/L                      |                                     |         |         |              |              |                   |                                      |         |         |              |              |                   |

Note: Values with "less than" (&lt;) are the minimum detection limit for that constituent. PCU, Platinum Color Units; NTU, Nephelometric Turbidity Units.

1 In this evaluation, two important meteorological phenomena occurred during the period of record that  
2 affects some water quality trends. First, a record number of hurricanes transited or made landfall across  
3 south Florida during the 2004 and 2005 hurricane seasons, resulting in high lake levels and high flows  
4 through the Caloosahatchee and St. Lucie Rivers. Second, a record drought occurred in 2007 through  
5 August 2008, resulting in record low lake levels (8.8-ft NGVD29, August 2008). Tropical Storm Fay  
6 (August 2008) initiated rising lake levels and ended the drought. The following evaluation builds on  
7 earlier summaries of regional surface water quality (PBS&J, 2003) that guided filter selection for the ASR  
8 pilot projects.

## 9 5.2 Variations in Surface Water Color Values and Total Organic Carbon 10 Concentrations

11 Color results primarily from dissolved organic matter in the absence of suspended particulates. In south  
12 Florida surface waters, humic and fulvic acids are released by degradation of plant material, and these  
13 compounds are major components of TOC and DOC. Iron intensifies the color value due to  
14 complexation with humic and fulvic acids to form colloidal-sized particles. Particle size characterization  
15 at the Port Mayaca and Hillsboro sites showed that particle sizes range between 0.1 and 8  $\mu\text{m}$ ,  
16 approximately the size of pollen (USACE, unpublished data). There are fewer DOC and TOC analyses  
17 compared to color, so color will serve as a proxy for organic carbon for operational and seasonal water  
18 quality interpretations. Organic carbon concentrations exert a significant influence on groundwater  
19 geochemical reactions in the storage zone, as discussed in **Section 5.8.2**. Organic carbon characteristics  
20 and effect on groundwater geochemistry are considered in **Section 5.6.2.4**.

### 21 5.2.1 Regional Variation in Color Values and Total Organic Carbon Concentrations

22 Color values in surface water samples throughout south Florida generally are great enough to require  
23 regulatory relief (water quality criteria exemption, WQCE), and therefore can decrease UV disinfection  
24 performance by limiting light penetration (**Table 5-1; Figure 5-1**). The greatest and most variable values  
25 of color were measured in the Kissimmee River. It is likely that any ASR system would require a WQCE  
26 for operations because color values almost certainly will exceed the SDWA secondary criterion for color  
27 (15 PCU) during some part of the year. High color values can cause fouling of the filter, the UV  
28 disinfection system, and the ASR well bore. These problems were observed during cycle testing at both  
29 KRASR and HASR pilot systems; however, biofilm production was reduced by monthly chlorination of  
30 influent lines and the filter during the recharge phase.

31 The datasets for total organic carbon consists of fewer samples, but these data show similar  
32 distributions observed in the color datasets (**Table 5-1; Figure 5-1**), with the exception of the  
33 Caloosahatchee River site. There are only 5 samples that define the total organic carbon concentration  
34 range for this site, so these may not be representative for this watershed.

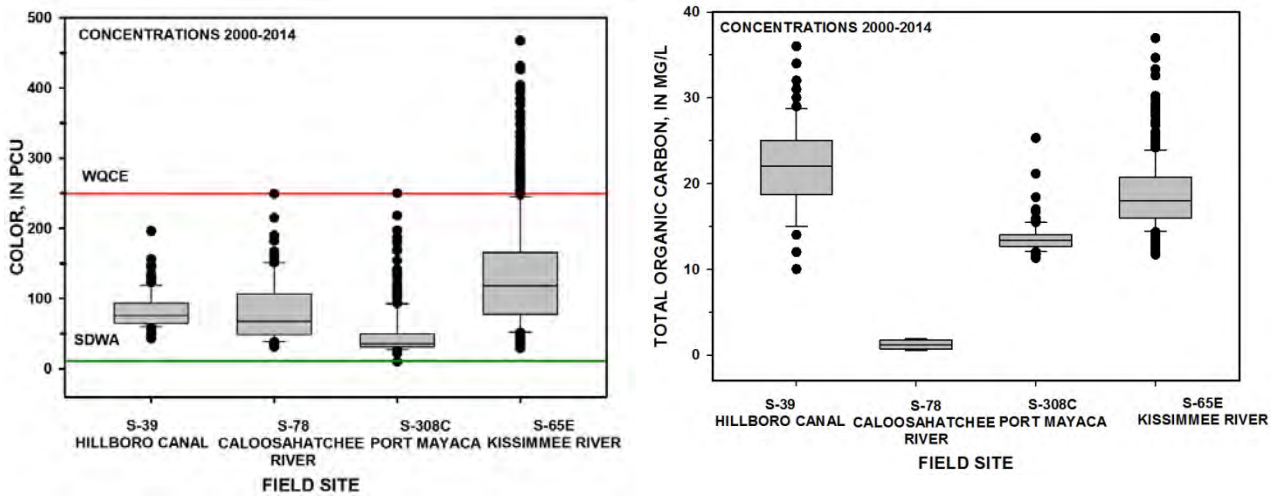


Figure 5-1 -- Box plots comparing median, 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile, and outlier values of color and total organic carbon at four proposed CERP ASR locations. WQCE, water quality criterion exemption value for color is 250 PCU; SDWA, Safe Drinking Water Act secondary criterion for color is 15 PCU.

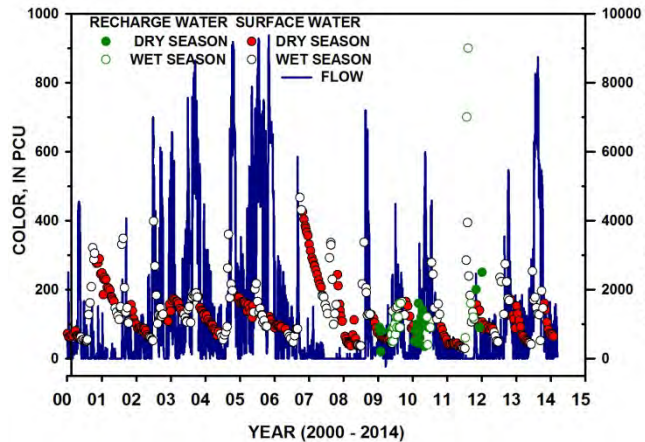
## 1 5.2.2 Temporal Variations in Color Values

2 Color values exhibit a saw-toothed trend throughout the period of record, with highest values measured  
 3 during wet seasons, followed by declining values through dry seasons and during the 2007-2008  
 4 drought. These trends are observed most clearly on the Kissimmee River and the Hillsboro Canal (**Figure**  
 5 **5-2 A, B**). Fewer data are available on the Caloosahatchee River, so trends are not well-resolved (**Figure**  
 6 **5-2C**). Stream flow at the Port Mayaca structure is complicated because water can flow east (positive  
 7 values) or west (negative values, into Lake Okeechobee) depending on gate position (**Figure 5-2D**).

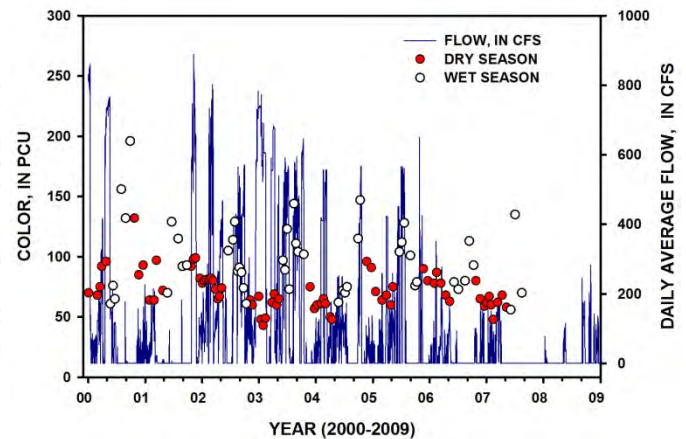
8 Highest color values tend to occur during wet season flows, which is when the recharge phase occurs at  
 9 an ASR system. Expansion of CERP ASR facilities will require water quality criteria exemptions if Lake  
 10 Okeechobee and tributary surface water is recharged. High color values were a documented cause of  
 11 reduced performance of UV disinfection systems at KRASR (USACE and SFWMD, 2013). Expansion of  
 12 CERP ASR facilities in the Lake Okeechobee region will require more robust disinfection technology than  
 13 was available in 2002-2004, when the CERP ASR pilot systems were designed.

14

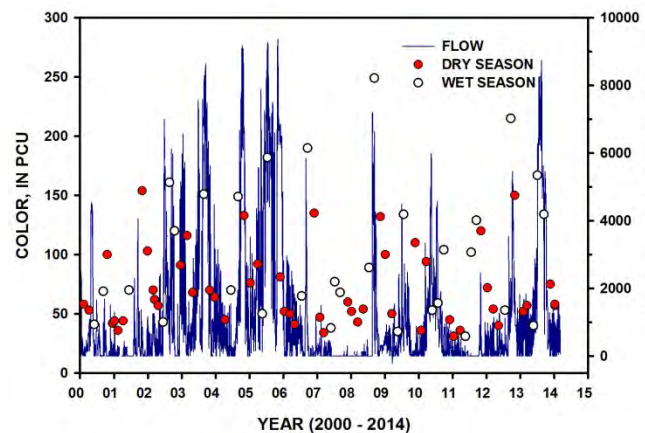
A. S65E on the Kissimmee River



B. S39 on the Hillsboro Canal



C. S78 on the Caloosahatchee River



D. S308 at Port Mayaca

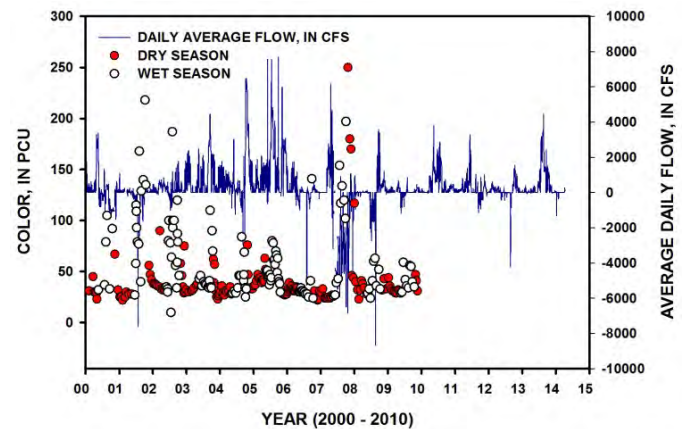


Figure 5-2 -- Time-series plots showing wet and dry season color values (PCU) superimposed on flow rates (cfs) at four water control structures located near existing or proposed CERP ASR systems.

### 1 5.3 Variations in Surface Water Dry Iron Concentrations

2 Iron normally will precipitate as ferric oxyhydroxide solids in oxic surface water having near-neutral pH,  
 3 due to its extremely low solubility product ( $K_{sp}$ ;  $10^{-37}$  to  $10^{-44}$ ; Schwertmann, 1991). However, ferric  
 4 (FeIII) iron will bind with humic acids (a component of DOC) in acid-to-neutral surface water, and thus  
 5 remain in solution (Tipping et al., 2002 and others). The presence of iron and carbon in recharge water  
 6 has important implications for geochemical reactions, including arsenic mobility in the FAS, as discussed  
 7 in **Section 5.8**. Therefore, it is important to characterize the spatial occurrence and temporal trends of  
 8 iron in surface waters that recharge ASR systems.

#### 9 5.3.1 Regional Variations in Iron Concentration

10 Iron concentrations in surface water samples throughout south Florida often are great enough to  
 11 require regulatory relief (WQCE), and can increase the potential for well and aquifer clogging due to

1 mineral precipitation or enhancement of iron-reducing bacteria in biofilms (Pavelic et al., 2007; Bustos  
 2 Medina et al., 2013). It is likely that ASR systems located in the Kissimmee Basin and along the St. Lucie  
 3 Canal would require a WQCE for operations because iron concentrations almost certainly will exceed the  
 4 SDWA secondary criterion for iron (300 µg/L). The greatest and most variable iron concentrations were  
 5 measured at the Port Mayaca structure, located where Lake Okeechobee discharges into the St. Lucie  
 6 Canal (**Figure 5-3**). There, the relationship between iron and turbidity is highly correlated ( $r^2 = 0.94$ ;  
 7  $P < 0.0001$ ), so that high iron concentrations probably correspond to the occurrence of iron-rich flocs in  
 8 surface water.

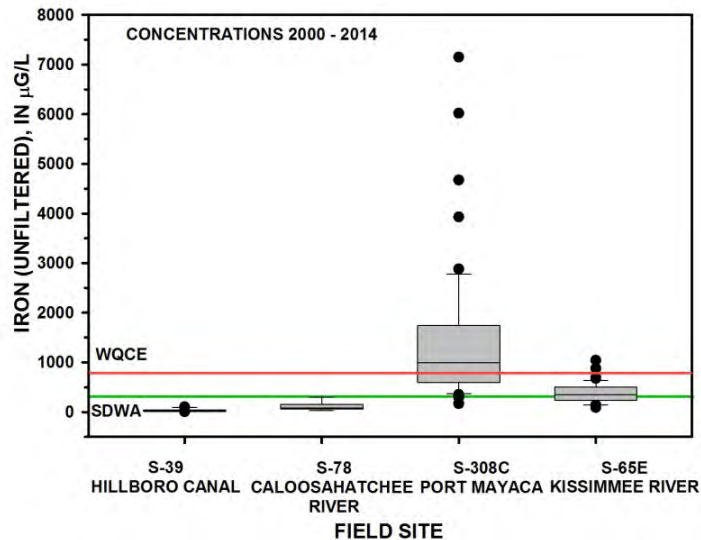


Figure 5-3 -- Box plots comparing median, 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile, and outlier iron concentrations among four proposed CERP ASR locations. WQCE, water quality criteria exemption value (800 µg/L); SDWA, Safe Drinking Water Act criterion (300 µg/L).

9 The presence of iron-rich flocs could require more intensive pre-treatment (particularly filtration) in  
 10 order to prevent well clogging. Iron concentrations at the Hillsboro Canal and Caloosahatchee River  
 11 structures generally are lower, showing maximum iron concentrations at or below the SDWA criterion.

### 12 5.3.2 Temporal Variations in Iron Concentration

13 Iron concentrations are not measured as frequently in surface water as other analytes, so trends in iron  
 14 concentration over time are not well resolved. Only at Port Mayaca S308 do iron concentrations differ  
 15 statistically between wet and dry season samples. There, the median iron concentration in the dry  
 16 season (1,525 µg/L, n=27) is significantly greater than the wet season value (648 µg/L, n=28;  $P < 0.001$ ).  
 17 Lower iron concentrations in the wet season would pose fewer operational issues during recharge.

### 18 5.4 Variations in Surface Water Turbidity

19 High turbidity values can challenge the pre-treatment process at an ASR facility. Turbid water can cause  
 20 the formation of lumps and films in filter media, clog screens, reduce light penetration in the UV

1 disinfection system, and over time, cause clogging of the ASR well bore. Lake Okeechobee is shallow  
 2 with a large fetch. Tropical storms, particularly during the 2004 and 2005 hurricane seasons,  
 3 resuspended bottom sediments and increased turbidity, resulting in significant ecological impacts to the  
 4 lake (Rogers and Allen, 2008; Wang et al., 2012). Characterizing the spatial and temporal variations of  
 5 turbidity in Lake Okeechobee and tributaries will provide better guidance for future ASR system designs.  
 6 There is no regulatory criterion for turbidity in groundwater, but ASR system operation and compliance  
 7 is better when recharge water shows low turbidity values.

#### 8 5.4.1 Regional Variations in Turbidity

9 The statistical correlation between iron and turbidity is strong at the Port Mayaca structure, so this  
 10 location also shows the greatest and most variable turbidity values (**Figure 5-4**). ASR systems  
 11 constructed along the St. Lucie Canal or eastern portions of Lake Okeechobee likely will require robust  
 12 filtration components to pre-treat recharge water during high flow events.

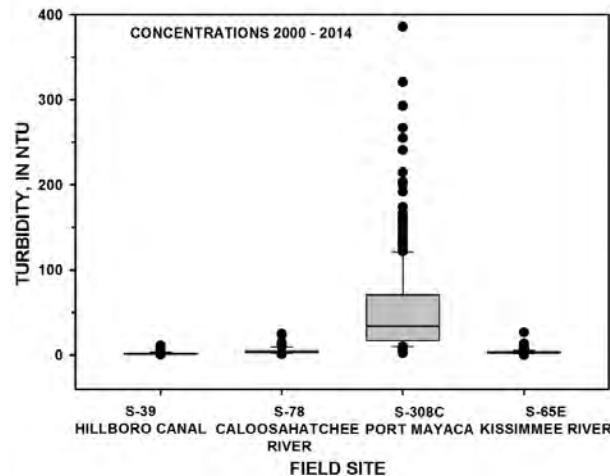


Figure 5-4 -- Box plots comparing median, 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile, and outlier turbidity concentrations among four proposed CERP ASR locations.

#### 13 5.4.2 Temporal Variations in Turbidity

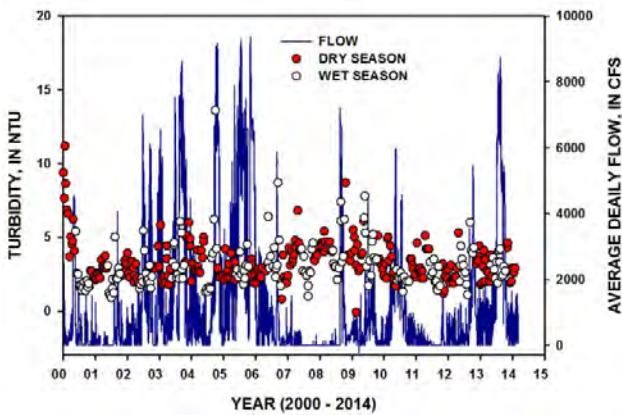
14 Despite having large turbidity datasets for each site, turbidity trends over time are not well-defined.  
 15 Elevated turbidity values probably result from a combination of wind and high flows, and it is difficult to  
 16 separate the influence of these two factors. Also, the range in turbidity values at all sites other than  
 17 Port Mayaca is small (0.1 to 27 NTU; **Table 5-1**) so that turbidity variation over time is subtle, except  
 18 during major storm events.

19

20

21

A. S65E on the Kissimmee River



B. S308 at Port Mayaca

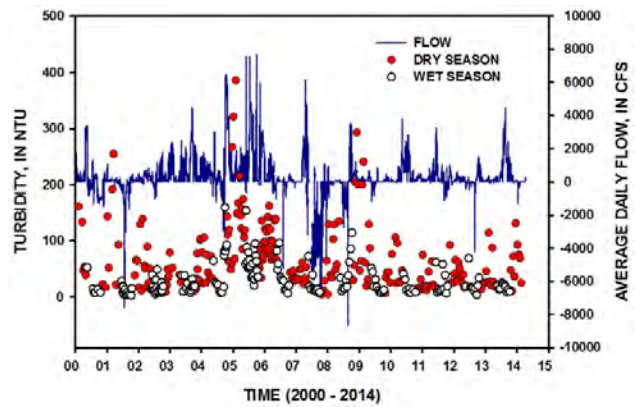


Figure 5-5 -- Time-series plots showing wet and dry season turbidity values (NTU) superimposed on flow rates (cfs) at two water control structures located near existing or proposed CERP ASR systems.

1 5.5 Variations in Surface Water Alkalinity

2 Alkalinity concentrations do not exert a significant influence on mechanical operations of an ASR system.  
 3 The pH values of most surface waters are between 7 and 8 (Table 5-1), values low enough to preclude  
 4 scaling as a significant process. However, recharge of low alkalinity surface water into a limestone  
 5 aquifer can result in dissolution and increased permeability, particularly near the well bore where  
 6 recharge water has not yet attained equilibrium with respect to calcium carbonate. Dissolution of  
 7 aquifer material will be discussed in Section 5.7.

8 5.5.1 Regional Variations in Alkalinity

9 Kissimmee River surface water typically shows the lowest and least variable alkalinity concentrations  
 10 because carbonate rock, the source of dissolved bicarbonate and carbonate ions, is buried beneath a  
 11 veneer of silicate sands and silts. As surface water flows southward, more lime rock is exposed at the  
 12 surface, resulting in greater dissolved carbonate species concentrations, and hence greater carbonate  
 13 alkalinity (Figure 5-6).

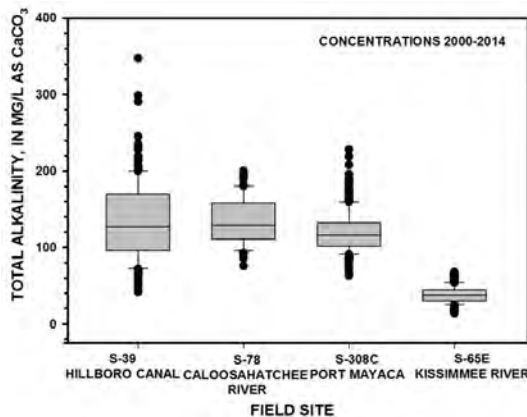


Figure 5-6 -- Box plots comparing median, 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile, and outlier alkalinity concentrations among four proposed CERP ASR locations.

## 1 5.5.2 Temporal Variations in Alkalinity

2 There is no statistically significant difference in alkalinity concentrations between wet and dry season  
 3 samples at all proposed CERP ASR system locations. However, the Kissimmee River does show alkalinity  
 4 variation with longer duration (interannual) weather patterns (**Figure 5-7**). Broadly interpreted,  
 5 alkalinity values are lower during wet periods (e.g. 2003 to 2005), and higher during dry periods or  
 6 droughts (e.g. 2000-2001, 2006-2008). Recharge is most likely during wet periods of seasonal or  
 7 interannual duration characterized by lower alkalinity values.

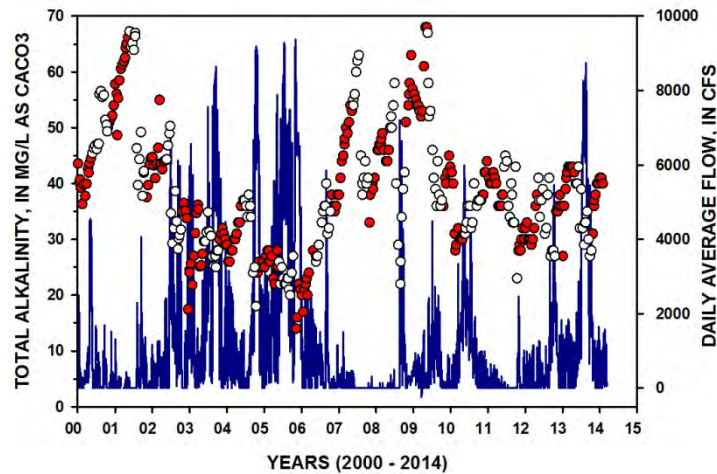


Figure 5-7 -- Time-series plots showing interannual trends in alkalinity concentrations, superimposed on flow rates (cfs) at the S-65E structure on the Kissimmee River.

## 8 5.6 Regional Groundwater Quality Characterization and Suitability for ASR Cycle 9 Testing

10 Characterization and evaluation of groundwater quality changes that result from ASR cycle testing in the  
 11 FAS is one of the greatest sources of uncertainty identified by the National Research Council (2002) and  
 12 the ASR Issue Team (1999). Quantitative evaluation of groundwater quality changes during ASR cycle  
 13 testing requires: 1) geochemical characterization of native Floridan Aquifer System (UFA and APPZ)  
 14 throughout south Florida, which serve as storage zones; 2) geochemical characterization of source  
 15 (surface) water composition from different waterways; and 3) intensive sampling during ASR cycle  
 16 testing at CERP ASR pilot systems to identify dominant geochemical reactions that induce water quality  
 17 changes. The primary objective of this section is to identify those areas in south Florida where the  
 18 Floridan Aquifer System and source (surface) water show characteristics that are most appropriate for  
 19 ASR system development, from a groundwater quality perspective. In addition, results of related  
 20 projects conducted for water-quality improvement during ASR cycle testing will be summarized.

21 Characterization of FAS groundwater quality was accomplished using newly acquired and existing data in  
 22 the SFWMD Regional Floridan Groundwater (RFGW) Network, introduced in **Section 3.3**. For the ASR  
 23 Regional Study, a broader suite of constituents was analyzed during RFGW sampling events in April and  
 24 September 2005, and these data supplement the RFGW analytical program. For this analysis, water-



1 quality data from 49 UFA wells and 16 APPZ wells were compiled, representing a period of record  
2 generally between 2004 and 2013. Data quality control consisted of calculating charge balance errors,  
3 and evaluating relationships between pH and alkalinity. Samples having charge balance errors greater  
4 than 8 percent were eliminated from the data set. Samples having pH values greater than  
5 approximately 8.5 and low alkalinity and calcium concentrations also were eliminated from the dataset,  
6 as this characteristic suggests calcium carbonate precipitation as water travels up the well bore during  
7 sampling. Water quality constituent concentrations are color-coded on maps to represent “low,  
8 moderate, or high” concentrations. With the exception of sulfate, chloride, and total dissolved solids  
9 (TDS) constituents, low concentrations range between minimum and the 25<sup>th</sup> percentile range of all UFA  
10 mean concentrations; moderate concentrations range between the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentile; and high  
11 concentrations range between the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile and the maximum concentration. Chloride and  
12 sulfate concentrations are grouped according to the SDWA water quality criterion (250 mg/L). Low  
13 concentrations range between the minimum and 250 mg/L for all UFA mean concentrations; moderate  
14 concentrations range between 250 mg/L and the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile; and high concentrations range  
15 between the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile and the maximum concentration. Similarly, TDS concentrations are  
16 grouped according to levels that govern UIC permitting criteria for Class V (e.g. ASR) wells. Low TDS  
17 concentrations range between the minimum and 3,000 mg/L; moderate concentrations range between  
18 3,000 and 10,000 mg/L; and high concentrations range between 10,000 mg/L and the maximum.

### 19 5.6.1 Native Groundwater Quality of the Upper Floridan Aquifer

20 Groundwater quality in the UFA ranges from fresh to brackish with respect to chloride, sulfate, and total  
21 dissolved solids concentrations. As groundwater flows southward from the Polk County recharge area,  
22 inorganic constituent concentrations generally increase as water reacts with carbonate rock. Maximum  
23 concentrations of major constituents approach those of seawater. Concentrations of barium, strontium,  
24 silica, iron, and manganese exceed that of seawater. Other than iron and manganese, all trace metal  
25 concentrations generally are below detection. The existence of detectable dissolved organic carbon in  
26 the UFA is surprising, considering that groundwater at Lake Okeechobee is approximately 25,000 years  
27 old (Morrisey et al., 2010). The redox environment of the Upper Floridan Aquifer is sulfate-reducing as  
28 indicated by the absence of dissolved oxygen, negligible nitrate concentrations, low concentrations of  
29 redox-active iron and manganese, the presence of dissolved sulfide, positive detections of sulfate-  
30 reducing bacteria in field test kits, and redox potentials ranging between -280 and -320 mV. Descriptive  
31 statistics for inorganic constituents in UFA samples are shown in **Table 5-2**. More detailed discussion of  
32 the conceptual hydrogeologic model can be found in **Sections 3.1** and **3.2**. Regional groundwater flow  
33 simulations are discussed in **Chapter 7.4**.

### 34 5.6.2 Regional Water Quality Variations in the Upper Floridan Aquifer

35 The main axis of groundwater flow occurs from the north at areas of highest head (130 to 140-ft  
36 NGVD29) in Polk County, southward toward Lake Okeechobee, and further towards the Gulf and Atlantic  
37 coasts. A smaller potential recharge area exists in northwestern Highlands County, characterized by  
38 heads of 100 to 110-ft NGVD29 (USACE, 2011). The hydraulic gradient in the UFA is greatest along this

1 axis to the region north of Lake Okeechobee. The gradient declines in the region of Lake Okeechobee,  
 2 southwest Florida and toward the Gulf and Atlantic Coasts. A smaller potentiometric high exists  
 3 southwest of Lake Okeechobee, resulting in a “saddle” in the Caloosahatchee River valley. Estimated  
 4 (Bush and Johnston, 1988) and model-computed (USACE, 2011) pre-development head contours depict  
 5 recharge areas and hydraulic gradients of the regional flow system in the semi-confined and confined  
 6 portions of the UFA (**Figure 5-8**). The regional pattern of groundwater flow away from the recharge area  
 7 controls native groundwater quality, as longer flow paths allow greater reaction between groundwater  
 8 and carbonate rock that includes the UFA. **Figures 5-9** through **5-11** show the spatial distribution of  
 9 selected constituent concentrations in the UFA.

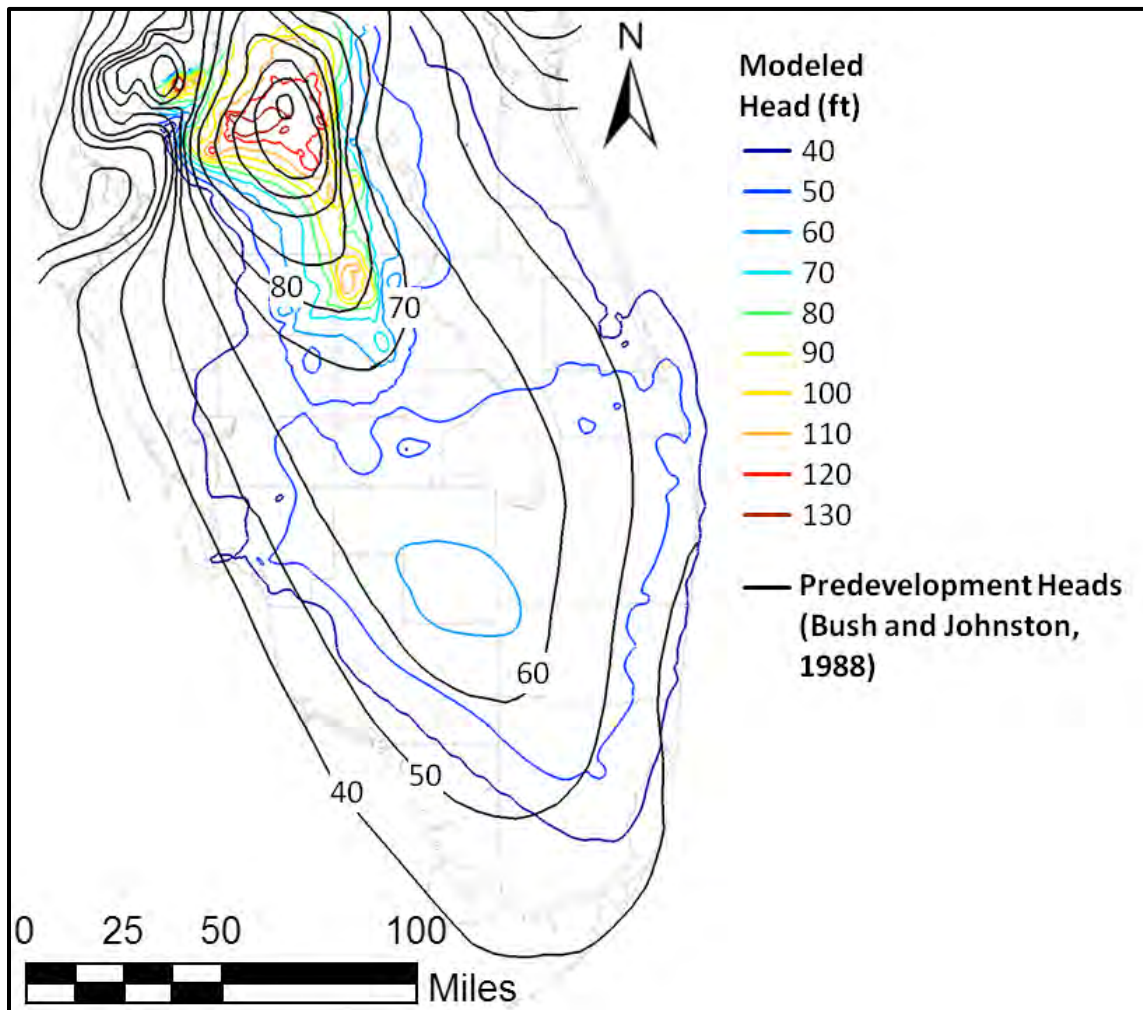


Figure 5-8 -- Estimated and model computed pre-development head contours of the Upper Floridan Aquifer. Figure redrawn from USACE (2011).

10

| Constituent               | Unit                   | Mean   | Median | 25 percentile | 75 percentile | Minimum | Maximum | Sample Number |
|---------------------------|------------------------|--------|--------|---------------|---------------|---------|---------|---------------|
| <b>Major Constituents</b> |                        |        |        |               |               |         |         |               |
| pH                        | std units              | 7.73   | 7.77   | 7.49          | 7.93          | 7.06    | 8.37    | 46            |
| Specific Conduct.         | µS/cm                  | 4,910  | 3,570  | 1,070         | 6,340         | 258     | 43,540  | 47            |
| Total Alkalinity          | mg/L CaCO <sub>3</sub> | 122    | 129    | 91            | 150           | 15.6    | 190     | 49            |
| Temperature               | ° C                    | 26.3   | 26.1   | 24.7          | 28.1          | 22.3    | 32.0    | 46            |
| ORP                       | mV                     | -307   | -308   |               |               | -278    | -344    | 5             |
| Tot. Diss. Solids         | mg/L                   | 3210   | 2,030  | 665           | 4,270         | 148     | 29,350  | 47            |
| Calcium                   | mg/L                   | 107    | 103    | 52.0          | 140           | 25.3    | 419     | 49            |
| Magnesium                 | mg/L                   | 114    | 79.7   | 37.0          | 146           | 5.7     | 961     | 49            |
| Sodium                    | mg/L                   | 832    | 511    | 82.5          | 1,162         | 3.6     | 8,460   | 49            |
| Potassium                 | mg/L                   | 30.9   | 18.2   | 6.0           | 41.6          | 1.0     | 309     | 49            |
| Chloride                  | mg/L                   | 1,480  | 917    | 133           | 2,060         | 4.8     | 15,460  | 49            |
| Silica                    | mg/L                   | 13.1   | 11.0   | 7.6           | 15.6          | 2.5     | 45.5    | 34            |
| Bromide                   | mg/L                   | 5.1    | 4.1    | 0.24          | 8.5           | 15      | 0.02    | 21            |
| Fluoride                  | mg/L                   | 1.1    | 0.94   | 0.65          | 1.3           | 0.22    | 3.5     | 21            |
| Sulfate                   | mg/L                   | 446    | 323    | 176           | 509           | 8.1     | 4,500   | 47            |
| Sulfide                   | mg/L                   | 1.9    | 1.6    | 0.78          | 2.8           | 0.05    | 4.3     | 16            |
| Diss. Org. Carbon         | Mg/L                   | 0.73   | 0.71   | 0.27          | 0.88          | 0.10    | 2.1     | 15            |
| <b>Trace Constituents</b> |                        |        |        |               |               |         |         |               |
| Aluminum                  | µg/L                   | < 30   |        |               |               | < 30    | 38      | 17            |
| Antimony                  | µg/L                   | < 2.3  |        |               |               | < 2.3   | 4.7     | 3             |
| Arsenic                   | µg/L                   | < 1.0  |        |               |               | < 1     | 4       | 20            |
| Barium                    | µg/L                   | 34.3   | 27.5   | 22.6          | 40.8          | 8.9     | 117     | 28            |
| Beryllium                 | µg/L                   | < 0.12 |        |               |               | < 0.12  | < 0.12  | 3             |
| Boron                     | µg/L                   | 498    | 450    | 165           | 7.5           | 17      | 1,800   | 16            |
| Cadmium                   | µg/L                   | < 1    |        |               |               | < 1     | 0.98    | 23            |
| Chromium                  | µg/L                   | < 0.83 |        |               |               | < 0.83  | 0.95    | 23            |
| Cobalt                    | µg/L                   | < 0.71 |        |               |               | < 0.71  | 0.88    | 15            |
| Copper                    | µg/L                   | < 1.7  |        |               |               | < 1.7   | 6.1     | 24            |
| Iron                      | µg/L                   | 111    | 64.0   | 31.7          | 180           | < 27    | 450     | 32            |
| Lead                      | µg/L                   | < 2.2  |        |               |               | < 2.2   | < 2.2   | 24            |
| Lithium                   | µg/L                   | 34.9   | 22.0   | 14.0          | 40            | 3.1     | 150     | 15            |
| Manganese                 | µg/L                   | 12.9   | 9.7    | 5.6           | 16.6          | <1.4    | 65      | 15            |
| Mercury (ultrace)         | ng/L                   | 5.6    | 6.5    | 1.9           | 9             | < 5     | 9       | 16            |
| Methyl Mercury            | ng/L                   | 0.65   | 0.06   | 0.03          | 0.3           | < 0.03  | 4       | 16            |
| Nickel                    | µg/L                   | < 1.8  |        |               |               | < 1.8   | 1.9     | 20            |
| Selenium                  | µg/L                   | < 6.2  |        |               |               | < 6.2   | 7.8     | 17            |
| Silver                    | µg/L                   | < 1.0  |        |               |               | < 1.0   | < 1.0   | 3             |
| Strontium                 | µg/L                   | 11,990 | 11,490 | 4,895         | 17,150        | 320     | 2,900   | 34            |
| Thallium                  | µg/L                   | < 9.8  |        |               |               | < 9.8   | 12      | 17            |
| Zinc                      | µg/L                   | < 6.5  |        |               |               | < 6.5   | 21.5    | 20            |

Note: Values with "less than" (<) are the minimum detection limit for that constituent. ORP, oxidation-reduction potential.

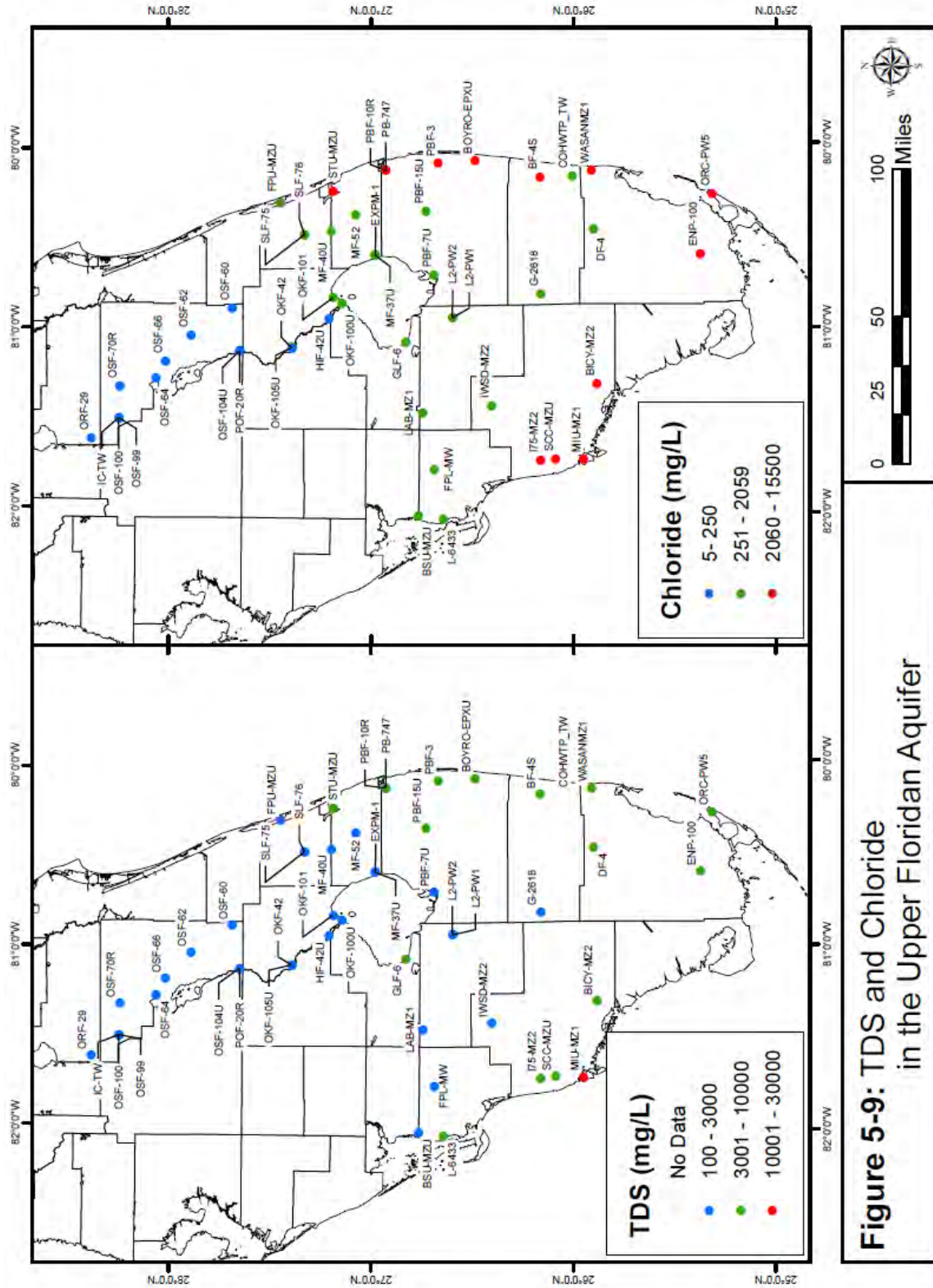
- 1
- 2 **5.6.2.1 Total Dissolved Solids and Chloride**
- 3 Total dissolved solids and chloride concentrations increase due to water-rock interactions as
- 4 groundwater travels away from the Polk County recharge area. Lowest TDS and chloride concentrations
- 5 occur in UFA wells located in the Kissimmee Basin and along the Caloosahatchee River (**Figure 5-9**).
- 6 From a water quality standpoint, ASR systems constructed in these areas would show the greatest
- 7 percent recoveries because mixing recharge water with fresher, native groundwater would dilute
- 8 already low native TDS and chloride concentrations. For example, the Kissimmee River ASR pilot system

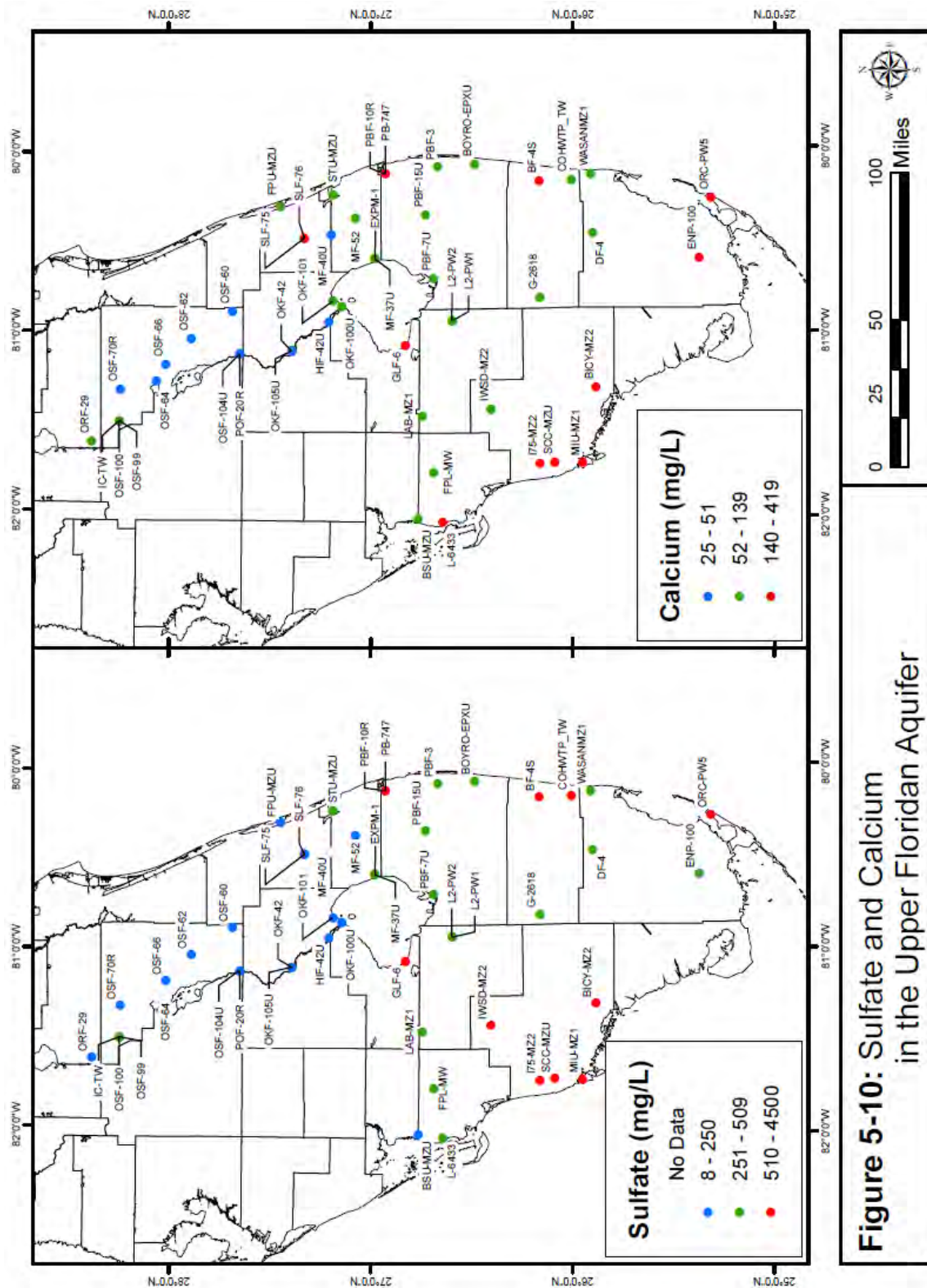
1 (at OKF-100U, native chloride concentration 195 to 226 mg/L) showed percent recoveries ranging  
2 between 94 and 106 percent (USACE and SFWMD, 2013) without exceeding the 250 mg/L SDWA  
3 criterion for chloride during four cycle tests. ASR systems that show less contrast between recharge  
4 water and native groundwater are less likely to exhibit density-dependent groundwater flow, which can  
5 also potentially reduce percent recovery. Although ASR system performance is better where the UFA is  
6 fresh, regulatory permitting requirements will be more stringent because aquifers characterized by TDS  
7 concentrations less than 10,000 mg/L are classified as underground sources of drinking water (USDW) in  
8 the SDWA.

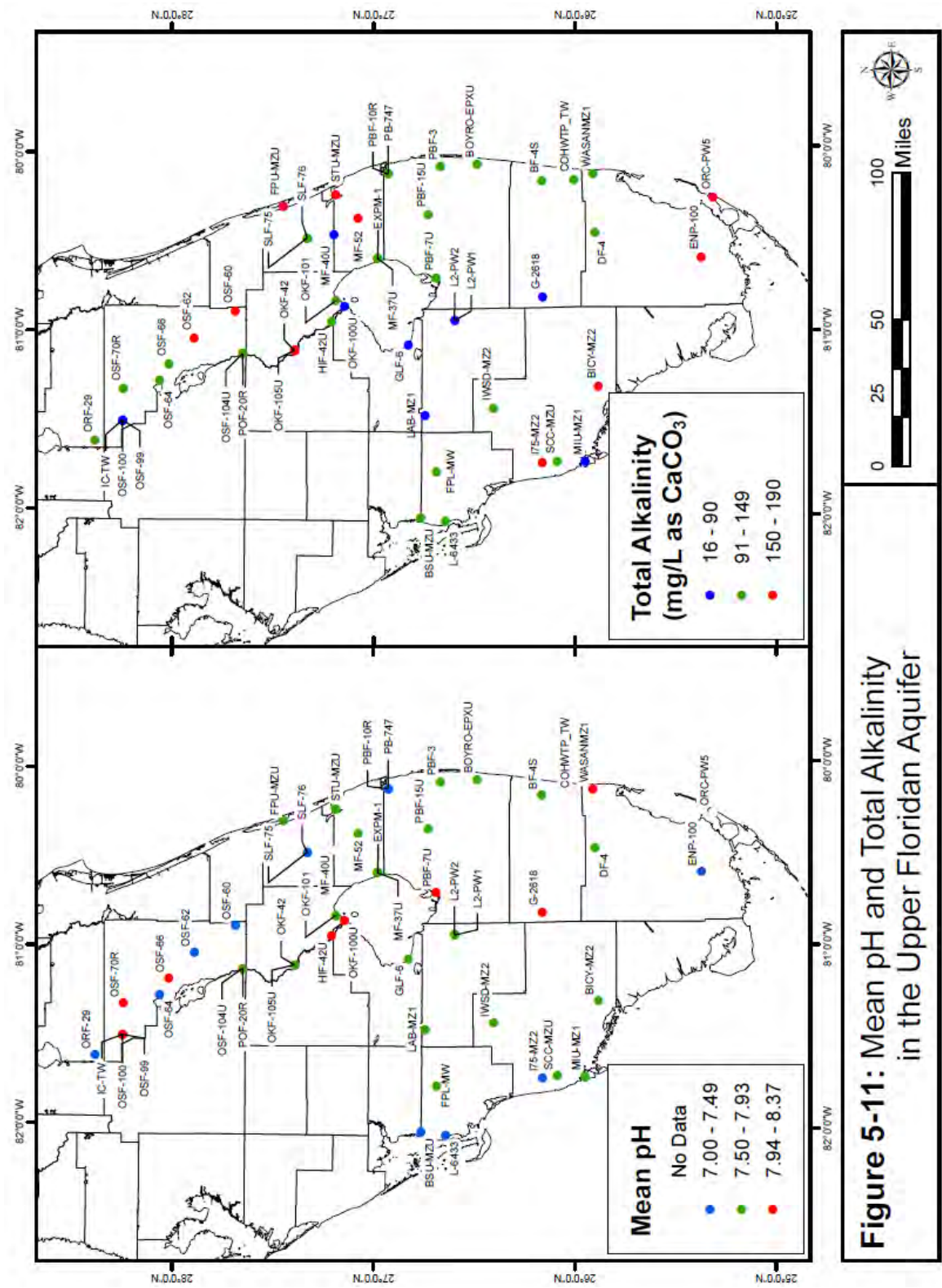
9 The highest chloride and TDS concentrations in the UFA are shown in wells near the Atlantic and Gulf  
10 coasts, although these concentrations are lower than modern seawater concentrations (TDS greater  
11 than 35,000 mg/L; chloride greater than 19,800 mg/L). Elevated TDS and chloride concentrations in the  
12 UFA may be the result of saltwater intrusion and mixing during Pleistocene high sea-level stands (Reese  
13 and Memberg, 2000). From a water quality standpoint, ASR systems located in these areas would show  
14 lower percent recoveries particularly during early, smaller volume cycle tests. Fresher recharge water  
15 will “float” on denser native saline water due to buoyancy stratification (Vacher et al., 2006). Existing  
16 potable water ASR systems in coastal Palm Beach, Broward, and Collier Counties (e.g. Broward County  
17 WTP 2A, Springtree, Fiveash, Marco Lakes) have native groundwater chloride concentrations ranging  
18 between 1,900 and 4,000 mg/L. These ASR systems showed percent recoveries generally less than 40  
19 percent during the first three cycle tests (Reese, 2002), although percent recoveries generally improved  
20 during successive cycle tests. For example, the Marco Lakes ASR system performance improved to show  
21 75 percent recovery after 7 cycle tests, and has expanded to 9 ASR wells with a capacity of 10.5 MGD  
22 (Poteet et al., 2013). ASR operational strategies such as creation of a mixing or buffer zone between  
23 native and recharge water, and recharging large volumes can improve percent recovery at ASR systems  
24 that store water in brackish and saline aquifers.

#### 25 5.6.2.2 Sulfate

26 Sulfate concentrations also increase as groundwater travels away from the recharge area in the UFA.  
27 The spatial distribution of sulfate concentrations is similar to that of chloride (**Figure 5-10**), with lower  
28 concentrations occurring in the Kissimmee Basin wells, and highest concentrations in coastal wells. High  
29 sulfate concentrations in native UFA groundwater can degrade recharge water quality through mixing  
30 during ASR cycle tests, possibly exceeding the secondary SDWA water quality criterion of 250 mg/L.  
31 Sulfate is also reduced to sulfide by native sulfate-reducing bacteria in the UFA. Sulfate reduction is the  
32 primary control on redox environment in the confined portions of the UFA, and also attenuates  
33 mobilized arsenic during storage (Mirecki et al., 2012) and discussed further in **Section 5.8**. Dissolved  
34 sulfide in recovered water can be removed during aeration prior to discharge into the surface water  
35 body. Dissolved sulfide was not found to exert toxic effects to freshwater organisms during cycle testing  
36 at the Kissimmee River ASR system (USACE and SFWMD, 2013). Discharge of recovered water with  
37 sulfate concentrations that exceed surface water values is a particular concern for water management in  
38 the Everglades Protection Area.







**Figure 5-11: Mean pH and Total Alkalinity in the Upper Floridan Aquifer**

### 1 5.6.2.3 Calcium, Total Alkalinity, and pH

2 The native UFA occurs within permeable limestone units of Oligocene and Miocene age. Close to the  
3 recharge area, groundwater is undersaturated with respect to calcium carbonate, resulting in limestone  
4 dissolution and karst formation. Away from the recharge area (in the confined portions of the UFA),  
5 groundwater will equilibrate with limestone, so that dissolution will not occur. Native groundwater  
6 carbonate species distributions will shift in response to mixing with fresh, low alkalinity surface water  
7 during ASR cycle testing. However, limestone host rock serves as an effective buffer to large variations  
8 in pH and carbonate speciation during mixing.

9 The pH of native UFA groundwater is circum-neutral throughout the ASR regional study area (**Figure**  
10 **5-11**). The equilibrium pH of water in contact with calcium carbonate and atmospheric carbon dioxide is  
11 slightly alkaline, at 8.3. More alkaline pH values are observed in down-gradient UFA wells that have  
12 reached equilibrium values of alkalinity and pH, and calcium concentrations in contact with calcium  
13 carbonate. Effects of ASR cycle testing on calcium carbonate solubility in the UFA are discussed in  
14 **Section 5.7**.

### 15 5.6.2.4 Characterization of Organic Carbon in Surface and Groundwater

16 As cycle testing proceeded at the CERP ASR pilot systems, it became increasingly clear that the TOC and  
17 DOC phases in source (surface) water were important components of subsurface biogeochemical  
18 reactions (USACE and SFWMD, 2013). TOC and DOC were measured weekly and monthly during all  
19 phases of cycle tests at KRASR, and these data are presented in USACE and SFMWD (2013).  
20 Concentrations of TOC and DOC declined during cycle testing, most likely due to sorption to aquifer  
21 material and microbe-mediated redox reactions in the UFA. More detailed studies of microbe-mediated  
22 geochemical reactions were completed by Lisle (2014) and Harvey et al. (2014).

23 Lisle (2014) characterized DOC in native UFA and APPZ groundwaters, as part of a larger effort to define  
24 microbe diversity in the FAS. Microbes couple electron donor (oxidation of organic carbon) and electron  
25 acceptor (reduction of nitrate, ferric iron, or sulfate, for example) reactions to obtain energy, and these  
26 coupled reactions are specific to microbial families. As part of this study, Lisle (2014) quantified carbon  
27 utilization and biomass production in microbe communities isolated from six UFA and APPZ wells that  
28 were near the ASR pilot systems. The Lisle (2014) study is the most detailed characterization of native  
29 microbe diversity of the FAS to date.

30 In a related study, Harvey et al. (2014) reported characteristics of DOC fractions in Lake Okeechobee  
31 surface water samples, and the effect that these DOC fractions would have on transport of *E. coli*  
32 introduced into the FAS during ASR cycle testing. Although the transport tests were inconclusive,  
33 characterization of the DOC fractions of Lake Okeechobee surface water will be useful for other  
34 subsurface microbe studies.



### 1 5.6.3 Native Water Quality in the Avon Park Permeable Zone

2 The Avon Park Permeable Zone (APPZ) was defined by Reese and Richardson (2008) to recognize a  
 3 regional sub-aquifer within the middle confining unit that separates the upper and lower Floridan  
 4 aquifers. The APPZ was known previously as the Middle Floridan aquifer in southeastern Florida.  
 5 Water-quality and hydraulic characteristics, and hydrostratigraphic position of the APPZ are favorable  
 6 for use as an ASR storage zone, particularly north and northwest of Lake Okeechobee.

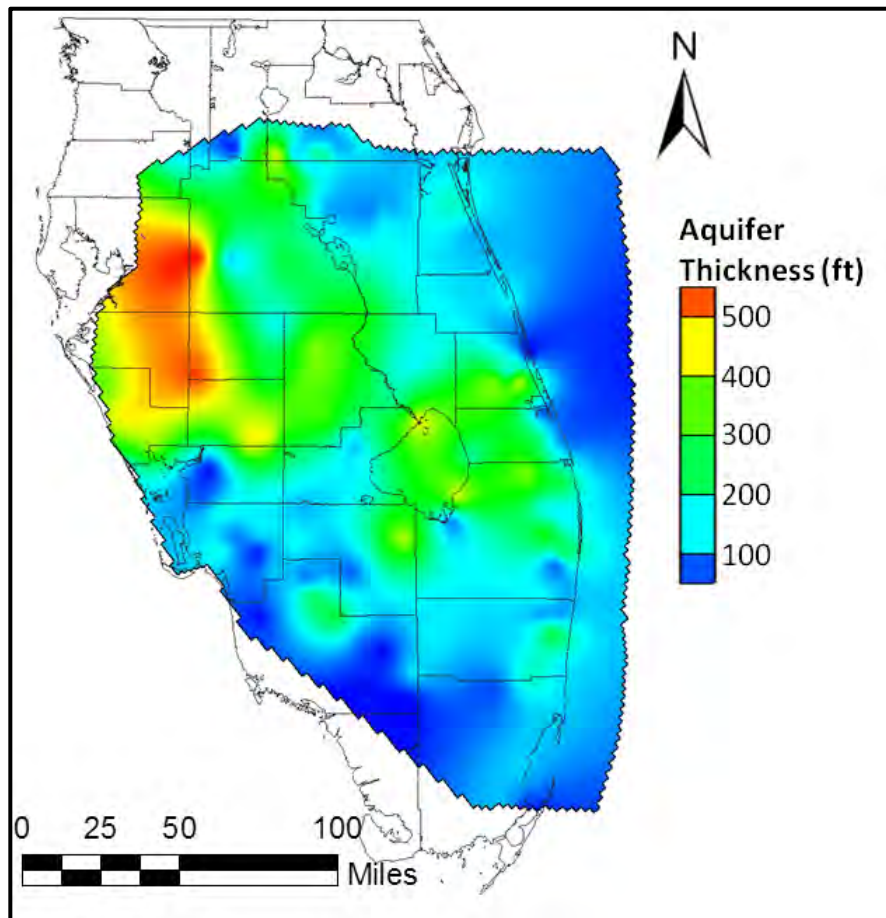


Figure 5-12 -- Thickness of the Avon Park Permeable Zone as simulated in the ASR Regional Study groundwater flow model. Figure from USACE (2011).

7 The APPZ probably has hydraulic connectivity with the upper Floridan Aquifer in the region of the  
 8 primary recharge area in Polk County, which also marks the fresher portions of the APPZ. Maximum  
 9 thickness (greater than 200-ft) of the APPZ occurs in a wide band extending from Hillsborough County  
 10 southeast to northern Palm Beach County (**Figure 5-12**). The APPZ is thin or absent in most of Miami-  
 11 Dade, Monroe, and Collier Counties. The APPZ occurs at depths of approximately 1,800 to 2,100-ft in  
 12 western Lee and Charlotte Counties, coincident with the occurrence of a permeable zone having  
 13 brackish water quality. Lithologies at the base of this zone are composed of dolomite and evaporites  
 14 (Reese, 2000). Groundwater quality samples from the BSU-MZL well (Charlotte County) are the  
 15 warmest, and have the highest concentrations of solutes of all APPZ samples.

### 1 5.6.3.1 Total Dissolved Solids and Chloride

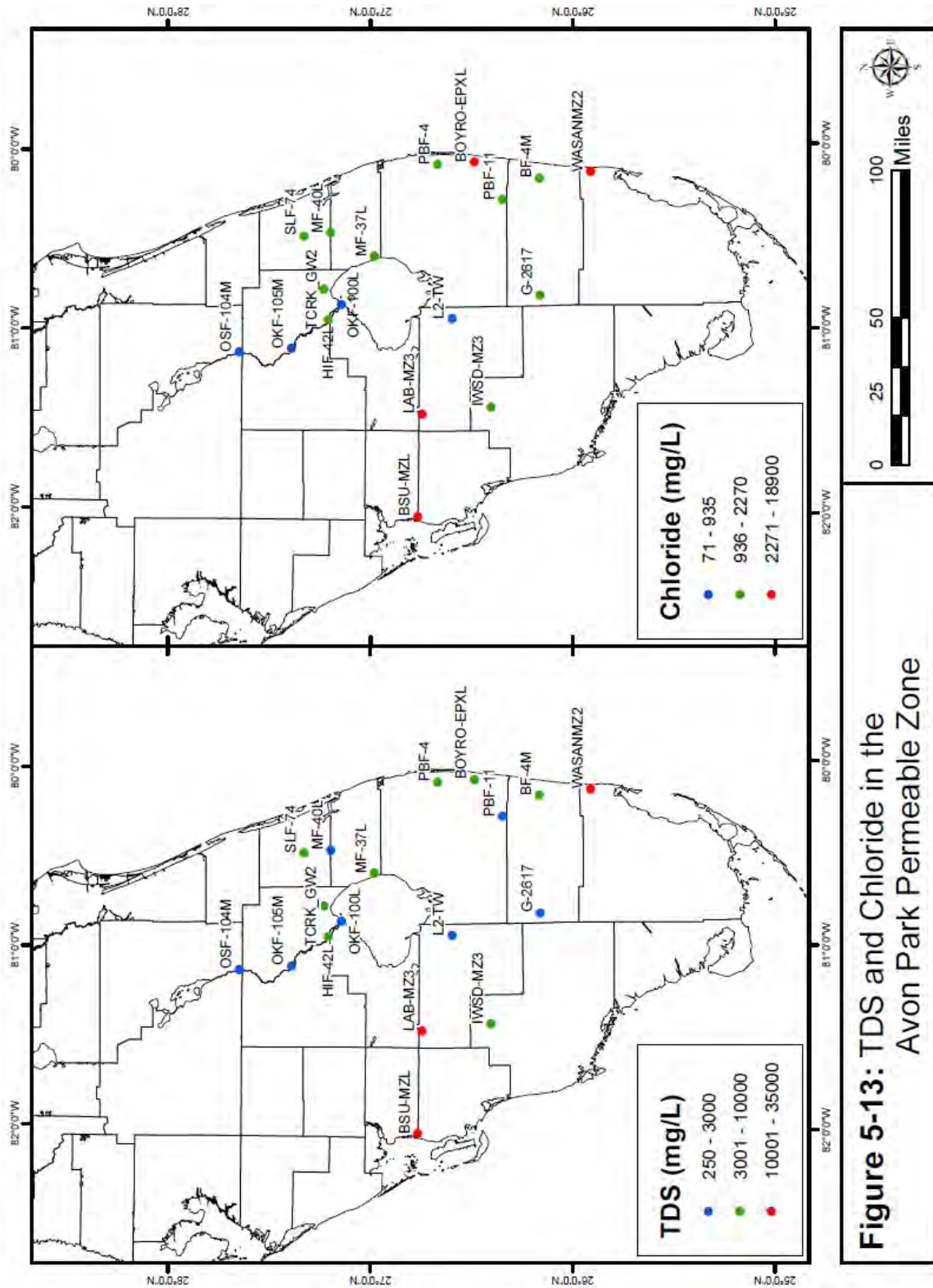
2 Native groundwater quality of the APPZ generally is warmer and more saline than the UFA, with  
 3 maximum concentrations of chloride and total dissolved solids approaching that of seawater (**Table 5-3**).  
 4 Lowest TDS and chloride concentrations occur in APPZ wells located in the Kissimmee Basin and in Palm  
 5 Beach County (**Figure 5-13**), closest to the recharge area. The greatest TDS and chloride concentrations  
 6 occur in wells where the APPZ is deepest, for example along an axis beneath the Caloosahatchee River in  
 7 western Hendry, Lee, and Charlotte Counties.

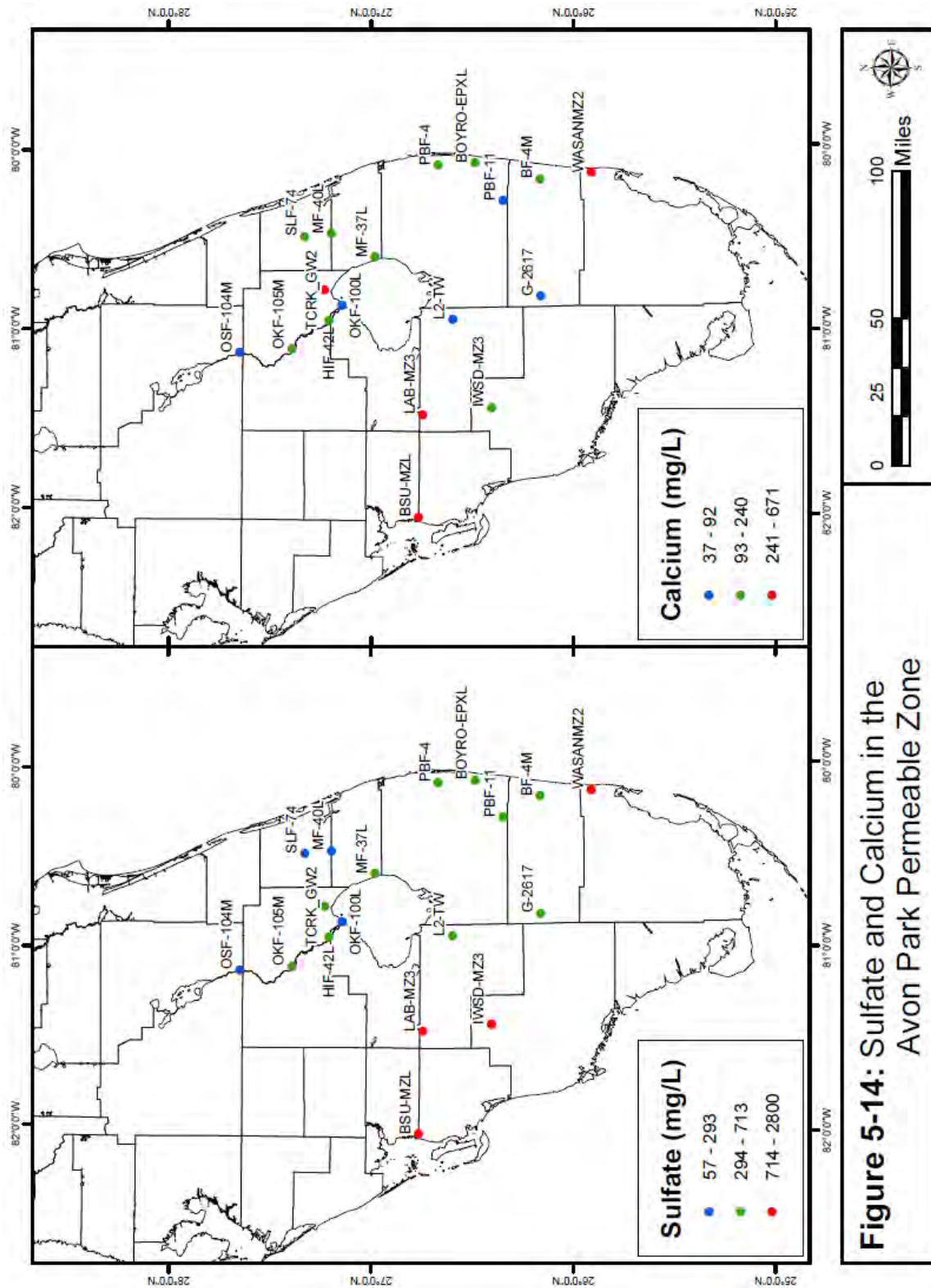
| Table 5-3 -- Descriptive Statistics of Major and Trace Inorganic Constituents in Native Avon Park Permeable Zone Samples. |                           |        |        |               |               |         |         |                   |
|---|---------------------------|--------|--------|---------------|---------------|---------|---------|-------------------|
| Constituent   | Unit                      | Mean   | Median | 25 percentile | 75 percentile | Minimum | Maximum | Number of Samples |
| <b>Major Inorganic Constituents</b>   |                           |        |        |               |               |         |         |                   |
| pH  | std units                 | 7.64   | 7.59   | 7.38          | 7.87          | 7.1     | 8.25    | 18                |
| Spec. Conductance   | µS/cm                     | 10,670 | 6,741  | 3,806         | 8,190         | 465     | 51,350  | 18                |
| Tot. Alkalinity   | mg/L as CaCO <sub>3</sub> | 113    | 111    | 89.4          | 133           | 71      | 195     | 18                |
| Temperature   | ° C                       | 26.9   | 27.1   | 24.4          | 29.4          | 19      | 32.6    | 18                |
| Calcium   | mg/L                      | 197    | 140    | 91.2          | 240           | 37      | 671     | 18                |
| Magnesium   | mg/L                      | 239    | 141    | 93.4          | 183           | 16      | 1,120   | 18                |
| Sodium  | mg/L                      | 1,855  | 907    | 557           | 1,281         | 40      | 10,450  | 18                |
| Potassium   | mg/L                      | 64.1   | 24.4   | 17.9          | 42.8          | 2.2     | 392     | 18                |
| Chloride  | mg/L                      | 3,420  | 1787   | 935           | 2,270         | 71      | 18,900  | 18                |
| Bromide   | mg/L                      | 0.9    | 0.75   |               |               | 0.27    | 1.8     | 3                 |
| Fluoride  | mg/L                      | 0.79   | 0.69   | 0.5           | 0.846         | 0.25    | 1.7     | 11                |
| Silica  | mg/L                      | 11.2   | 11.6   | 9.9           | 13.1          | 5.6     | 15.2    | 11                |
| Sulfate   | mg/L                      | 662    | 394    | 293           | 713           | 57      | 2,798   | 18                |
| Tot. Diss. Solids   | mg/L                      | 6,657  | 4,008  | 2295          | 4,948         | 257     | 34,160  | 18                |
| Sulfide   | mg/L                      | 2.1    | 1.5    |               |               | 0.5     | 3.9     | 5                 |
| Diss. Org. Carbon   | mg/L                      | 1.4    | 0.84   |               |               | 0.1     | 4.3     | 6                 |
| <b>Trace Inorganic Constituents</b>   |                           |        |        |               |               |         |         |                   |
| Arsenic   | µg/L                      | <1     |        |               |               | <1      | <1      | 4                 |
| Barium  | µg/L                      | 31.5   | 34.3   | 21.5          | 41            | 13.8    | 47      | 7                 |
| Cadmium   | µg/L                      |        |        |               |               | <0.24   |         | 3                 |
| Copper  | µg/L                      |        |        |               |               | < 1     | 2.4     | 4                 |
| Iron  | µg/L                      | 271    | 51     | 22.4          | 194           | 4.4     | 1,680   | 8                 |
| Lead  | µg/L                      |        |        |               |               | < 10    |         | 3                 |
| Manganese   | µg/L                      | 13.1   | 9.2    | 2.4           | 19.3          | 1.1     | 41.1    | 8                 |
| Mercury (ultrace)   | ng/L                      |        |        |               |               | < 0.15  | 0.98    | 2                 |
| Nickel  | µg/L                      |        |        |               |               | 1.1     |         | 1                 |
| Strontium   | µg/L                      | 18,191 | 13,200 | 10,630        | 28,417        | 7,975   | 29,600  | 9                 |
| Zinc  | µg/L                      |        |        |               |               | < 20    | 34      | 4                 |

Note: Values with "less than" (<) are the minimum detection limit for that constituent.

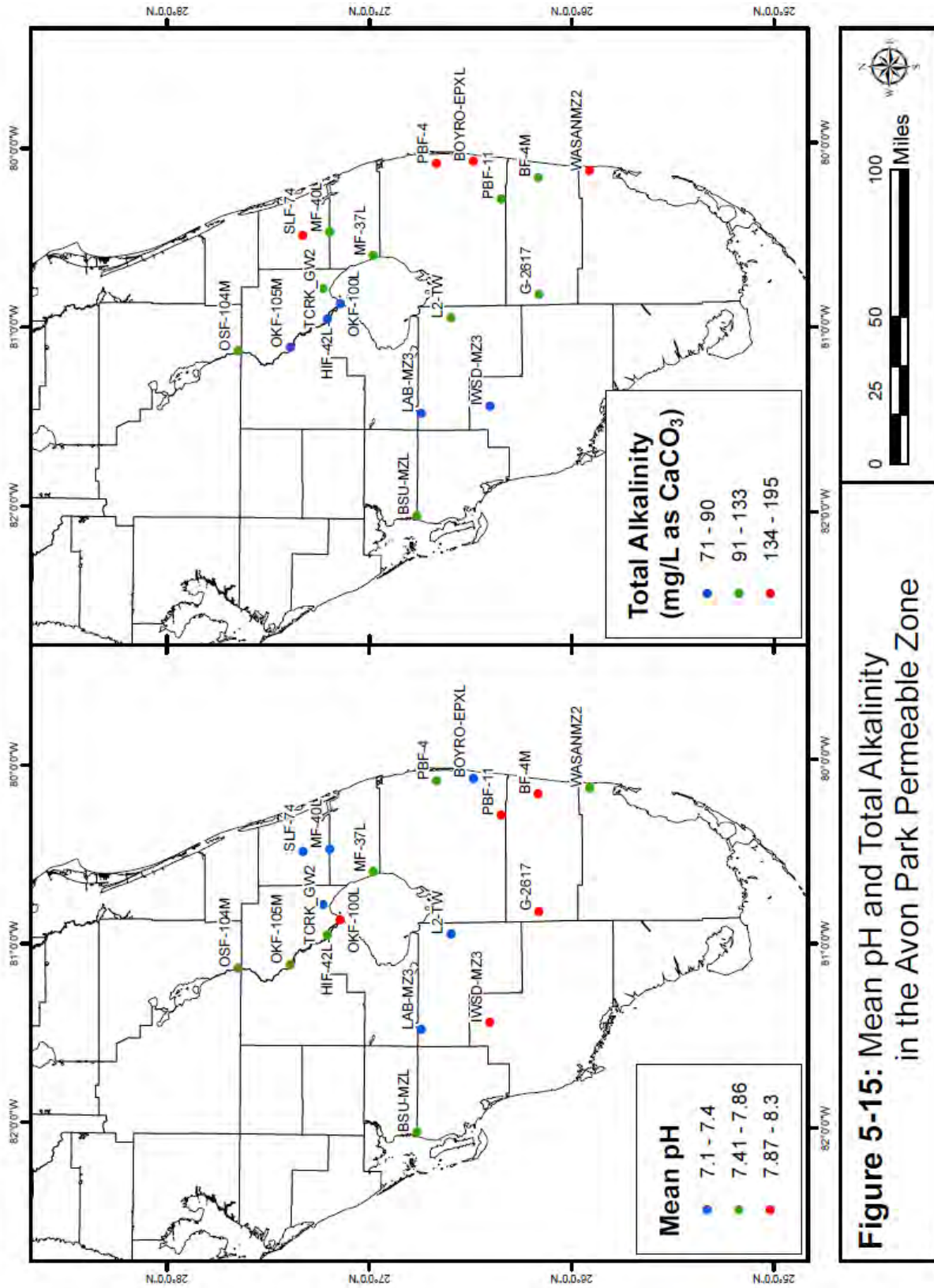
### 8 5.6.3.2 Sulfate

9 Sulfate concentration trends in the APPZ follow the same pattern shown by chloride and TDS, with  
 10 highest concentrations occurring where the APPZ is deepest, in Lee and Charlotte Counties (**Figure**  
 11 **5-14**). Gypsum and anhydrite (calcium sulfate minerals) are interbedded with, or occur as inter-granular  
 12 material with dolomites of the Avon Park Formation (Reese and Richardson, 2008). Dissolution of  
 13 calcium sulfate minerals results in greater sulfate concentrations in these samples.





**Figure 5-14: Sulfate and Calcium in the Avon Park Permeable Zone**



1 5.6.3.3. Calcium, Total Alkalinity, and pH

2 The APPZ occurs within permeable carbonate rock units of Eocene age. Reactions between  
 3 groundwater and carbonate rock will occur as groundwater flows away from the recharge area. The pH  
 4 of native APPZ groundwater is neutral to slightly alkaline throughout the ASR regional study area (**Figure**  
 5 **5-15**). Most APPZ groundwater samples show moderate concentrations of total alkalinity and calcium,  
 6 except where evaporates or seawater intrusion (Atlantic Coast) increase solute concentrations.

7 5.7 Geochemical Mixing Models to Evaluate Calcium Carbonate Dissolution

8 Surface water and native groundwater composition characteristics were defined in earlier sections of  
 9 this chapter. Surface water and native groundwater data serve as end-members for geochemical mixing  
 10 models. The USGS geochemical modeling code PHREEQC (v. 3.1.2, Parkhurst and Appelo, 2013) enables  
 11 simulation of a wide variety of geochemical reaction and transport scenarios, which will then be  
 12 compared to actual water-quality data obtained during cycle testing at KRASR.

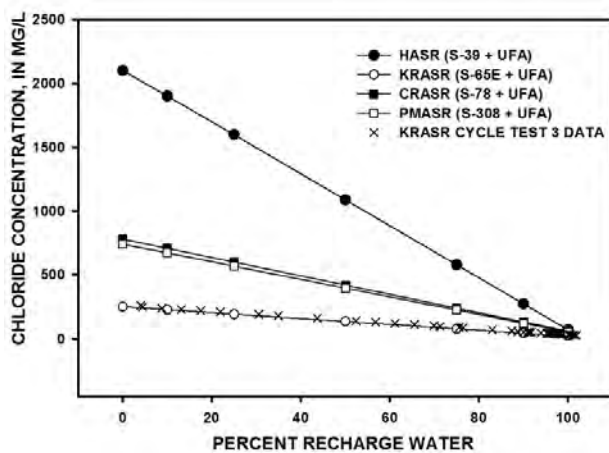


Figure 5-16 – Conservative mixing lines at four proposed CERP ASR systems.

Lines are based on chloride concentrations in simulated mixtures of surface water and native groundwater end-members. KRASR mixing line confirmed by cycle test 3 data from the 350-ft storage zone monitor well.

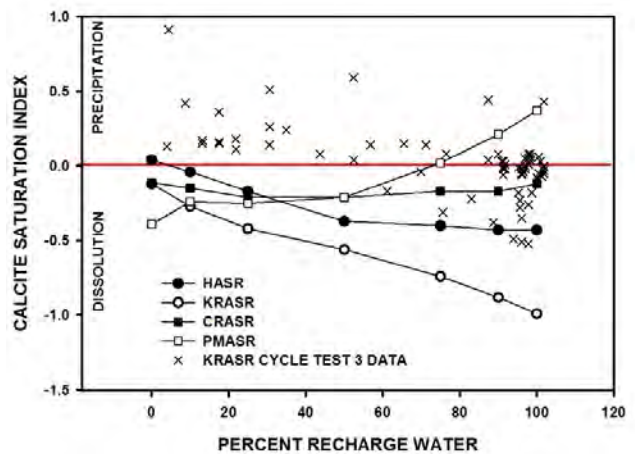


Figure 5-17 – Calcite saturation indices in simulated mixtures at four proposed CERP ASR systems.

Saturation indices were calculated for simulated mixtures of surface water and native groundwater end-members. Calcite saturation indices calculated from KRASR cycle test 3 data (X; 350-ft SZMW) are superimposed.

13 Geochemical mixing models can be developed by combining a range of proportions of two or more  
 14 compositional end members, so that component concentrations are reduced only by dilution of the  
 15 more concentrated end-member. Typically, chloride serves as the conservative tracer in such models.  
 16 **Figure 5-16** shows conservative mixing lines based on mixtures of representative surface water with

1 native groundwater from the Upper Floridan Aquifer at the four proposed CERP ASR systems. In this  
2 plot, steeper mixing lines indicate more saline groundwater end members. Surface water datasets are  
3 much larger than native groundwater datasets, so representative samples were chosen from each site.  
4 Each surface water sample had a chloride concentration close to the median value reported on **(Table**  
5 **5-1)**. Charge balance errors were calculated for samples and also simulated mixtures, and typically were  
6 below 4 percent at KRASR and PMASR. High charge balance error values in end member samples for  
7 CRASR (11 percent) and HASR (7 percent) result in greater uncertainty in slopes of the mixing lines for  
8 these systems in **Figure 5-16**. Measured chloride concentration data obtained from the 1,100-ft SZMW  
9 at KRASR during cycle test 3 also are plotted on **Figure 5-16**. The percent recharge component of each  
10 groundwater sample was calculated using a mixing model developed in PHREEQC.

11 Calcium carbonate dissolution and precipitation are indicated by negative or positive values of the  
12 calcite saturation index, respectively. Calcium carbonate solubility is not adequately described using a  
13 conservative mixing model because under-saturated recharge water reacts with limestone aquifer  
14 material as it flows through the storage zone. Calcite saturation indices calculated using recharge,  
15 storage, and recovery data from cycle test 3 data at KRASR differ from those predicted by the  
16 conservative mixing model **(Figure 5-17)**, confirming that calcium carbonate dissolution is a non-  
17 conservative process.

18 Time-series presentations of calcite saturation indices calculated from cycle test 3 data at KRASR provide  
19 a better depiction of limestone dissolution **(Figure 5-18)**. KRASR recharge water shows the lowest  
20 carbonate alkalinity values, so calcium carbonate dissolution will be more extensive here compared to  
21 other proposed CERP ASR systems having higher alkalinity recharge water. As expected, negative calcite  
22 saturation indices in recharge phase samples show that dissolution occurs throughout the storage zone,  
23 even 1,100-ft away from the ASR well. Less negative and even positive saturation indices at this location  
24 suggest that recharge water is equilibrating with limestone as it flows through permeable zones. During  
25 storage, saturation indices are negative especially at 200 to 300 days into the cycle. This episode of  
26 dissolution could result from microbial metabolism of organic carbon and production of carbon dioxide.  
27 During recovery, nearly all saturation indices are positive as native water mixes with recharge water that  
28 has equilibrated with limestone.

29

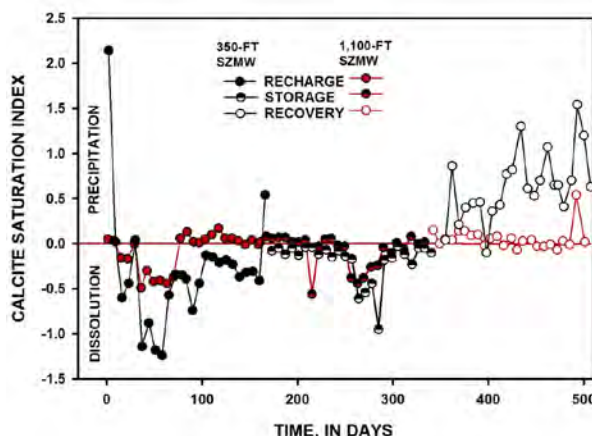


Figure 5-18 -- Time series plot showing calcite saturation indices in samples from two storage zone monitor wells (350-ft and 1,100-ft) calculated for cycle test 3 at KRASR.

- 1 Dissolution of limestone during recharge is beneficial from an operational perspective. Permeability is
- 2 enhanced, so that recharge water can be pumped into the aquifer at lower wellhead pressures. If ASR
- 3 cycle tests have a storage phase that is of long duration (one year or more), effects of limestone
- 4 dissolution may only be temporary because stored water will equilibrate with limestone in the aquifer.

## 5 5.8 Evaluating Arsenic Mobilization on a Regional Scale

- 6 Introduction of oxygenated surface water into the FAS during the recharge phase of an ASR cycle test
- 7 changes the geochemical environment of the storage zone, and drives reactions between water and
- 8 rock. It is now well known that pyrite, a common iron sulfide mineral in marine limestones, will oxidize
- 9 during the recharge phase, subsequently releasing arsenic that is bound within the mineral lattice (Price
- 10 and Pichler, 2006; Arthur et al. 2007) Arsenic is then transported in groundwater, sometimes at
- 11 concentrations that exceed the SDWA criterion of 10 µg/L. In the following sections, the potential for
- 12 arsenic mobilization will be considered on a regional scale using lithological and geochemical
- 13 characteristics of storage zone lithologies and native FAS groundwater.

### 14 5.8.1 Arsenic Distribution in Marine Limestones of the FAS

- 15 Several studies were initiated within the ASR Regional Study (Arthur et al. 2007; Fischler and Arthur,
- 16 2013) or by others in Florida (Price and Pichler, 2006; Pichler et al., 2011) to quantify the range of
- 17 arsenic concentrations in marine limestone formations that include the FAS. If arsenic-rich lithologies
- 18 could be identified, perhaps those intervals could be excluded from the storage zone through optimized
- 19 well construction, as was done in Izbicki et al. (2008). In that study, discrete permeable zones
- 20 characterized by elevated arsenic concentrations were identified using borehole flowmeter analyses.
- 21 Because these zones were in the deepest portion of the well, backfilling of the open interval to exclude
- 22 the arsenic-rich permeable zone resulted in lower overall arsenic concentration in produced water from
- 23 that well. Similarly, if arsenic-rich lithologies were identified in representative core samples, it is
- 24 possible that they could be excluded either by limiting well depth or extending the casing depth.



1 Detailed bulk rock analyses of samples from the Lower Hawthorn Group (Arcadia Formation), Suwannee  
2 Limestone, Ocala Limestone, and Avon Park Formation showed that the occurrence of arsenic in these  
3 marine limestones is ubiquitous, and ranges between 0.6 mg/kg and 10.5 mg/kg, which is comparable to  
4 global crustal average of 2.6 mg/kg (Pichler et al., 2011). They noted that rock samples showing  
5 hydrous ferric oxide, organic matter, clay minerals, fracture surfaces, or moldic porosity often showed  
6 greater arsenic concentration (maximum 69 mg/kg). Arsenic concentrations in pyrite minerals within  
7 the limestones (quantified by electron probe microanalysis methods) were much greater, ranging  
8 between 100 mg/kg and 11,000 mg/kg, with greatest values associated with pyrite framboids in  
9 fractures and voids (Pichler et al., 2011). Fischler and Arthur (2013) characterized lithologies and  
10 mineralogy (including pyrite occurrence) in of a smaller set of cores and rock cuttings from the same  
11 formations at HASR and KRASR. They concluded that the occurrence of pyrite in the samples was  
12 pervasive, and no apparent trend existed in relation to core, ASR study area, or lithostratigraphic unit.

13 Similar conclusions were reached by Arthur et al., (2007) using a different approach – analysis of  
14 leachate from sequential extraction of representative rock samples, under either oxic or sulfate-  
15 reducing redox conditions that mimic conditions of an ASR cycle test. Rock samples were obtained  
16 from the Lower Hawthorn Group (Arcadia Formation), Suwannee Limestone, Ocala Limestone, and Avon  
17 Park Formation from CRASR, KRASR, PMASR, HASR, and MHASR. In these experiments, arsenic was  
18 released during oxic phases (resembling recharge) in concentrations ranging between 1 and 816 µg/L,  
19 with greatest values in Avon Park Formation samples. Concentrations in rock leachate are not directly  
20 related to groundwater concentrations during an ASR cycle test because water:rock surface area ratios  
21 (for example) differ between bench- and field-scale experiments. Bench-scale leaching experiments did  
22 confirm the release of arsenic, as well as molybdenum and antimony, from lithologies that serve as ASR  
23 storage zones in south Florida.

24 The results of these investigations indicate that arsenic mobilization is likely to be an issue at any ASR  
25 system in Florida due to the pervasive occurrence of pyrite as a trace mineral in the carbonate  
26 lithologies of the FAS. Fortunately, this conclusion does not portend the end of ASR systems in Florida.  
27 An understanding of geochemical and hydrological factors controlling arsenic transport and fate has  
28 improved during the last decade, so that arsenic exceedances can be mitigated by ASR operations, and  
29 regulatory flexibility (**Appendix A**). Geochemical factors are discussed in the following section.

## 30 5.8.2 Potential for Arsenic Mobilization in the FAS of South Florida

31 Many potable water ASR systems in Florida fell out of regulatory compliance when the SDWA criterion  
32 for arsenic declined from 50 µg/L to 10 µg/L in 2006 (2005 for Florida regulations). Many water utilities  
33 previously investing in ASR systems decided that the risk of non-compliance was too great, so chose to  
34 manage water supplies using reservoirs or other infrastructure. This regulatory change also spurred  
35 more investigations to evaluate arsenic mobilization at the field scale at both potable water and CERP  
36 ASR systems.

1 The pattern of arsenic mobilizations differs when cycle test data from potable versus CERP ASR systems  
2 is compared. These patterns differ primarily due to source water quality characteristics. Potable water  
3 ASR systems recharge drinking water, which typically is oxidic, very low TDS, and shows very low  
4 concentrations of iron and organic carbon. Drinking water is often polished by lime softening prior to  
5 distribution, a process that lowers most major inorganic constituent concentrations. In contrast, CERP  
6 ASR systems recharge lightly treated surface water, which is oxidic, and shows fairly high concentrations  
7 of iron, organic carbon, and phosphorus (**Table 5-1**). These constituents in particular serve as nutrients  
8 and electron donors or acceptors to stimulate microbe-mediated geochemical reactions in the storage  
9 zone. The result of these geochemical reactions is that arsenic is sequestered in a newly formed iron  
10 sulfide solid during storage and recovery (Mirecki et al., 2012). During cycle tests 2 through 4 at KRASR,  
11 concentrations of arsenic in recovered water were below the 10 µg/L criterion.

12 The CERP ASR system KRASR served as the “applied research” system for the CERP ASR pilot project  
13 (USACE and SFWMD, 2013). A large water quality dataset was amassed during the four cycle tests  
14 completed at this facility, and interpretations of arsenic transport and fate were developed mostly from  
15 this dataset. Controls on arsenic mobility will be described below, and the validity of extrapolating these  
16 conditions to other CERP ASR systems in south Florida will be evaluated.

#### 17 5.8.2.1 Controls on Arsenic Mobility During ASR Cycle Tests at KRASR

18 Arsenic is mobilized during the recharge phase at KRASR by pyrite oxidation, similar to most other ASR  
19 systems in Florida, regardless of source water composition. Finely disseminated pyrite ( $\text{FeS}_2$ ) is oxidized  
20 by dissolved oxygen (DO) in the source water, releasing arsenic (also molybdenum) that was co-  
21 precipitated when the pyrite mineral was formed. However, the pyrite oxidation reaction only occurs  
22 over a time and length of flowpath in the aquifer where dissolved oxygen can persist. In-situ  
23 measurements (Sea-Bird water quality probe at approximately -600 ft depth in the 350-ft SZMW)  
24 measured DO and ORP hourly during the recharge and storage phases of cycle test 1 (**Figure 5-19**).  
25 During recharge, DO was detected at low but measureable (< 0.2 mg/L) concentrations in wellhead  
26 samples from the 1,100-ft SZMW (USACE and SFWMD, 2013).

27 Probe measurements indicate that DO does not persist after recharge pumping ends (**Figure 5-19**). DO  
28 concentrations decrease rapidly at the onset of storage, showing a half-life of 25 hours during cycle test  
29 1 (Mirecki et al., 2012). Therefore, the redox conditions do exist for pyrite oxidation, but they do not  
30 persist for very long after recharge ends. DO data for potable water ASR systems are not common, but a  
31 similar half-life (1 day) was estimated for decreasing DO concentrations at the Fort Myers-Winkler  
32 Avenue potable water ASR system (Mirecki, 2004). Even though DO does not persist beyond the  
33 recharge phase, the temporary oxidic condition is sufficient to promote the release of arsenic at  
34 concentrations that exceed 10 µg/L in the aquifer.

35

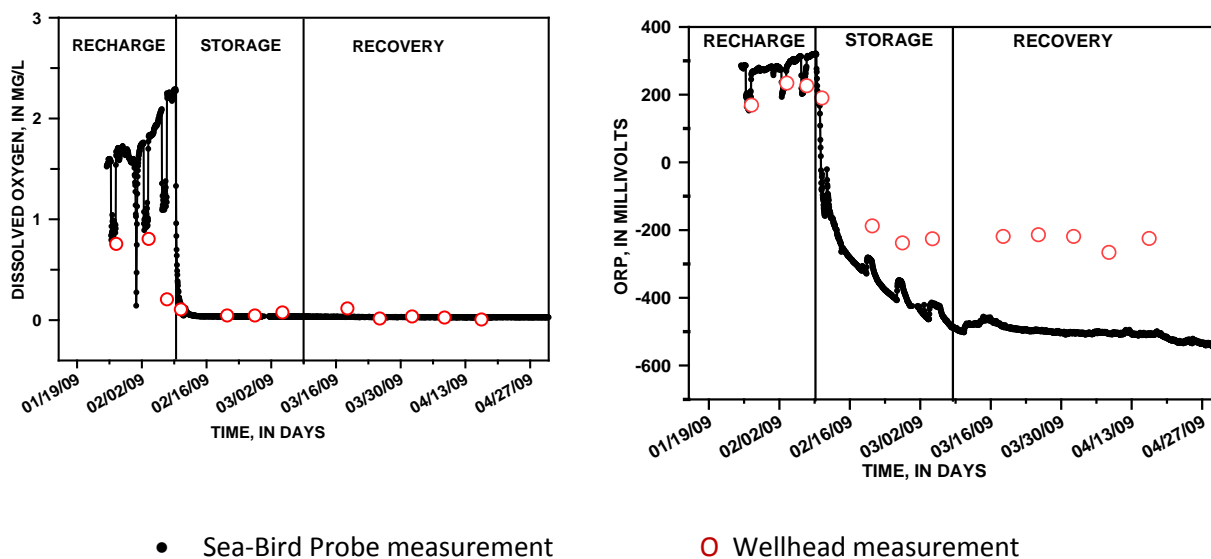


Figure 5-19 -- In-situ measurements of dissolved oxygen and ORP in the 350-ft SZMW during cycle test 1 at KRASR.

1 The aquifer redox environment evolves during the storage phase. As the storage phase proceeds, ORP  
 2 continues to decline to values that are more negative than would be expected only from the absence of  
 3 oxygen. Redox conditions in the storage zone evolve to sulfate-reducing conditions, as suggested by the  
 4 significantly more negative (-200 to -400 mV) ORP values (**Figure 5-19**), and increasing concentrations of  
 5 dissolved sulfide (Mirecki et al., 2012). A sulfate-reducing redox environment is mediated by native  
 6 microorganisms, which couple sulfate- and ferric-iron reduction with organic carbon oxidation, both  
 7 readily available constituents in mixed source water and native FAS groundwater. The products of  
 8 microbe-mediated reactions are dissolved sulfide and an iron sulfide solid phase (Mirecki et al., 2012).  
 9 Arsenic will co-precipitate with this stable iron sulfide phase, effectively removing arsenic from  
 10 groundwater. Lisle (2014) and work summarized in **Chapter 6** describes the microbiological  
 11 environment of the FAS in greater detail.

12 Arsenic trends defined from wellhead sample data at the ASR well, and the 350-ft and 1,100-ft SZMWs  
 13 are shown in **Figure 5-20**. The greatest arsenic concentrations were measured in all wells during cycle  
 14 test 1. Comparison of arsenic trends in the 350-ft and 1,100-ft SZMWs show that a pulse of arsenic is  
 15 mobilized through the storage zone during recharge. Most likely, arsenic is transported beyond the  
 16 farthest SZMW (1,100-ft at 5 MGD pumping rate).

17 However, although arsenic is mobilized during recharge, declining arsenic concentrations during storage  
 18 in SZMW samples indicate that geochemical reactions attenuate arsenic concentrations under static  
 19 conditions. Samples obtained throughout the wellfield and at the ASR well during the recovery phases  
 20 of cycle tests 2 through 4 show arsenic concentrations are always below the 10 µg/L criterion at the  
 21 onset of recovery. Because each cycle test concluded with approximately 100 percent recovery by  
 22 volume, it is unlikely that arsenic remained as a dissolved constituent in the aquifer.

1

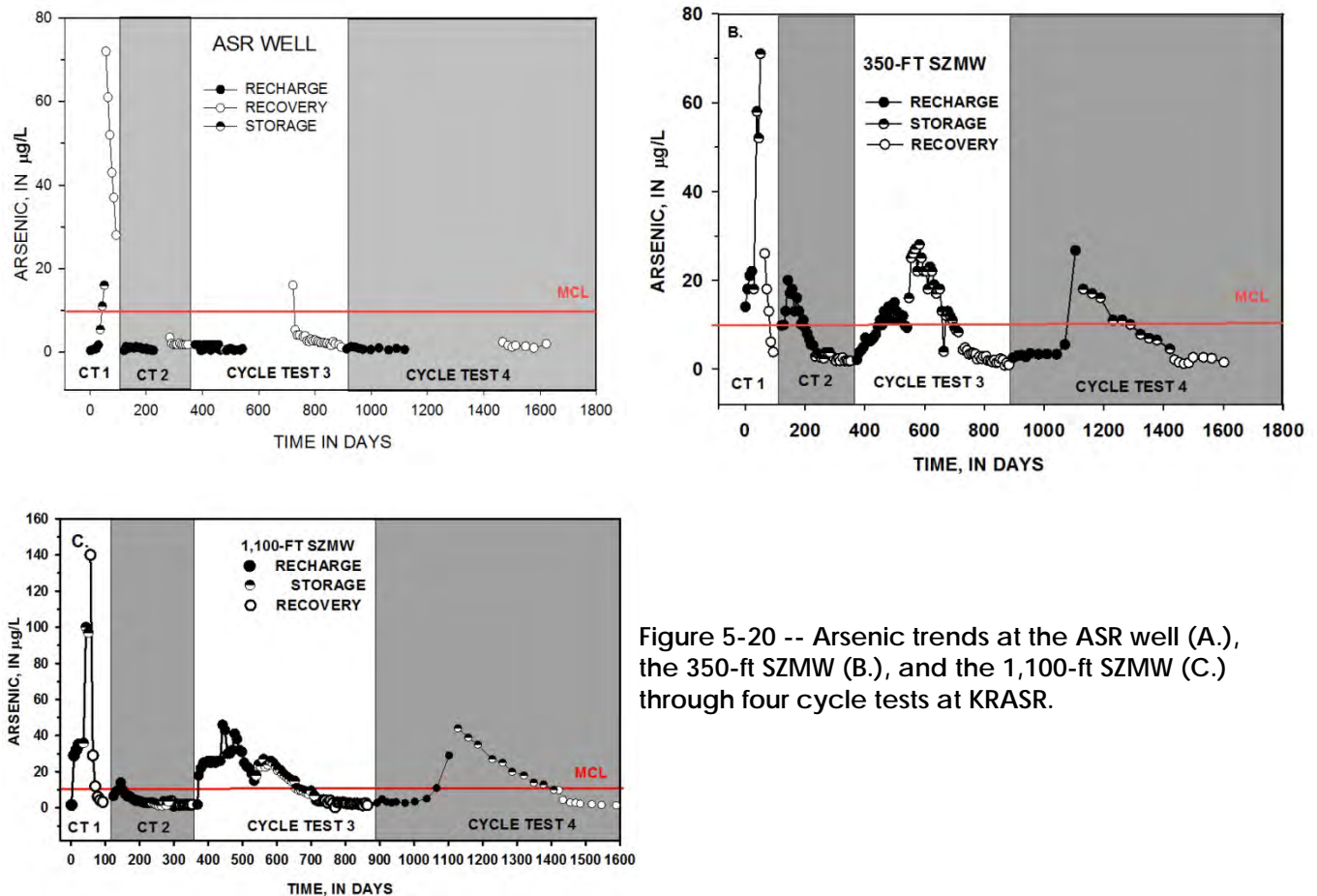


Figure 5-20 -- Arsenic trends at the ASR well (A.), the 350-ft SZMW (B.), and the 1,100-ft SZMW (C.) through four cycle tests at KRASR.

2 This reaction sequence differs from storage zone reactions at potable water ASR systems. Because  
 3 drinking water has little to no iron (generally less than 30 µg/L) and organic carbon (less than 0.1 mg/L),  
 4 the constituents that drive the microbe-mediated reactions defined above in the aquifer are absent.  
 5 Consequently, iron and arsenic released during pyrite oxidation simply remain as dissolved complexes in  
 6 groundwater. The only way to diminish arsenic concentrations at potable ASR systems is through  
 7 dilution, advective transport (recovery), or removal of pyrite by aquifer pretreatment or extensive  
 8 oxidation. Declining arsenic concentrations were observed over sequential cycle tests at the Tampa-  
 9 Rome Avenue Park ASR system. Here, ozone-treated water is stored in the UFA. High concentrations of  
 10 DO in the source water effectively oxidized the pyrite over the course of 10 cycle tests. Each cycle test  
 11 was identical with regard to volume recharged and recovery, so that each new recharge volume of  
 12 water repeatedly occupied the same permeable zones (CH2M Hill, 2007c).

### 13 5.8.2.2 Arsenic Mobilization at Proposed CERP ASR System Locations

14 A process for minimizing arsenic concentrations in the aquifer was defined using water quality data  
 15 obtained during four cycle tests at the KRASR system (Mirecki et al., 2012). Because the KRASR system

1 source water differs from that of a potable water system, the patterns of arsenic mobilization differ  
2 when the two systems are compared. A remaining question is whether the arsenic control process  
3 defined at the KRASR system is applicable to other CERP ASR systems that store lightly treated surface  
4 water in permeable zones of the UFA or APPZ. The approach to evaluate arsenic mobilization and  
5 control process on a regional basis is predicated on the following assumptions:

- 6 • Pyrite occurs as a trace mineral in all marine limestone units that include the UFA and  
7 APPZ. Therefore, pyrite oxidation and arsenic release during the recharge phase is  
8 expected (**Section 5.8.1**).
- 9 • Source water quality characteristics that promote arsenic control in the aquifer are  
10 moderately high iron and organic carbon concentrations (**Section 5.1, Table 5-1**).
- 11 • The native aquifer is characterized by a sulfate-reducing redox environment

12 The potential for arsenic control at other proposed CERP ASR systems is based on the similarity of  
13 source and groundwater characteristics compared to those at KRASR.

14 **Source Water Characteristics.** Surface water quality characteristics of major sources of recharge water  
15 for ASR systems were defined earlier in this chapter. It is expected that the major sources will be Lake  
16 Okeechobee, the Kissimmee and Caloosahatchee Rivers, and the St. Lucie Canal. All of these surface  
17 water sources show relatively high concentrations of TOC (**Section 5.1, Table 5-1; Figure 5-1**) and iron  
18 (**Section 5.1, Table 5-1; Figure 5-3**). The exception is for TOC and iron concentrations in the  
19 Caloosahatchee River, because the dataset consists of too few samples (n=5, n=9 respectively). Median  
20 TOC concentrations range between 13 mg/L and 22 mg/L (KRASR 18 mg/L). Median iron concentrations  
21 are more variable, ranging between 81 µg/L and 991 µg/L (KRASR 347 µg/L). All source waters (pending  
22 additional data from the Caloosahatchee River) have adequate iron and carbon to initiate geochemical  
23 controls on arsenic in the aquifer.

24 **Redox Environment of the Aquifer.** The redox environment of the native UFA and APPZ was estimated  
25 using RFGW native groundwater quality data applied to the Redox Processes Workbook spreadsheet of  
26 Jurgens et al. (2009). Concentrations of major electron acceptors that are needed for microbiological  
27 metabolism (DO, nitrate, manganese, iron, sulfate) and sulfide are entered, and a redox environment is  
28 assigned based on their algorithm and threshold criteria for each electron acceptor concentration.  
29 Electron acceptor concentrations and redox environment interpretation are presented for a subset of  
30 the RFGW dataset (**Table 5-4**). Only samples having sulfide plus all 5 electron acceptor concentrations  
31 were used in this analysis.

32 All groundwater samples have moderate to high concentrations of sulfate and show measureable  
33 sulfide, indicating that the process of sulfate reduction has occurred at some point in the aquifer. Of all  
34 samples analyzed, over half are interpreted as a “suboxic” redox environment, which indicates low DO  
35 conditions but additional data are required to define the dominant redox process. Generally, these  
36 samples are depleted in all electron acceptors except sulfate. If microbial metabolism is stimulated  
37 under these conditions, the aquifer evolves to become sulfate-reducing (Mirecki et al., 2012). The

1 remaining samples do indicate sulfate-reduction, or mixed sulfate- and ferric iron-reduction are the  
2 dominant redox processes that characterize the confined portions of the UFA in south Florida. Sulfate  
3 reduction is one of the metabolic reactions that is energetically favorable for native microorganisms in  
4 the UFA (Lisle, 2014) and **Section 6.2.3**

5 **Conclusions.** It is reasonable to extrapolate the geochemical reactions that control arsenic mobility  
6 defined at KRASR can be applied to most proposed CERP ASR systems in other basins of south Florida.  
7 Relevant source (or surface) water characteristics, primarily iron and organic carbon, have ranges of  
8 concentrations that overlap those defined at KRASR. Native aquifer redox conditions in the UFA and  
9 also the APPZ also are similar to those at KRASR, in that they represent suboxic or sulfate-reducing redox  
10 environments. The native redox environment was characterized as suboxic prior to the initiation of  
11 cycle tests at KRASR, but it evolved to sulfate-reducing conditions during the storage and recovery  
12 phases of each cycle test, thus enabling co-precipitation of arsenic in a newly formed stable iron sulfide  
13 solid.

Table 5-4 -- Calculation of Dominant Redox Process in the Native UFA and APPZ. Using the method of Jurgens et al. (2009).

| Sample ID | Location                         | Aquifer | Dissolved O <sub>2</sub> , in mg/L | Nitrate NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> , in µg/L | Manganese Mn <sup>2+</sup> in µg/L | Ferrous Iron Fe <sup>2+</sup> in µg/L | Sulfate SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> , in mg/L | Sulfide (sum of H <sub>2</sub> S, HS <sup>-</sup> , S <sup>2-</sup> ), in mg/L | Redox Assignment       |                         |
|-----------|----------------------------------|---------|------------------------------------|--|------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|--|------------------------|-------------------------|
|           |                                  |         |                                    |  |                                    |                                       |   |  | General Redox Category | Redox Process           |
| DF-4      | Miami-Dade Co., Krome Ave.       | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.021  | 16                                 | 27                                    | 510   | 0.81   | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |
| ENP-100   | Miami-Dade Co., Everglades NP    | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.023  | 5.8                                | 180                                   | 470   | 1.1  | Anoxic                 | SO <sub>4</sub>         |
| G-2618    | Broward Co. Alligator Alley      | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.013  | 1.4                                | 27                                    | 540   | 1.9  | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |
| PBF-3     | Palm Beach Co. Lake Lytal        | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.078  | 14                                 | 200                                   | 460   | 2.2  | Anoxic                 | SO <sub>4</sub>         |
| PBF-10    | Palm Beach Co., HASR             | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.013  | 1.4                                | 27                                    | 900   | 2.8  | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |
| PBF-7U    | Palm Beach Co., HASR             | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.013  | 17                                 | 390                                   | 520   | 2.5  | Anoxic                 | SO <sub>4</sub>         |
| MF-52     | Martin Co. at C-44 Reservoir     | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.013  | 5.3                                | 190                                   | 230   | 3.9  | Anoxic                 | SO <sub>4</sub>         |
| EXPM-1    | Martin Co., PMASR                | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.01   | 2                                  | 48                                    | 260   | 2.9  | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |
| SLF-74    | St. Lucie Co. at C-24 canal      | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.013  | 1.4                                | 360                                   | 220   | 3.5  | Anoxic                 | SO <sub>4</sub>         |
| OKF-42    | Paradise Run ASR, Okeechobee Co. | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.049  | 1.4                                | 94                                    | 110   | 4.3  | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |
| EXKR-1    | Okeechobee Co., KRASR            | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.1  | 3.8                                | 28                                    | 200   | 0.8  | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |
| OSF-100   | Osceola Co. Intersession City    | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.007  | 8.1                                | 52                                    | 64  | 0.5  | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |
| OSF-66    | Osceola Co. FL Turnpike          | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.02   | 1.4                                | 27                                    | 93  | 0.66   | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |
| LAB-MZ1   | Hendry Co. Labelle               | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.007  | 15                                 | 39                                    | 370   | 1.3  | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |
| L2-PW2    | Hendry Co. L2 Basin              | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.007  | 3.5                                | 59                                    | 330   | 1.4  | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |
| EXBRY-1   | CRASR, Hendry Co.                | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.1  | 10                                 | 110                                   | 250   | 1.9  | Anoxic                 | SO <sub>4</sub>         |
| I75-MZ1   | Collier Co. I-75                 | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.013  | 7.7                                | 27                                    | 480   | 0.77   | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |
| IWSD-MZ2  | Collier Co. Immokalee            | UFA     | 0                                  | 0.026  | 17                                 | 375                                   | 500   | 0.5  | Mixed(anoxic)          | Fe(III)-SO <sub>4</sub> |
| G-2617    | Broward Co. Alligator Alley      | APPZ    | 0                                  | 0.013  | 31                                 | 27                                    | 350   | 0.43   | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |
| PBF-11    | Palm Beach Co., HASR             | APPZ    | 0                                  | 0.013  | 15                                 | 270                                   | 340   | 1.5  | Anoxic                 | SO <sub>4</sub>         |
| TCRK-GW2  | Taylor Creek ASR, Okeechobee Co. | APPZ    | 0                                  | 0.013  | 7.5                                | 46                                    | 280   | 2.6  | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |
| BSU-MZL   | Charlotte Co. Burnt Store        | APPZ    | 0                                  | 0.016  | 44                                 | 3400                                  | 3000  | 0.5  | Mixed(anoxic)          | Fe(III)-SO <sub>4</sub> |
| LAB-MZ3   | Hendry Co. Labelle               | APPZ    | 0                                  | 0.042  | 17                                 | 27                                    | 1700  | 0.87   | Suboxic                | Suboxic                 |

## 6 Fate of Microorganisms and Pathogens During ASR Cycle Testing

Both the ASR Issue Team (1999) and the NRC (2002) recognized that bacteria and pathogens in surface (or recharge) water could compromise native groundwater quality during ASR cycle testing. They recommended sampling and studies to evaluate bacteria and pathogen transport and survival in the aquifer. In addition, compliance with the UIC permit for cycle testing at KRASR and HASR required sampling for a suite of microorganisms (coliforms, enterococci, *Clostridium perfringens*, *Cryptosporidium parvum*, and *Giardia lamblia*) at the ASR wellhead and monitor wells to quantify microbe survival after passage through the UV disinfection system and in the aquifer. Data and interpretations from cycle testing at KRASR and HASR were discussed extensively in USACE and SFWMD (2013), and are summarized in **Section 2.4.4**. The following text summarizes field and laboratory studies that were conducted to quantify microbe and pathogen survival in the FAS. Due to funding limitations, evaluation of microbe transport in the FAS was not initiated.

Studies described in this chapter were conducted to satisfy three objectives: 1) to characterize microbial communities in native FAS groundwater; 2) to examine how microorganisms can alter geochemistry within the FAS; and 3) to quantify survival of surface water microorganisms and pathogens under aquifer conditions. Due to state and Federal regulatory constraints, it is not yet possible to conduct in-situ aquifer studies of microbe and pathogen survival with live microorganisms, similar to those conducted at Australian ASR systems (Pavelic et al., 1998; Gordon and Toze, 2003). In the future, perhaps regulatory approval can be obtained to conduct in-situ experiments.

### 6.1 Bench-Scale Study of Fecal Indicator Bacteria, Bacteriophage, and Protozoan Survival in Florida Surface and Groundwater

A bench-scale study (John and Rose, 2004; 2005; **Appendix D**) investigated the survival of groups of microorganisms that are used as fecal indicator bacteria (FIB) under different water quality conditions. Microbes were incubated under ranges of temperature and total dissolved solids concentrations in representative raw and sterilized surface and groundwaters. The survival (or conversely, inactivation) rates of FIBs were determined in these different aqueous matrices. This research sought to fill data gaps in published literature on environmental conditions that affect survival and inactivation of a suite of microorganisms routinely used to assess the microbiological quality of surface and groundwater. The study was limited to laboratory type (bench-scale) experiments, simulating conditions that occur in the aquifer, although with some simplifications and assumptions.

Two branches of laboratory investigations were performed for this project. Inactivation studies were conducted in artificial water (Instant Ocean; Aquarium Systems Inc., Mentor OH) matrices to isolate the effects of temperature and total dissolved solids (TDS) on test microorganisms. Inactivation studies were conducted in natural surface and ground waters that were either raw or pasteurized, to isolate the effects of temperature and native microbe community on test microorganisms.



1 Three groups of microorganisms evaluated: (1) two types of FIBs (fecal coliform and enterococci); (2)  
2 three types of FIB phages (DNA coliphage, F+ RNA coliphage, and PRD-1); and (3) two pathogenic  
3 encysted protozoan parasites, *Cryptosporidium parvum* and *Giardia lamblia*. Bacteriophages are viruses  
4 that infect bacteria. The PRD-1 is a large phage that infects *Salmonella* bacteria, and has been used as a  
5 tracer of septic tank contamination due to its moderate ability to be transported in aquifer  
6 environments (USEPA, 2006a). The coliphages serve as a tracer of fecal contamination in source water  
7 as cited by the Groundwater Rule of the SDWA (USEPA, 2006b).

8 Bench-scale microcosm experiments were performed to evaluate survival of this suite of microbial  
9 indicators of water quality over time in water samples held at 5° C, 22° C, and 30° C, and TDS  
10 concentrations of 200, 500, 1000, and 3000 mg/L. The duration of these experiments was 28 days.  
11 To compare the relative effects of factors such as TDS and temperature, or in natural water trials water  
12 type and pasteurization treatment effects, a single comparative statistic was necessary for analysis of  
13 variance (ANOVA) tests. In the scientific literature there are typically two ways of analyzing microbial  
14 inactivation data. The first method is to plot the decrease in numbers of microorganisms over time and  
15 determining the slope of a regression curve. This approach defines a first-order regression model, in  
16 which inactivation rates ( $k$ ;  $\log_{10} \text{d}^{-1}$ ) are expressed as a decrease in the number of microorganisms per  
17 unit time. The second method is to express the decrease in the number of microorganisms in units of  
18 log-reductions or as a ratio or percentage. For example, the EPA regulatory criterion for public drinking  
19 water systems is to reduce the surface water concentration of *Giardia lamblia* in the finished drinking  
20 water by 3-logs (i.e., a  $3\text{-log}_{10}$  reduction) or by 99.9 percent of its original concentration.

### 21 6.1.1 Results of Inactivation Experiments in Artificial Waters

22 Results of inactivation studies in artificial water show a statistically significant increase in first-order  
23 inactivation rates for all microorganisms except PRD-1 when temperature increased from 5°C to 30°C  
24 (John and Rose, 2004; 2005; **Appendix D**). There was no statistically significant change in first-order  
25 inactivation rates for any microorganism when TDS concentrations varied between 200 and 1,000 mg/L.  
26 When TDS concentrations increase to 3,000 mg/L, a statistically significant increase in first-order  
27 inactivation rate was observed for enterococci and F+ RNA coliphage. However, this effect was also  
28 confounded by trends in temperature for F+ RNA coliphage, such that survival was longer at higher TDS  
29 concentrations but a lower temperature of 5° C.

30 The dataset for enterococci inactivation rates was difficult to interpret because trends between  
31 inactivation rate versus temperature or TDS concentration were not linear. Inactivation rates on  
32 average were greatest at a TDS concentration of 1,000 mg/L but decreased at 3,000 mg/L. Although  
33 lower temperature (5°C) decreased inactivation rate, higher incubation temperatures (22°C and 30°C)  
34 showed similar 99 percent (2-log) inactivation rates. The similarity between results at 22°C and 30°C  
35 incubation temperature suggests that the increase in inactivation rate reaches a maximum toward  
36 higher temperatures for enterococci.

## 1 6.1.2 Results of Inactivation Experiments in Natural Waters

2 Surface water and FAS groundwater samples obtained from two locations in Florida were utilized for  
3 natural water inactivation studies (John and Rose, 2004). Surface water samples were obtained from  
4 the Bill Evers (Manatee County, FL) and Clear Lake (Palm Beach County, FL) reservoirs. Groundwater  
5 samples were obtained from an APPZ well (ROMP TR4-7; Manatee County, FL) and a UFA well in Lake  
6 Lytal Park (PBF-3, Palm Beach County).

7 There are two objectives for this study. The first objective was to compare the relative effects of  
8 temperature, water type, and background microbial community on the  $2\text{-log}_{10}$  inactivation period and  
9 first-order inactivation rate constants. Test microorganisms include the PRD-1 phage, *Cryptosporidium*  
10 *parvum*, and *Giardia lamblia*. A pretreatment of the surface and groundwater by pasteurization (70°C  
11 for 30 min) was done to inactivate or reduce the concentration of native microorganisms.

12 The second objective was to characterize the inactivation rates using temperatures typical of the native  
13 FAS and recharged surface water. The predicted number of days for  $2\text{-log}_{10}$  inactivation in the raw  
14 (unpasteurized) waters, at 22°C and 30°C, were quantified separately from the pasteurized and 5°C test  
15 conditions. A first-order inactivation model fit the data from all of tests using pasteurized water at the  
16 higher temperatures. The consistency in inactivation models using natural water contrasts the  
17 inactivation models from the bench-scale experiments using artificial water. Some tests conducted at  
18 5°C required alternative, higher-order regression models for interpretation (Lisle, 2014).

19 Inactivation rates for all microorganisms in non-pasteurized, natural waters are compiled in **Table 6-1**.  
20 Based on comparative analyses of observed inactivation rates, several statistically significant trends  
21 were observed. Inactivation rates increased steadily with increasing temperature, and this was true in  
22 both combined raw and pasteurized comparisons. Inactivation rates typically were higher in raw surface  
23 water under raw conditions. One exception is the F+ RNA coliphage, which were quite fragile and  
24 exhibited relatively rapid inactivation rates under both conditions. The other exception was *Giardia*  
25 *lamblia* cysts. It is not clear why data for *Giardia lamblia* cysts showed decreasing inactivation rate with  
26 increasing temperature. It may be the method used for measuring viability was affected by the TDS  
27 concentrations or another geochemical constituent of the groundwater. The viability dyes, used for  
28 assessing cyst viability are based on the permeability of the membrane. It is conceivable the  
29 groundwater constituents affect this permeability. It is known that the dye test is not completely  
30 reliable for assessing parasite viability. The viability of *Cryptosporidium parvum* oocysts, on the other  
31 hand, is determined via cell culture and is a true measure of inactivation.

32 The effect of heat pasteurization to reduce native bacterial populations also had a statistically significant  
33 effect of reducing inactivation rate of seeded indicator organisms. Decreasing inactivation rates were  
34 sometimes more significant in surface water than groundwater, particularly when using enterococci and  
35 DNA coliphage test organisms.

| MICROORGANISM          | NATIVE GROUNDWATER   |              |                           |              | NATIVE SURFACE WATER              |              |                                 |              |
|------------------------|----------------------|--------------|---------------------------|--------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|---------------------------------|--------------|
|                        | ROMP TR4-7 APPZ WELL |              | LAKE LYTAL PBF-3 UFA WELL |              | BILL EVERS RESERVOIR, MANATEE CO. |              | CLEAR LAKE, WEST PALM BEACH CO. |              |
|                        | 22°C                 | 30°C         | 22°C                      | 30°C         | 22°C                              | 30°C         | 22°C                            | 30°C         |
| <i>Crypto. parvum</i>  | <b>0.001</b>         | 0.110        | 0.042                     | 0.120        | 0.045                             | 0.200        | 0.066                           | 0.180        |
| <i>Giardia lamblia</i> | 0.040                | 0.098        | 0.030                     | 0.110        | <b>0.005</b>                      | <b>0.081</b> | <b>0.0042</b>                   | <b>0.076</b> |
| PRD-1                  | 0.017                | <b>0.015</b> | <b>0.027</b>              | <b>0.045</b> | 0.100                             | 0.150        | 0.840                           | 0.120        |
| DNA coliphage          | 0.064                | 0.130        | 0.072                     | 0.150        | 0.120                             | 0.170        | 0.092                           | 0.160        |
| Fecal coliform         | 0.100                | 0.170        | 0.065                     | 0.150        | 0.250                             | <b>1.00</b>  | 0.170                           | 0.300        |
| Enterococci            | 0.160                | 0.250        | 0.062                     | 0.130        | 0.380                             | 0.770        | 0.270                           | 0.500        |
| F+ RNA phage           | <b>0.510</b>         | <b>1.600</b> | <b>0.45</b>               | <b>2.400</b> | <b>0.420</b>                      | 0.630        | <b>0.940</b>                    | <b>2.00</b>  |

Notes: 22°C and 30°C are incubation temperatures for each experiment. Slowest rates are red, fastest rates are green. All rates were converted to absolute (non-negative) values for comparison to other studies. Unit is  $\log_{10} d^{-1}$

1 Inactivation rates for the different types of microorganisms were determined in natural raw water  
 2 samples, specifically at temperatures typical of the FAS (22°C to 30°C). For fecal coliforms, 2- $\log_{10}$   
 3 inactivation was predicted to occur over periods of 1 to 6 weeks in groundwater, and 1 to 2 weeks in  
 4 surface water. Enterococci 2- $\log_{10}$  inactivation ranged from approximately 1 to 5 weeks in groundwater,  
 5 and approximately 1 week in surface water. A comparison of the two types of coliphage revealed that  
 6 DNA coliphage was much hardier in the conditions evaluated. DNA coliphage results indicated 2- $\log_{10}$   
 7 inactivation over periods of 2 to 6 weeks in both water types. In contrast, F+ RNA coliphage showed the  
 8 fastest 2- $\log_{10}$  inactivation of approximately 1 week or less in both surface and groundwater. As  
 9 expected, PRD-1 in these conditions was the most stable with a 2- $\log_{10}$  inactivation rate in the APPZ well  
 10 water at approximately 6 months at 22°C or 30°C.

11 A comparison of inactivation rates between bacterial and viral indicators (coliforms, phages,  
 12 enterococci) and the enteric parasite *Cryptosporidium parvum* indicated slower rates in *C. parvum* in the  
 13 APPZ at 22°C (**Table 6-1**). The observed decline was minimal over the course of the experiment.  
 14 However, *C. parvum* inactivation rates were similar to those of the two bacterial indicators in UFA well  
 15 water at 22°C and in both groundwater sources at 30°C. A 2- $\log_{10}$  inactivation rate for *C. parvum* was  
 16 predicted to take about 7 weeks at 22°C in Lake Lytal Park UFA water, and 2-3 weeks at 30°C in both  
 17 groundwater sources. In surface water, 2- $\log_{10}$  inactivation of *C. parvum* at 22°C was predicted over 4-7  
 18 weeks, and at 30°C in 1-2 weeks. *Giardia lamblia* inactivation rates were significantly lower than the  
 19 bacterial indicators in ground water at 22°C and 30°C with 2- $\log_{10}$  declines predicted in 7-9 weeks at  
 20 22°C and 2-3 weeks at 30°C. There was negligible inactivation of *G. lamblia* in surface water at 22°C,  
 21 while 2- $\log_{10}$  declines at 30°C would be predicted in 3-4 weeks. Once again, the method of analysis for *G.*  
 22 *lamblia* may have influenced the apparent lack of inactivation since the assay relies only on cyst  
 23 membrane integrity as an indicator of viability, not actual viability or infectivity. With the exception of  
 24 APPZ groundwater at 22°C, inactivation rates of the *C. parvum* and *G. lamblia* were similar in  
 25 groundwater at these temperatures.

1 Major conclusions of this study were:

- 2 • TDS concentrations in the range of 200 mg/L to 1,000 mg/L (artificial water matrix) had no  
3 statistically significant effect on inactivation rates using any test microorganism.
- 4 • Higher temperature (22°C and 30°C) in TDS-temperature experiments with artificial water  
5 increased inactivation rates of all test microorganisms, although trends using enterococci and F+  
6 RNA coliphage were not as strong.
- 7 • Fecal coliform, enterococci, DNA coliphage, PRD-1 and *Cryptosporidium parvum* all had greater  
8 inactivation rates in surface water than in groundwater. In contrast, RNA coliphage and *Giardia*  
9 *lamblia* had greater inactivation rates in groundwater than surface water.
- 10 • For fecal coliform, 2-log<sub>10</sub> inactivation was predicted over periods of 2 to 6 weeks in  
11 groundwater and 1 to 2 weeks in surface water; enterococci 2-log<sub>10</sub> inactivation rates ranged  
12 from 1 to 5 weeks in groundwater, and about 1 week in surface water sources.
- 13 • The enteric parasites and the DNA coliphage were much more resistant than the fecal coliform  
14 or enterococci. It would take an estimated 7 months to achieve a 2-log<sub>10</sub> inactivation of *Giardia*  
15 *lamblia* cysts in surface water; 1 to 4 months would be required for DNA coliphage and  
16 *Cryptosporidium parvum* oocysts.
- 17 • Bacterial or coliphage indicators are not adequate indicators of the human health risks  
18 potentially associated with the co-presence of the enteric protozoa due to the significantly  
19 reduced inactivation rates of the latter.
- 20 • Site-specific monitoring of sites using water containing these organisms should be required until  
21 those conditions that inhibit or enhance inactivation of the most resistant microorganisms can  
22 be better defined.

## 23 6.2 Field Study to Quantify Survival of Bacterial Indicators and the Functional Diversity 24 of Native Microbial Communities in the Floridan Aquifer

25 In order to better define inactivation rates of microbiological indicators under aquifer conditions, a field  
26 study was initiated to expose selected microorganisms to Floridan Aquifer groundwater in above-  
27 ground, flow-through mesocosms (Lisle, 2014; **Appendix D**). In support of this objective,  
28 biogeochemical analyses of groundwater samples was completed, to characterize the geochemical  
29 environment in which ambient microbial communities currently subsist within the FAS. Members of the  
30 native microbiological communities within the aquifer were identified, to better understand their  
31 biogeochemical processes under native aquifer conditions. Biogeochemical characterization under  
32 native conditions can serve as a baseline for comparison of conditions during or after ASR cycle testing.

### 33 6.2.1 Experimental Design and Sampling Methodology

34 Inactivation rate experiments were performed using a unique flow-through mesocosm equipped with  
35 inoculated diffusion chambers (**Figure 6-1**). This above-ground, flow-through mesocosm system was  
36 constructed so that native groundwater geochemical conditions (other than pressure could be  
37 maintained). Mesocosm influent was directly connected to an FAS wellhead, enabling consistent

- 1 groundwater flow through the system. No pumps were needed because all wells flowed under artesian
- 2 conditions.

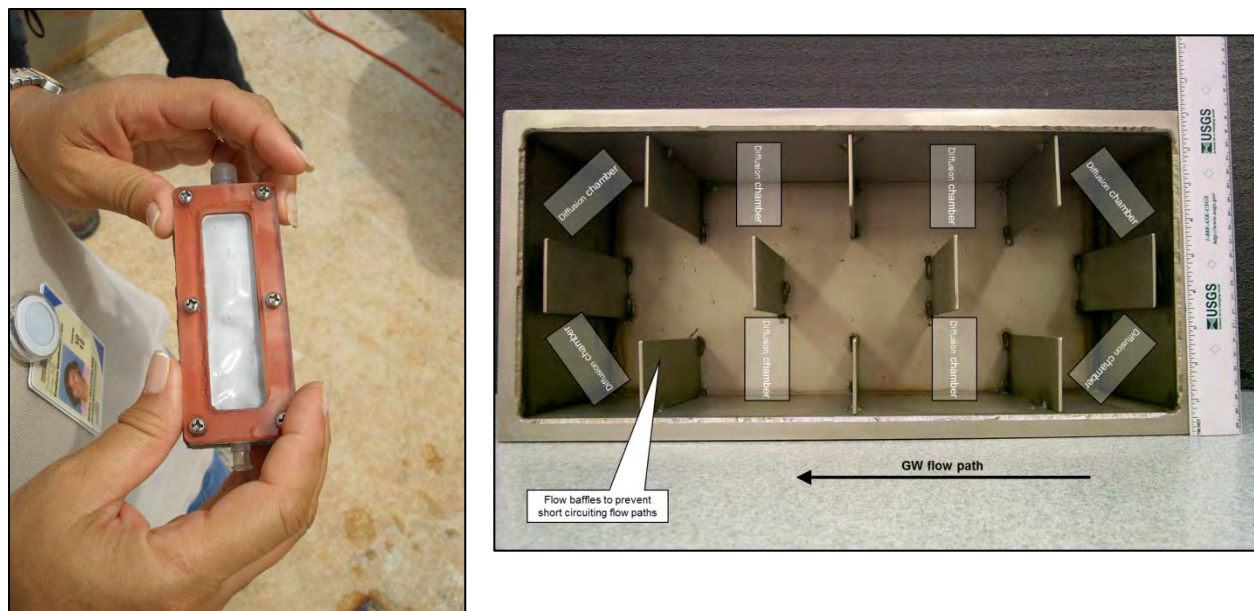


Figure 6-1 -- Photographs showing a diffusion chamber (left), and orientation of diffusion chambers in a flow-through mesocosm (right). Photos from Lisle (2014).

3 Mesocosm chambers were connected to the wellhead sampling taps at each of the wells, and water  
 4 from the UFA was allowed to flow through the mesocosm and pass through diffusion chambers. Each  
 5 diffusion chamber contained live populations of *Escherichia coli* or *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* strains that  
 6 had originally been isolated from fresh water sources. Data on in-situ inactivation and survival of FIBs in  
 7 the FAS are not readily available. The *E. coli* strain is the most recognizable member of the FIB group,  
 8 and the *P. aeruginosa* strain was selected as an emerging opportunistic pathogen of public health  
 9 concern in recreational waters. Both bacterial strains were grown, processed, and loaded in the  
 10 diffusion chambers.

11 The diffusion chambers used in this study are a modified design of the McFeters and Stuart (1972)  
 12 diffusion chamber. The diffusion chambers retained the bacterial suspensions using 0.02  $\mu\text{m}$  pore-sized  
 13 membranes. Inoculated bacterial suspensions were isolated from predation by native bacteria, while  
 14 allowing the diffusion of dissolved groundwater constituents (e.g., nutrients, trace elements, gases)  
 15 through the chambers. Due to access constraints and the multiple time point sampling design of the  
 16 experiments, down-well deployments of the diffusion chambers were not practical. The above-ground  
 17 mesocosm system design allowed easy access to the diffusion chambers while insulating the chambers  
 18 from the elevated outside surface temperatures and minimizing alterations in the geochemistry of the  
 19 native groundwater.

1 A flow-thru mesocosm was set up for each well listed in **Table 6-2**. At specific time points a set of  
2 diffusion chambers that contained either *E. coli* or *P. aeruginosa* cultures was removed from the  
3 mesocosm and processed for culturability. The *E. coli* cultures were plated on mTEC agar, *P. aeruginosa*  
4 cultures on PIA agar and both were plated on R2A agar. All plating and incubation conditions were  
5 performed as recommended by the manufacturer and defined by regulatory standards, if applicable.

6 To conduct the biogeochemistry study, three monitor well “pairs” were selected, so that UFA and APPZ  
7 could be utilized at a single site. Groundwater samples from each site were analyzed for a full suite of  
8 major and trace inorganic constituents, including major redox pairs (sulfate/sulfide, ferric and ferrous  
9 iron, dissolved oxygen and hydrogen, and methane), nutrients, carbon species (DOC, alkalinity, inorganic  
10 carbon), and many carboxylic acids that serve as microbe substrates. These data were used in the  
11 thermodynamic calculations to determine the available energy for bacterial survival and growth in the  
12 native aquifer water. Additionally, samples were processed and stained for determining the number of  
13 native bacteria in each groundwater site using SYBR Gold and epifluorescent microscopy. The locations  
14 of the well pairs are shown on **Figure 6-2**. Well locations and characteristics are shown in **Table 6-2**.

15 To conduct that native bacterial diversity study, samples were collected from the same monitor well  
16 pairs into sterile 20 liter carboys during three sampling events. A cartridge filter was then connected to  
17 each carboy and, under gravity-induced flow, allowed to filter until flow had stopped. After removing  
18 the cartridge filter, its protective housing was removed and the filter transferred to a sterile container.  
19 The filters were shipped to Second Genome, Inc. for DNA extraction, amplification and application on  
20 their proprietary PhyloChip™ G3 Array technology. The PhyloChip™ G3 microarray is capable of  
21 identifying approximately 60,000 operational taxonomic units (OTU) that represent approximately 840  
22 subfamilies within the Eubacteria and Archaea kingdoms.



Figure 6-2 -- Locations of FAS monitor well pairs sampled in the field inactivation study. Image from Lisle (2014).

| Well Name | Station Name | Florida County | Location |           | Aquifer | Casing Diameter (inches) | Production Interval (bls) | Screen Type |
|-----------|--------------|----------------|----------|-----------|---------|--------------------------|---------------------------|-------------|
|           |              |                | Latitude | Longitude |         |                          |                           |             |
| MZ1       | LAB-MZ1      | Glades         | 26° 45'  | -81° 21'  | UFA     | 18                       | 670-837                   | Annular     |
| MZ3       | LAB-MZ3      |                | 11.42"   | 17.72"    | APPZ    | 7                        | 1645-1759                 | Open        |
| 42U       | HIF-42U      | Highlands      | 27° 13'  | -80° 57'  | UF      | 24                       | 560-1040                  | Annular     |
| 42L       | HIF-42L      |                | 11.16"   | 21.98"    | APPZ    | 14                       | 1310-1540                 | Open        |
| 15U       | PBF-15U      | Palm Beach     | 26° 44'  | -80° 21'  | UF      | 18                       | 908-1144                  | Annular     |
| 15M       | PBF-15M      |                | 16.08"   | 48.68"    | APPZ    | 12                       | 1400-1583                 | Annular     |

## 1 6.2.2 Bacterial Indicator Inactivation Results

2 The colony counts for *E. coli* and *P. aeruginosa* from each of the mesocosm experiments followed a bi-  
 3 phasic model (**Figure 6-3**). This bi-phasic model describes the inactivation of bacterial communities that  
 4 can be subdivided into two subpopulations. One subpopulation is more susceptible to inactivation than  
 5 the other, which generates an inactivation curve with an initial steep and negative slope that represents  
 6 the inactivation of the first microbial subpopulation. The curve then transitions into a tail with a  
 7 significantly smaller negative slope, which represents the inactivation of the second microbial  
 8 subpopulation. The two subpopulations are assumed to be independently and irreversibly inactivated  
 9 with the respective inactivation rates following first-order reaction kinetics.

10 The *E. coli* populations had slower inactivation rates in the UFA groundwater (range: 0.217 to 0.628 hr<sup>-1</sup>)  
 11 during the first phase of the model than those exposed to APPZ groundwater (range: 0.540 to 0.684  
 12 hr<sup>-1</sup>). These same populations had significantly slower inactivation rates during the second phase of the  
 13 model, ranging from 0.006 to 0.001 hr<sup>-1</sup> and 0.013 to 0.018 hr<sup>-1</sup> for the UF and APPZ, respectively, with  
 14 the APPZ rates again being greater. Published inactivation rates of *E. coli* when retained in membrane  
 15 diffusion chambers similar in design to those used in this study and exposed to diverse groundwater  
 16 sources range from 0.004 to 0.029 hr<sup>-1</sup>.

17 The inactivation rates for the first phase of the inactivation models for *P. aeruginosa* were not  
 18 significantly different between the UFA (range: 0.144 to 0.770 hr<sup>-1</sup>) and APPZ (range: 0.159 to 0.772 hr<sup>-1</sup>)  
 19 groundwaters. The inactivation rates for the second phase of the model for this bacterial species were  
 20 also similar between UFA (range: 0.003 to 0.008 hr<sup>-1</sup>) and APPZ (0.004-0.005 hr<sup>-1</sup>) groundwaters, though  
 21 significantly slower than the model's first phase rates. There are currently no inactivation data for *P.*  
 22 *aeruginosa* in groundwater that is geochemically similar to that in UFA and APPZ for comparison.

23

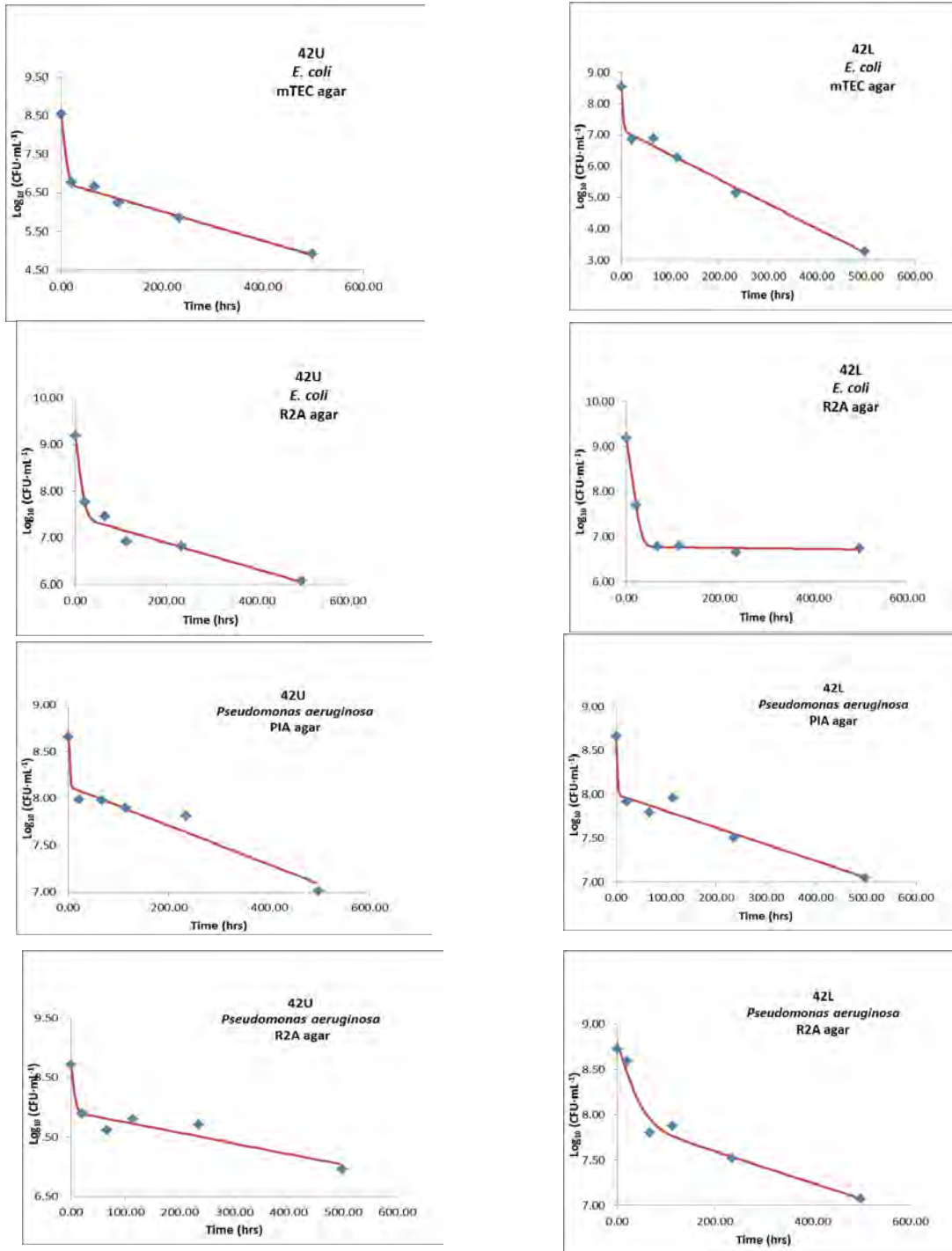


Figure 6-3 -- Graphs showing *E. Coli* and *P. aeruginosa* inactivation curves for the 42U and 42L samples. 42U is open to the UFA, 42L is open to the APPZ. Figure from Lisle (2014).

- 1 Inactivation rates determined in Lisle (2014) differ from those presented in John and Rose (2004) in
- 2 several ways. First, the models used for inactivation rate calculations differ, with John and Rose (2004)
- 3 using a linear model, while Lisle (2014) uses a bi-phasic model. Second, inactivation rates for fecal
- 4 coliform (John and Rose, 2004) in bench-top experiments are much slower than those estimated for *E.*



1 *coli* in the field study even when rates are adjusted to the same unit ( $\log_{10}\text{hr}^{-1}$ ; **Table 6-3**). The second  
 2 phase of all bi-phasic curves of Lisle (2014) more closely approximates the linear rates calculated by John  
 3 and Rose (2004). Because the field mesocosms most closely replicate aquifer conditions with regard to  
 4 temperature and water quality, these higher inactivation rates serve as a better guideline for ASR  
 5 operations.

| Microorganism  | Test Condition                 | Model                           | Rate         | Unit                      | Reference          |
|----------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------|---------------------------|--------------------|
| Fecal coliform | raw UFA water, 22°C, bench top | Linear                          | 0.003        | $\log_{10}\text{hr}^{-1}$ | John & Rose (2004) |
| Fecal coliform | raw APPZ water 22°C, bench top | Linear                          | 0.004        | $\log_{10}\text{hr}^{-1}$ | John & Rose (2004) |
| <i>E. coli</i> | UFA, 29°C, field mesocosm      | Biphasic, 1st phase             | 0.217-0.628  | $\log_{10}\text{hr}^{-1}$ | Lisle (2014)       |
| <i>E. coli</i> | UFA, 29°C, field mesocosm      | Biphasic, 2 <sup>nd</sup> phase | 0.001-0.006  | $\log_{10}\text{hr}^{-1}$ | Lisle (2014)       |
| <i>E. coli</i> | APPZ, 28°C, field mesocosm     | Biphasic, 1st phase             | 0.540-0.684  | $\log_{10}\text{hr}^{-1}$ | Lisle (2014)       |
| <i>E. coli</i> | APPZ, 28°C, field mesocosm     | Biphasic, 2 <sup>nd</sup> phase | 0.013- 0.018 | $\log_{10}\text{hr}^{-1}$ | Lisle (2014)       |

6 To place the *E. coli* inactivation rates in a more applied context, an example that uses data from the  
 7 HASR pilot system treatment facility is presented. The pumping rate for recharge water by this facility is  
 8 5 MGD. This facility has detected *E. coli* in the recharge water at a concentration ranging from below  
 9 detection ( $<1.0 \text{ CFU } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ ) to  $65 \text{ CFU } 100 \text{ mL}^{-1}$ . At this recharge rate and maximum *E. coli*  
 10 concentration, there could be  $1.23 \times 10^{10}$  *E. coli* introduced into the aquifer at the completion of a 1-day  
 11 recharge event. The bi-phasic model used to calculate the inactivation rate data assumes that both  
 12 subpopulations independently follow first order reaction kinetics, which permits the use of Chick's Law  
 13 for calculating the times required for total inactivation of both subpopulations. The most familiar form  
 14 of Chick's Law follows an exponential decay function, and is shown as follows:

$$15 \quad N_t/N_0 = e^{-kt}$$

16 Where:

17  $N_t$  is the concentration (CFU per milliliter) of injected bacteria at time  $t$  (hours),  
 18  $N_0$  is the concentration (CFU per milliliter) of bacteria at the end of the recharge event, and  
 19  $k$  is the inactivation rate constant (per hour).

20 The variable  $N_t$  is set at 0.9 (assuming a value of  $<1.0 \text{ CFU}$  represents total inactivation),  $N_0$  is adjusted  
 21 for the respective subpopulations using the  $f$  or  $1-f$  values, and the  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  values from inactivation  
 22 curves are used with the appropriate  $N_0$  values. Solving for  $t$  yields an estimate of the length of storage  
 23 time required for the respective subpopulations of *E. coli* to be reduced to less than 1.0 CFU. The more  
 24 sensitive subpopulation of *E. coli* ( $k_1$  data) was reduced to less than 1.0 CFU in all the wells at a similar  
 25 rate when using mTEC agar, ranging from 1.4 to 4.5 days (**Table 6-4**). The same subpopulation on R2A  
 26 agar was completely inactivated at a generally slower rate, ranging from 1.6 to 5.6 days.

1 The more resistant subpopulations ( $k_2$  data) were inactivated at significantly slower rates, regardless of  
 2 which medium was used. Using the mTEC agar data, this *E. coli* subpopulation was inactivated after 1.5  
 3 to 3.7 months of storage in the respective aquifer zones. The R2A agar data were generally slower than  
 4 the rates calculated from the mTEC agar data, ranging from 3.1 to 9.5 months for 42U, 15M, MZ1, and  
 5 MZ3, and 7.1 years for 42L. The outlier in the dataset is for 15U, where a predicted > 120.6 years of  
 6 storage are required to totally inactivate the more resistant *E. coli* subpopulation to less than 1 CFU  
 7 (Table 6-4 ).

| Bacterium      | Media | Inactivation Rate Curve Phase | Time   | Well Designation |      |        |     |     |     |
|----------------|-------|-------------------------------|--------|------------------|------|--------|-----|-----|-----|
|                |       |                               |        | 42U              | 42L  | 15U    | 15M | MZ1 | MZ3 |
| <i>E. coli</i> | mTEC  | $K_1$                         | days   | 3.3              | 1.4  | 4.5    | 1.8 | 1.5 | 1.7 |
|                |       | $K_2$                         | months | 3.1              | 1.5  | 3.7    | 1.9 | 2.4 | 2.1 |
|                | R2A   | $K_1$                         | days   | 5.3              | 5.6  | 4.8    | 5   | 1.6 | 3.8 |
|                |       | $K_2$                         | months | 4.1              | 84.8 | >247.5 | 9.5 | 3.1 | 6.7 |

### 8 6.2.3 Bacterial Abundance in Native FAS Groundwater

9 The mean bacterial abundances in all native FAS groundwaters were relatively consistent, ranging from  
 10  $3.92 \times 10^4$  cells mL<sup>-1</sup> to  $8.01 \times 10^5$  cells mL<sup>-1</sup>. Additionally, native groundwaters from each well were  
 11 collected during each sampling event and filtered or directly plated onto various media used in the  
 12 inactivation experiments. None of the native groundwater samples produced colonies on the *E. coli*  
 13 medium (i.e., mTEC agar), however, an average 0.7 CFU mL<sup>-1</sup> of *P. aeruginosa* were recovered on PIA  
 14 agar and 0.7 CFU mL<sup>-1</sup> on R2A agar. The recovery of culturable bacteria from the native groundwaters  
 15 on the non-selective PIA and R2A agars is not surprising as these ground water systems contain viable  
 16 bacteria, and both media promote the recovery of heterotrophic bacteria, regardless of their identity.  
 17 More importantly, the numbers of culturable bacteria on these media were not great enough to  
 18 influence the colony counts of *E. coli* or *P. aeruginosa* recovered from the diffusion chambers even if a  
 19 contamination event (e.g., ruptured membrane, leaky chamber gasket) were to have occurred.

### 20 6.2.4 Bacterial Diversity in Native FAS Groundwater

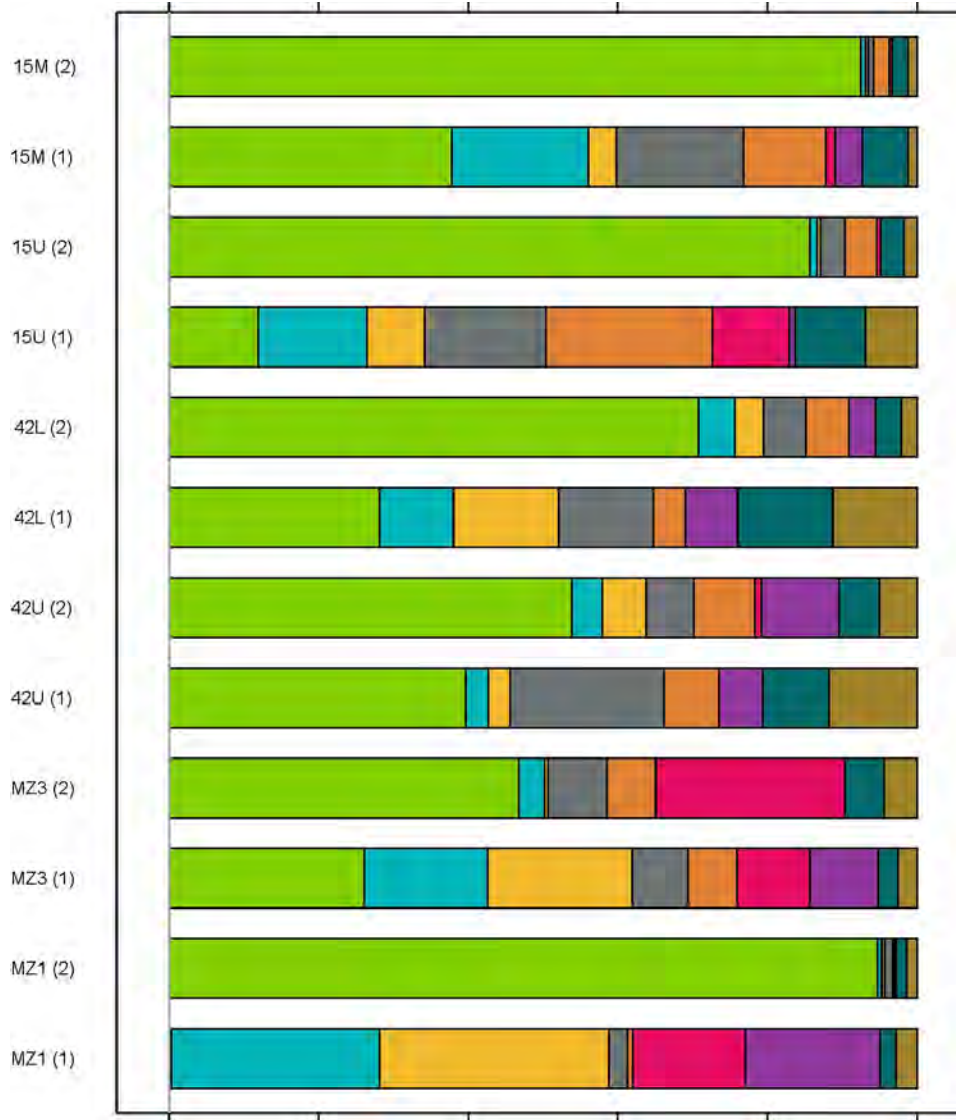
21 Native bacterial communities are viable and productive inhabitants of all subsurface biospheres,  
 22 including the UFA. These communities are capable of aerobic, fermentative and anaerobic respiration  
 23 which can significantly influence the rates of mineral dissolution/precipitation and the fate and  
 24 transport of metals, nutrients, organic substrates and greenhouse gases within the aquifer. The by-  
 25 products of these processes can dramatically alter the native geochemistry along a natural flow path  
 26 and along a similar flow path within an artificially recharged or contaminated zone of an aquifer  
 27 (Chapelle).

1 The first step in characterizing the types and rates of microbial processes that can alter geochemistry in  
2 an aquifer is to identify members of the native microbial community. To accomplish this, a high  
3 throughput microarray platform technology, PhyloChip™ G3, was used to characterize the functional  
4 diversity in the native aquifer bacterial communities (bacteria and archaea). Approximately 76 percent  
5 of the operational taxonomic units (OTUs) from the native bacteria in these UFA samples were  
6 categorized as “unclassified”, meaning the sequence could not be definitively classified to the family,  
7 genus or species level (**Figure 6-4**).

8 The next step in constraining the native biogeochemistry is to use the native microbial community  
9 diversity data to corroborate the theoretical occurrence of a biogeochemical process based on  
10 energetics with the presence of one or more bacterial phylotypes capable of performing that process.  
11 The bacterial diversity in the groundwater samples was dominated by members of the  
12 Pseudomonadaceae and to a lesser extent by members of Anaerolineaceae, Desulfobacteraceae,  
13 Peptostreptococcaceae, Lachnospiraceae and Ruminococcaceae families and the phylum Euryarchaeota.  
14 The physiological capabilities of members within these groups have been shown to include the  
15 biogeochemical processes of primary and secondary fermentation, acetogenesis, and methanogenesis,  
16 and anaerobic methane oxidation, syntrophy with methanogens, ammonification and sulfate reduction.  
17 The functional bacterial diversity data support the likelihood of the energetically favorable  
18 biogeochemical reactions being present in this region of the Floridan Aquifer and provides insight into  
19 the capacity of the native bacterial communities to perform additional types of processes that would be  
20 required to sustain viability over geologic time scales and alter the geochemistry of native and recharged  
21 water.

22 A total of 3634 unique OTUs were detected in the groundwater samples from the six well sites,  
23 representing approximately 6.1 percent of the total OTUs on this version of the PhyloChip™ microarray.  
24 The bacterial diversity, used here and henceforth to collectively refer to eubacterial and archaeal OTUs,  
25 was similar between the two sampled depths for the 42 and 15 wells but significantly different at the  
26 MZ well site, with MZ3 (in the APPZ) having a more diverse community structure than that in MZ1 (in  
27 the UFA). The MZ3 zone has been shown to be the more unique groundwater source of the six sampled  
28 based on field, nutrient, geochemical and energetics data (Lisle, 2014).

29 Interestingly, the number of OTUs defined in the second sampling event increased significantly over the  
30 first event in most of the wells. For all the groundwater samples, the number of OTUs that were  
31 common to both events at each well was less than the number unique to the individual samples. For  
32 example, the 42U samples (from the UFA) had a total of 647 OTUs, of which 86 were unique to the first  
33 sample, 424 were unique to the second sample, 132 were found in both samples and 2987 OTUs were  
34 not detected in 42U but were detected in one or more of the other groundwater samples. These same  
35 relationships are similar for the other five sites.



1

| Domain   | Phylum         | Class               | Order               | Family                            |
|----------|----------------|---------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Bacteria | Proteobacteria | Gammaproteobacteria | Pseudomonadales     | Pseudomonadaceae                  |
| Bacteria | Firmicutes     | Clostridia          | Clostridiales       | Peptostreptococcaceae             |
| Bacteria | Firmicutes     | Clostridia          | Clostridiales       | Lachnospiraceae / Ruminococcaceae |
| Bacteria | Chloroflexi    | Anaerolineae        | Anaerolineales      | Anaerolineaceae                   |
| Bacteria | Proteobacteria | Deltaproteobacteria | Desulfobacterales   | Desulfobacteraceae                |
| Bacteria | Actinobacteria | Actinobacteria      | Actinomycetales     | Micrococcineae                    |
| Bacteria | Bacteroidetes  | Bacteroidia         | Bacteroidales       | Prevotellaceae                    |
| Archaea  | Crenarchaeota  | Thermoprotei        | unclassified        | unclassified                      |
| Archaea  | Euryarchaeota  | Thermoplasmata      | SAGMEG_unclassified | unclassified                      |

2 Figure 6-4 -- OTU distributions for each well at both sampling events.

1 The significant change in the bacterial diversity between the first and second sampling events cannot be  
2 explained by the introduction of new biomass and nutrients from a surface or near-surface source into  
3 this hydrologically isolated region of the UFA. The only perturbation to this ecosystem was the relatively  
4 rapid movement of groundwater near the production zones during the flushing of each well prior to  
5 sample collection. This movement of water also increases the relative concentrations of organic and  
6 inorganic carbon and nutrients delivered to the surfaces of bacterial cells associated with biofilms in the  
7 affected areas of the aquifer. The increased carbon and nutrients is assumed to promote bacterial cell  
8 growth and increase in biomass in those bacterial groups that can most rapidly respond to this stimulus.  
9 These rapidly responding groups will be numerically dominant over those bacteria who cannot respond  
10 as rapidly, whose abundances will be relatively reduced, though still present in the bacterial community.  
11 A similar response at the bacterial community diversity level would be predicted following a recharge  
12 event along with dramatic changes in the geochemistry of those same waters.

13

## 7 Development and Simulations using the ASR Regional Study Groundwater Flow and Solute Transport Model

The primary objective of the CERP is the “restoration, preservation, and protection of the south Florida Ecosystem while providing for other water-related needs of the region, including water supply and flood protection (WRDA, 2000).” ASR is one of the alternatives proposed by the CERP to provide long-term storage of excess water, resulting in a more stable water supply in South Florida. The original CERP recommends the construction of 333 ASR wells completed in the Floridan Aquifer System (FAS) and distributed over a large region surrounding Lake Okeechobee. In order to evaluate ASR, an intensive modeling effort was undertaken to evaluate potential impacts of CERP ASR. This chapter summarizes the distinct stages that were followed for the ASR Regional groundwater effort. Additional detail is provided in Appendix E.

### 7.1 Study Goals and Performance Objectives

The first and most important step in the modeling process is to define clear, achievable goals and objectives based on the desired end results for the models. Both the modeling team and the end user must keep the end goal in mind and have a clear understanding of the capabilities and limitations of the model. Together with the ASR Pilot Projects and the ASR Contingency Plan, the ASR Regional Study endeavored to reduce technical uncertainties associated with the proposed CERP ASR. A Project Management Plan (PMP) was prepared for the ASR Regional Study in 2003. This PMP was developed prior to any groundwater modeling work and defined general study goals to be addressed with the groundwater models. These general study goals included local, sub-regional, and regional-scale concerns including the following:

1. Regional changes in aquifer heads and flows
2. Regional changes in aquifer water quality TDS, sulfate, and chloride
3. Increased potential for salt-water intrusion caused by ASR pumping
4. Regional impacts to existing well users of the FAS
5. ASR well cluster site selection
6. ASR well cluster design and layout
7. ASR well cluster performance including estimating recovery efficiency
8. ASR well site evaluation of pressure induced changes
9. Localized transport of contaminants including heavy metals or pathogens
10. Localized ASR well pump design (dependent upon the appropriate model resolution)

Goals 7, 9 and 10 are related to local-scale issues and are not addressed in the ASR Regional Study; however, they are addressed in sub-regional models prepared for the pilot ASR systems (USACE and SFWMD, 2013). The remaining seven PMP goals were addressed by the ASR Regional Study and are discussed in this chapter. The goals fall into two major categories: (1) evaluation of regional changes to the groundwater flow and water quality, and (2) development of viable ASR well cluster designs. As the ASR Regional study evolved, a better understanding of the groundwater flow system was developed. In order to assess the viability of various CERP ASR well cluster designs, the PDT developed several

1 performance objectives by which the regional model simulations were evaluated. These performance  
2 objectives better quantify evaluation metrics based on general study goals from the PMP and include:

- 3 1. Rock Fracturing – Determine whether or not CERP ASR would result in aquifer pressures that  
4 cause fracturing of the rock during ASR recharge. If rock fracturing were to occur, it could  
5 result in significant, permanent changes to the subsurface hydrogeologic conditions of  
6 South Florida.
- 7 2. Pump Pressure – Ensure that the pressure that any ASR well would need to overcome during  
8 recharge did not exceed 100 psi.
- 9 3. Artesian Pressure Protection Area (APPA) – Ensure that artesian flow in Martin and St. Lucie  
10 Counties was not reduced by more than 10 percent as a result of CERP ASR operations.
- 11 4. Head Impacts – Define potential reduction in water levels in wells operated by neighboring  
12 water users during the recovery phase of an ASR cycle test.
- 13 5. Water Quality Migration and Salt Water Intrusion – Evaluate whether recharge of fresh  
14 water will displace low quality water into the zone of influence of a water supply well and  
15 determine the possible effect of ASR pumping on coastal salt water intrusion.
- 16 6. Ability to Provide Storage/Recovery – Identify the volume of storage and recovered water  
17 that can be provided by ASR well clusters once the other performance measures have been  
18 satisfied.  
19

## 20 7.2 Modeling Approach

21 In order to model the complex density-dependent groundwater flow in southern Florida and the impact  
22 of CERP ASR on the flow regime, a multi-stage approach was initiated to evaluate the proposed CERP  
23 ASR system. The following is a brief summary of the five distinct stages used for the ASR regional  
24 modeling.

### 25 **Compilation of Existing Groundwater Studies**

- 26 • Research and review of numerical modeling efforts performed in south Florida, the  
27 preliminary hydrogeologic framework, and the carbonate aquifer dispersion database study.
- 28 • Develop a summary of the parameters and methodologies used on similar groundwater  
29 modeling efforts.
- 30 • Develop recommendations for subsequent stages of the ASR regional groundwater  
31 modeling.  
32

### 33 **Bench Scale Study**

- 34 • Evaluate available groundwater modeling codes and determine their applicability to ASR  
35 regional modeling.
- 36 • Provide a preliminary understanding of model development issues relating to resolution  
37 requirements, boundary types, and starting conditions.
- 38 • Uncover limitations and short comings of each model.
- 39 • Determine the appropriate modeling code for subsequent stages of work.  
40  
41

### 1 **Phase I Study**

- 2 • Identify model boundaries and test model boundary parameters.
- 3 • Identify regional flow and salt migration pathways.
- 4 • Identify the timing of salt water intrusion.
- 5 • Evaluate model run times and model sensitivity to time step sizes.
- 6 • Test hydraulic and transport parameter sensitivity.
- 7 • Compare numerical model results (WASH123D and SEAWAT).

### 9 **Phase II Calibration (Regional ASR Study Model, RASRSM)**

- 10 • Identify areas of the Phase I Study model for refinement.
- 11 • Incorporate regional-scale transient groundwater withdrawal.
- 12 • Select sites and determine refinement locations to incorporate ASR well field clusters.
- 13 • Calibrate density-dependent flow and transport results to observed measurements in major
- 14 geologic units.

### 15 **D13R Predictive Simulations (RASRSM-D13R)**

- 16 • Use the Phase II Calibration model to develop a predictive tool to evaluate CERP ASR.
- 17 • Use the D13R Scenario of the South Florida Water Management Model (SFWMM-D13R) to
- 18 develop pumping rates for long term ASR operational simulations on the RASRSM.
- 19 • Use the RASRSM-D13R to evaluate CERP ASR against performance measures developed by
- 20 the PDT.
- 21 • Determine if modifications of the proposed 333 CERP ASR system are needed to meet
- 22 performance objectives.
- 23 • Use a Monte Carlo analysis to evaluate the uncertainty in the predictive scenario results in a
- 24 probabilistic manner.

## 25 **7.3 Supporting Studies**

26 The following subsections provide an overview of the regional groundwater modeling studies performed  
27 in support of CERP ASR. Additional details related to each study can be found at  
28 [http://www.evergladesplan.org/pm/projects/pdp\\_32\\_33\\_34\\_44\\_asr\\_combined.aspx#groundwater](http://www.evergladesplan.org/pm/projects/pdp_32_33_34_44_asr_combined.aspx#groundwater).

29

### 30 **7.3.1 Existing Groundwater Model Compilation and Summary**

31 A substantial amount of research and modeling had been performed on the FAS prior to the ASR  
32 Regional Modeling effort. In 2005, CH2M HILL was contracted by the USACE to compile and review the  
33 preliminary hydrogeologic framework and modeling studies developed previously for south Florida up to  
34 that point in time (CH2M Hill, 2005). This compilation formed the background for the conceptual model  
35 upon which the initial ASR regional models were developed. The conclusions of this study were used to  
36 provide specific recommendations for future model development.

37



1 The models compiled and summarized in this study included:

- 2 1. Peninsular Model (Sepúlveda, 2002)
- 3 2. Southern District Model (Beach and Chan, 2003)
- 4 3. Eastern Tampa Bay Model (Barcelo and Basso, 1993)
- 5 4. HydroGeoLogic Model (HydroGeoLogic, 2002)
- 6 5. SWFWMD District Wide Regulatory Model (ESI, 2004)
- 7 6. Lee County Model (Bower et al., 1990)
- 8 7. Lower East Coast Floridan Aquifer Model (SWFMD, 1999)
- 9 8. East-Central Floridan Aquifer Model (McGurk and Presley, 2002)

10 Based on the data reviewed, CH2M HILL (2005) recommended construction of a 12- to 14-layer model to  
11 be run using finite-element groundwater modeling software. This layering scheme included six semi-  
12 confining/confining units and six permeable units. The permeable units consisted of the Surficial Aquifer  
13 System (SAS), Intermediate Aquifer System (IAS), Upper Floridan Aquifer (UFA), Middle Floridan Aquifer  
14 (MFA, later defined as the Avon Park Permeable Zone or APPZ), Lower Floridan Aquifer (LF1), and the  
15 Boulder Zone (BZ). Preliminary recommendations were also provided for model grid or mesh spacing.  
16 These model layering recommendations and information from the compiled models guided ASR  
17 Regional Model development. Additional details related to this study can be found in CH2M HILL (2005).

### 18 7.3.2 Bench Scale Study

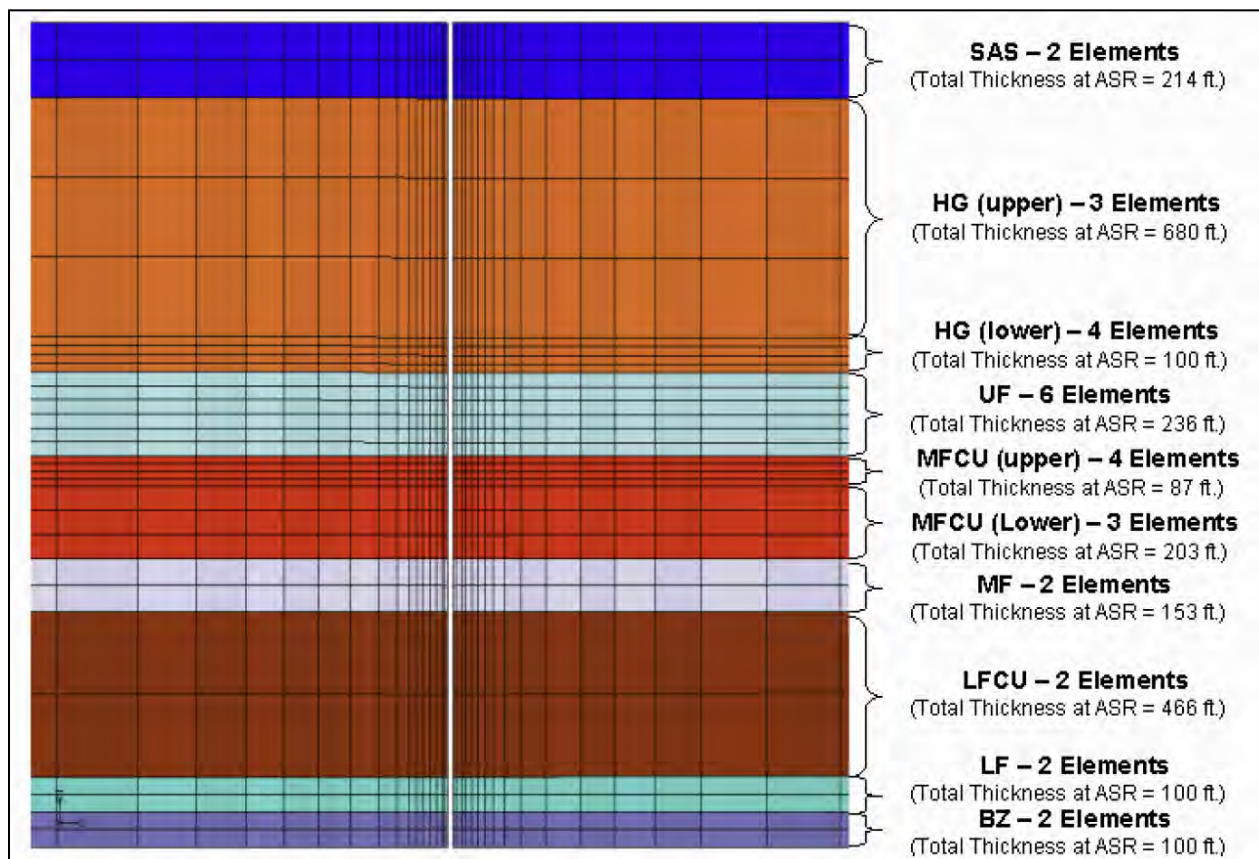
19 Subsequent to completion of the PMP, advances in model software made the use of a density-  
20 dependent groundwater modeling codes more feasible. However, concerns related to model run time,  
21 schedule constraints, and resource availability called into question the feasibility of using a fully density-  
22 dependent groundwater model of the scale needed to evaluate CERP ASR. In order to balance the  
23 needs of the project with the technical capabilities of software and hardware available at the time, the  
24 model development team recommended the development of a bench scale model to evaluate various  
25 model codes and approaches. The primary objectives of the bench scale modeling effort were:

- 26 • Provide an improved estimate of model run times for long term simulations.
- 27 • Provide a preliminary understanding of model development issues relating to resolution  
28 requirements, boundary types, and starting conditions.
- 29 • Uncover model limitations and short comings.

30 Bench testing of several model codes provided a solid basis for model code selection. The four codes  
31 selected for the bench scale study were: WASH123D; MODFLOW/MT3DMS; SEAWAT; and SWI.  
32 WASH123D (Yeh et al., 1998) is a finite-element numerical model designed to simulate variably  
33 saturated, variable-density water flow and reactive chemical and sediment transport in watershed  
34 systems. MODFLOW (Harbaugh et al., 2000) is a groundwater modeling code that numerically solves  
35 the three-dimensional groundwater flow equation for a porous medium using a finite-difference  
36 method. MT3DMS (Zheng and Wang, 1999) is a computer program for modeling multispecies solute  
37 transport in three-dimensional groundwater systems using multiple solution techniques, including the

1 finite-difference method, the method of characteristics (MOC), and the total-variation-diminishing (TVD)  
 2 method. For the bench scale study, the MODFLOW and MT3DMS codes were run in a coupled manner  
 3 to simulate both flow and transport; however, these coupled MODFLOW/MT3DMS simulations did not  
 4 simulate the variable density of the fluid in the model domain. The SEAWAT program (Guo and  
 5 Langevin, 2002) is a combination of MODFLOW and MT3DMS designed to simulate three-dimensional,  
 6 variable-density, groundwater flow and solute-transport. The Sea Water Intrusion (SWI) package  
 7 (Bakker and Schaars, 2002) is intended for the modeling of regional seawater intrusion with MODFLOW  
 8 2000. Other codes such as SUTRA (Voss and Provost, 2002) and FEFLOW (DHI-WASY, 2014) were also  
 9 considered but rejected. SUTRA has been used for past ASR simulation studies so that some of its  
 10 advantages and disadvantages were already known. FEFLOW is a proprietary code from Europe that  
 11 would have been difficult to procure for U.S. Government work efforts.

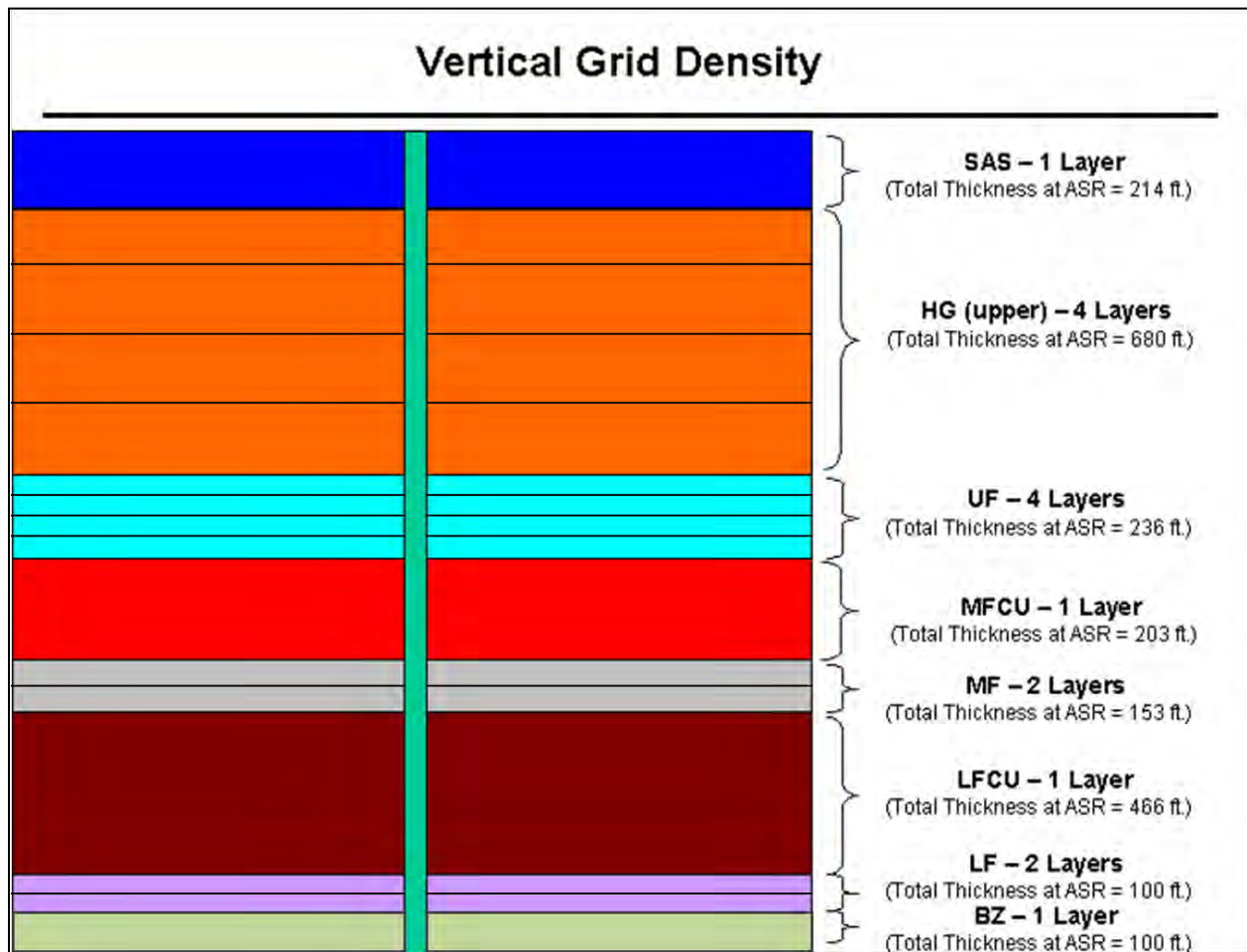
12 A 40-mile by 40-mile box model was developed using each modeling code. This model extended  
 13 vertically from the ground surface through the Floridan Aquifer System (FAS) to the base of the Boulder  
 14 Zone (BZ). **Figure 7-1** and **Figure 7-2** show the vertical resolution used in the finite element and finite  
 15 difference bench scale models, respectively.



16

17 **Figure 7-1 -- Vertical mesh resolution (finite element).**

1 Although the vertical resolution varied due to the inherent differences between finite element and finite  
 2 difference solutions, the geologic layering used for each model remained the same to facilitate  
 3 comparison. Identical hydrogeologic properties, boundary conditions and initial salinity distributions  
 4 were used for each model. Five separate cases were selected to evaluate relevant ASR modeling issues  
 5 including mixing, hydrodynamic dispersion, density stratification, upconing, and changes in salinity  
 6 distribution as a result of ASR recharge and/or recovery. The numerical results and model run times for  
 7 each code were evaluated and used to determine the best path forward for the regional scale modeling.



8  
 9 **Figure 7-2 -- Vertical grid resolution (finite difference).**

10 This bench scale study was useful for comparison of four different model codes under consideration for  
 11 use in development of a regional ASR model. Each code exhibited both strengths and weaknesses. As  
 12 shown in **Table 7-1**, all of the codes provide much of the model functionality desired for the ASR  
 13 Regional Study, with the SEAWAT and WASH123 codes providing the best overall functionality.

14

15

| Modeling Code | 3-D Simulations | Density Dependent | Stability Assessment           | Run Times  | Computing Requirements |
|---------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------------------------|------------|------------------------|
| MODFLOW/MT3D  | Yes             | No                | Stable with minor oscillations | Acceptable | Workstation            |
| SEAWAT        | Yes             | Yes               | Stable with minor oscillations | Acceptable | Workstation            |
| WASH123D      | Yes             | Yes               | No stability issues            | Acceptable | Workstation            |
| SWI           | No              | Yes               | Minor Oscillations             | Acceptable | Personal Computer      |

1 None of the codes proved unacceptably difficult to use and all codes (with the exception of SWI)  
 2 probably require workstation class computers to efficiently develop and calibrate a large regional model.  
 3 Effective pre- and post-processors can be utilized directly by all model codes with the exception of SWI.  
 4 Weighing all of the factors and considering improvements that could be made to the model grid or mesh  
 5 for future models, SEAWAT and the WASH123 groundwater modeling codes were selected as  
 6 appropriate for the ASR Regional Study modeling. Both codes generated reasonable solutions in  
 7 comparison to published density-dependent case studies, were capable of 3-D simulations, and solved  
 8 the requisite flow and transport equations with reasonable run times.

9 Additional details related to the modeling codes tested, simulations performed, and analysis of the  
 10 simulations can be found in the “ASR Regional Study – Bench Scale Modeling Final Report” (Brown et al.,  
 11 2006). This report was reviewed by the Interagency Modeling Center (IMC), which is responsible for the  
 12 oversight and review of all CERP modeling projects. The IMC is an equal partnership between SAJ and  
 13 SFWMD, with participation from other Federal and state agencies. All comments provided by the IMC  
 14 were addressed and incorporated into the final report.

### 15 7.3.3 Phase I Regional Study

16 Based on the findings of the bench scale study, the regional model calibration effort was divided into  
 17 two phases. The intent of the Phase I Study effort was *not* to develop a calibrated model to be used for  
 18 predictive simulations. Rather, the goal of Phase I was to develop coarse resolution, simplified regional  
 19 models as test beds to evaluate the effect of model parameters, boundaries and other assumptions on  
 20 simulation results. The development of these simplified models provided a path to move the project  
 21 forward before the completion of data collection tasks and was a valuable tool for early analysis of an  
 22 extremely complex groundwater system. By adopting this phased approach, modeling issues were  
 23 identified early using the computationally faster Phase I model while developing a better understanding  
 24 of the regional flow and transport patterns. Both WASH123D and SEAWAT models were used for Phase  
 25 I. Lessons learned from this Phase I modeling were later used to guide field data collection efforts (see  
 26 **Chapter 3**) and develop the higher resolution Phase II Calibration models that would be used for  
 27 calibration and analysis of various ASR configurations. The specific goals of the Phase I modeling were:

- 1 • Identify model boundaries and test model boundary parameters.
- 2 • Identify regional flow and salt migration pathways.
- 3 • Identify the timing of salt water intrusion.
- 4 • Evaluate model run times and model sensitivity to time step sizes.
- 5 • Test hydraulic and transport parameter sensitivity.
- 6 • Compare WASH123D and SEAWAT results.

7 At the time of the Phase I model construction, only limited data were available. In order to address the  
8 Phase I goals, several simplifications were made, including:

- 9 • Model domains (vertical and horizontal) were kept consistent to the maximum extent possible
- 10 • Large, uniform mesh/grid elements were used to reduce model run times
- 11 • Since accurate pumping data were not yet available, no pumping was included in the models
- 12 • Boundary conditions remained constant over time

13 The results of similar simulations in both WASH123D and SEAWAT models were compared to evaluate  
14 the numerical schemes and determine if either model reacted differently to boundary condition  
15 changes. The model simulations were also compared to “pre-development” heads in the FAS based on  
16 contour maps generated by the USGS (Bush and Johnston, 1988). Although this approach is greatly  
17 simplified, it was necessary to move the modeling forward and was useful in defining improvements  
18 needed for Phase II. Based on this Phase 1 effort, the need for additional and more accurate boundary  
19 data as well as finer mesh/grid resolution in the Phase II model became apparent.

20 The following is a summary of the models developed and analyzed for the Phase I effort.

### 21 7.3.3.1 Model Extent and Spatial Discretization

22 The grid/mesh boundary used for the Phase I models was selected with the 3D nature of the study area  
23 in mind. Horizontally, the ideal model boundary alignment would be around the Florida peninsula  
24 boundary, where all the geologic units outcrop to the ocean. This would ensure that boundary effects  
25 in the interior of the model would be limited because boundary condition assignments would be greatly  
26 simplified: all of the boundary heads in each geologic unit would be equal to sea level and all of the  
27 boundary salinity concentrations would be that of salt water. However, since the Florida peninsula  
28 extends 150 miles westward into the Gulf of Mexico, modeling the entire peninsula was not feasible  
29 within the scope of this study. The model boundary chosen for the Phase I model generally follows a  
30 path just north of Polk County and extends around the peninsula approximately 20 miles seaward from  
31 the coast. The distance of 20 miles was selected to balance the competing requirements of the model.  
32 The boundaries must be far enough away to eliminate boundary effects on the area of interest. At the  
33 same time, if the model is too large, run times become unreasonable. If the boundaries are too far from  
34 known head data, selection of a boundary condition becomes more difficult. The northern boundary  
35 was chosen to ensure that the entire recharge area, a major driving force in the model, was  
36 incorporated. The model boundary for the Phase I models is shown in **Figure 7-3**. Both the WASH123D  
37 and SEAWAT models used a horizontal element resolution of approximately 25,000 ft for each  
38 element/cell and encompassed an area of approximately 39,000 square miles.

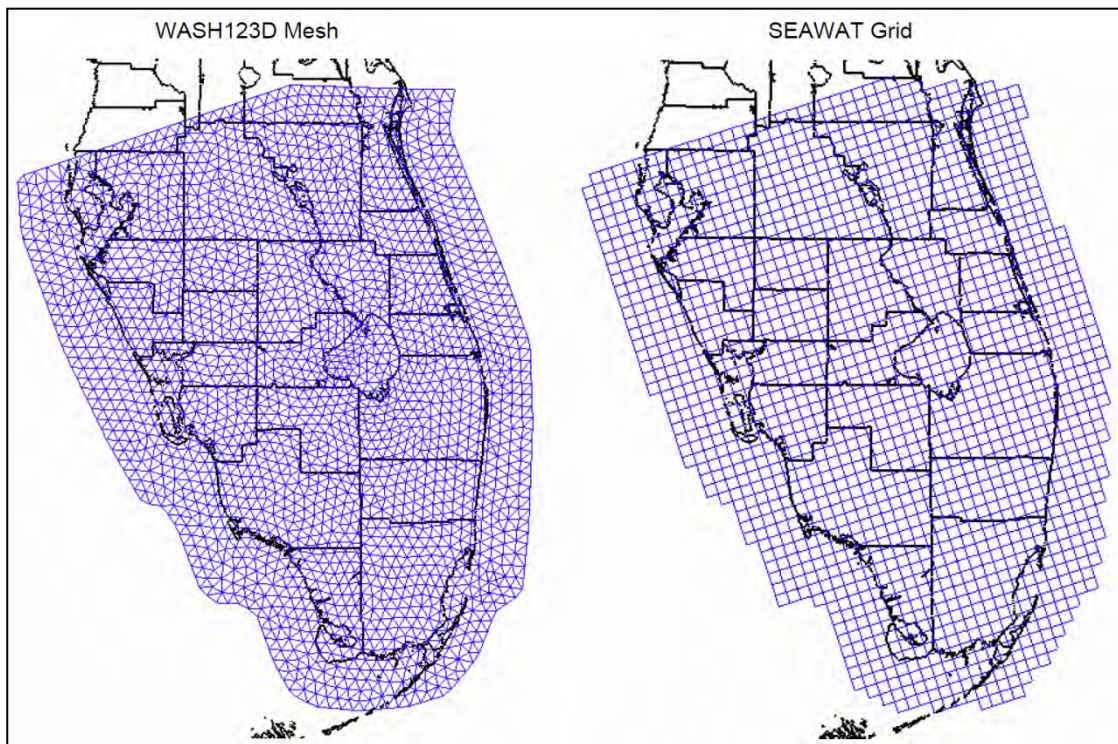


Figure 7-3 -- Phase I regional model extents.

1 Vertically, the mesh/grid was based on the geologic interpretations discussed in the preliminary  
2 hydrogeologic framework (**section 3.1**). The 3D mesh/grid represents geology between the water table  
3 and the Sub-Floridan Confining Unit. The top of the model is the low water table rather than the land  
4 surface. The low water table was generated by selecting the lowest value from the transient data set of  
5 SAS monitoring well heads in online databases and interpolating over the model area. Low water table  
6 was chosen for the top of model to eliminate computations in the unsaturated zone. These  
7 computations are not needed to reach the model goals and would slow model run times. From the low  
8 water table, the model extends down to a constant elevation of approximately -3250 ft NGVD. **Figure**  
9 **7-4** shows a cross section of the geologic units as classified in the 3D mesh and grid. The cross section  
10 shows the distribution of the model's 23 layers of nodes for the WASH123D model and 22 layers of cells  
11 for the SEAWAT model.

12

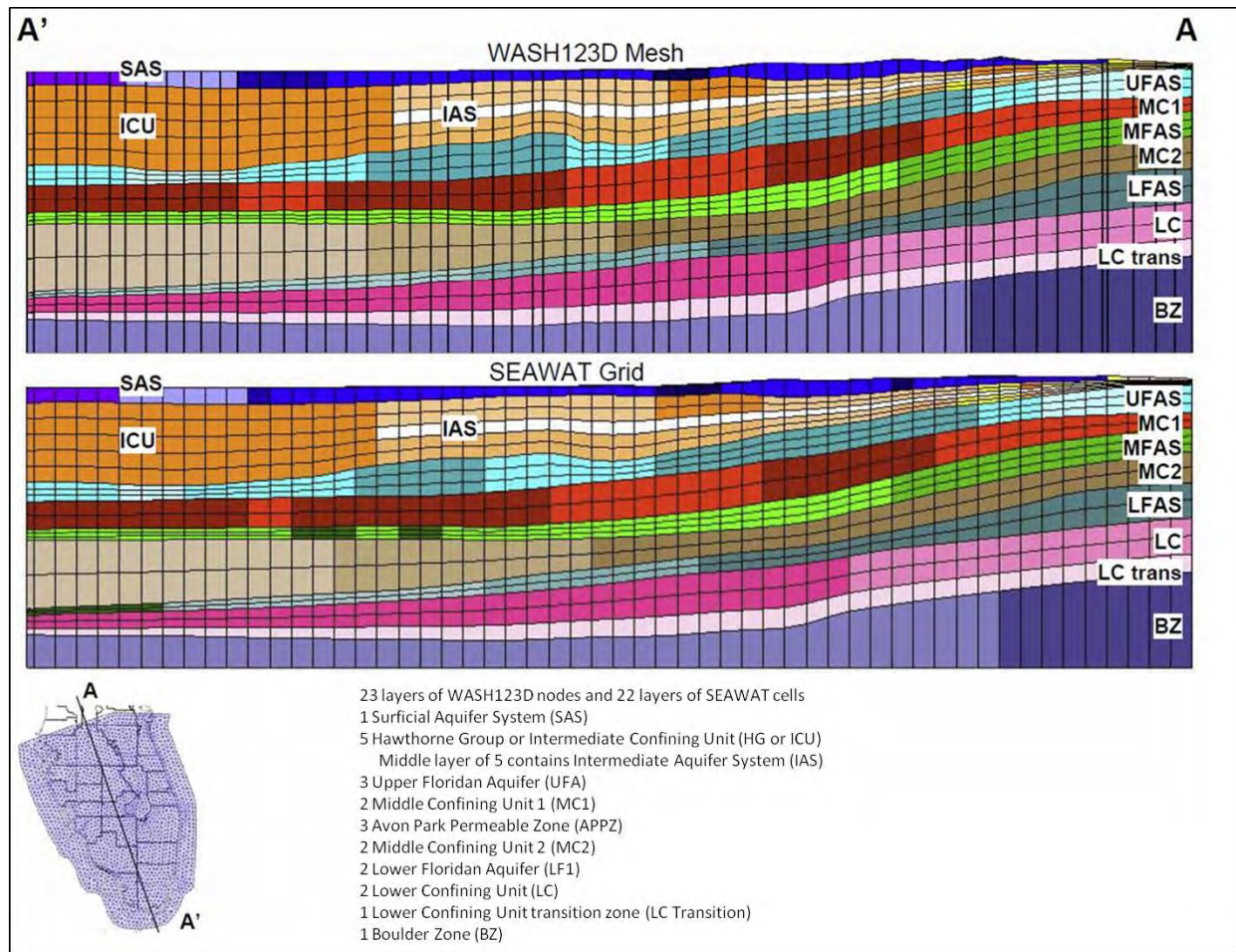


Figure 7-4 -- Phase I vertical model extents.

### 1 7.3.3.2 Model Time Discretization

2 Groundwater age data indicates that the groundwater in the southern portions of the FAS is up to  
 3 25,000 years old (Morrisey et al., 2010). For the Phase I model, a total simulation time of 35,000 years  
 4 was selected to provide enough time for groundwater to move completely through the system. The  
 5 computed head and salinity distributions of the SEAWAT and WASH123D model were compared at the  
 6 end of each simulation to evaluate differences between the codes and the effect of model parameter  
 7 variations.

8 Several time step sizes were evaluated to determine the largest time step (i.e. shortest run time) that  
 9 provides similar results. These time-step sizes included 0.1 year, 1 year, 5 years, 10 years and 100 years.  
 10 Plots for both the WASH123D and SEAWAT models were created depicting the head and concentration  
 11 variation over time at wells in the model domain. An example of this sensitivity analysis is shown in  
 12 **Figure 7-5.**

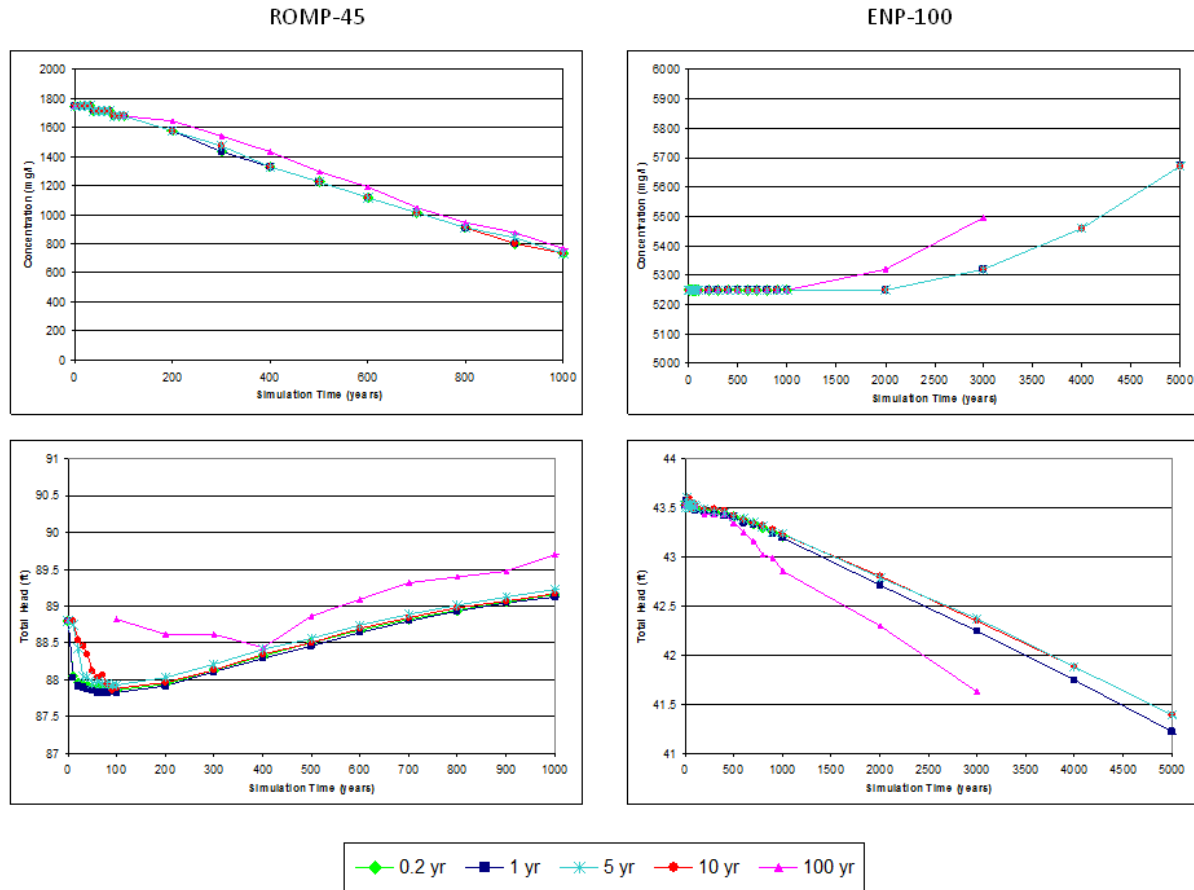


Figure 7-5 -- Phase I time-step sensitivity at selected wells.

1 Based on the results of this sensitivity, the 10-year time step was selected as the most computationally  
 2 efficient time step size. Simulations using this time step are completed in the shortest run time, but  
 3 yield results that are very similar to those produced by the smallest time steps.

4 **7.3.3.3 Conceptual Model**

5 **Geology.** The conceptual geology for the Phase I models was based predominantly on the findings  
 6 documented in the Preliminary Hydrogeologic Framework (Reese and Richardson, 2004; 2008). A  
 7 summary of this report is presented in **Section 3.1**, which correlates major aquifers and confining units  
 8 in key wells across the study area. Hydrostratigraphic surfaces shown in **Figure 7-6** were based on these  
 9 correlations and used to identify the depth and thickness of the geologic units.



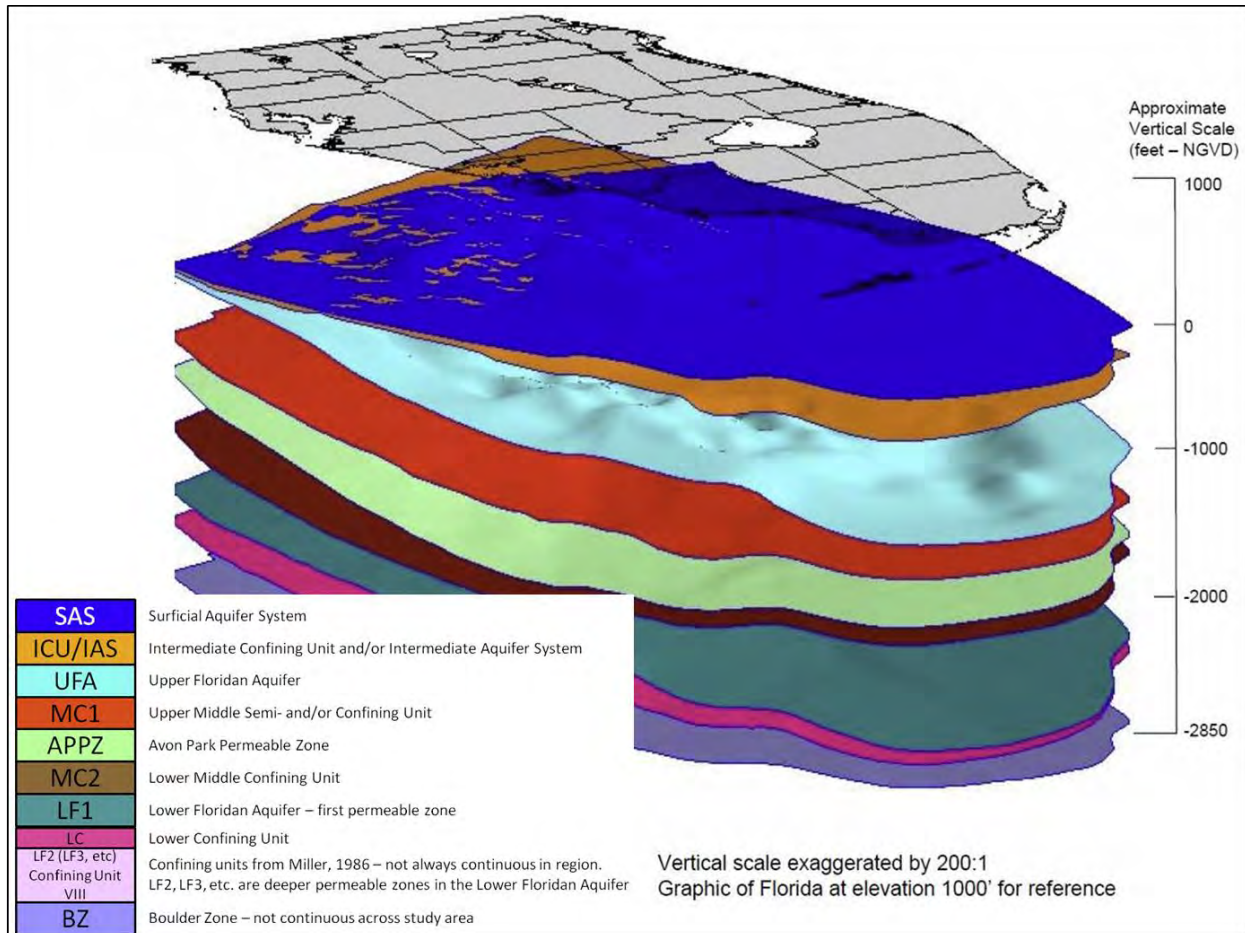


Figure 7-6 -- Hydrostratigraphic surfaces used in the groundwater flow model.

1 As discussed in **Section 3.1**, the major geologic units in the FAS include the Upper Floridan (UFA), Avon  
 2 Park Permeable Zone (APPZ), Lower Floridan (LF1), Upper Middle Confining Unit (MC1), Lower Middle  
 3 Confining Unit (MC2), and the Lower Confining Unit (LC). In addition to these FAS units, simplified  
 4 representations of the Surficial Aquifer System (SAS), the Intermediate Confining Unit/Intermediate  
 5 Aquifer System (ICU/IAS), and Boulder Zone (BZ) were incorporated into the models. These units  
 6 essentially follow the recommendations of CH2M Hill (2005), with the exception that the three zones of  
 7 the UFA were composited into one hydraulic unit and the Middle Floridan (MF) is defined as the APPZ to  
 8 be consistent with the Final Hydrogeologic Framework described in **Section 3.2** of this report.

9 **Hydrogeologic Properties.** For the Phase I modeling, hydraulic properties such as hydraulic conductivity  
 10 and storage terms were based on the preliminary hydrogeologic framework (Reese and Richardson,  
 11 2004) and other available data sources. For the aquifers, it was assumed that the vertical hydraulic  
 12 conductivity was one-tenth of the published horizontal hydraulic conductivity. For the confining units  
 13 and the ICU/IAS, it was assumed that the horizontal hydraulic conductivity was 2 times the published  
 14 vertical hydraulic conductivity values.

1 Any element in the ocean was assigned with an ocean material type and a high hydraulic conductivity of  
2 10,000 ft/d. Where the ocean abuts a confining unit hydraulic conductivity, a buffer hydraulic  
3 conductivity of 100 ft/d was defined to make the simulation computations more stable.

4 **Boundary Conditions.** Constant head boundary conditions were specified along the entire model  
5 perimeter for each aquifer. The observed groundwater level in wells was used to help define the model  
6 heads. Along the northern model boundary, the water level data are numerous for the SAS and UFA;  
7 however assumptions were required for the APPZ, LF1, and BZ head boundaries. For the remaining  
8 boundaries (east, south, west), the head for the SAS boundary was equal to sea level, but the heads for  
9 the UFA, APPZ, LF1 and BZ were estimated. These estimates were based on the limited water level data  
10 available at the time of Phase I model construction. For model simplicity, the APPZ water level was  
11 assumed to be equal to the UFA, while the water levels in the BZ and at ocean outcrops were assumed  
12 to be at elevation 0.0 ft. Since no pumping was incorporated into the Phase I models and these models  
13 were used to evaluate long term variations in regional flow and salinity trends, the boundary heads  
14 were assumed to be predevelopment in nature. Estimated predevelopment head contours maps of the  
15 UFA (Bush and Johnston, 1988; Meyer, 1989) were used to guide boundary condition assignment.  
16 Boundary heads in deeper layers were estimated based on a combination of observed water level data  
17 and predevelopment head trends in the UFA.

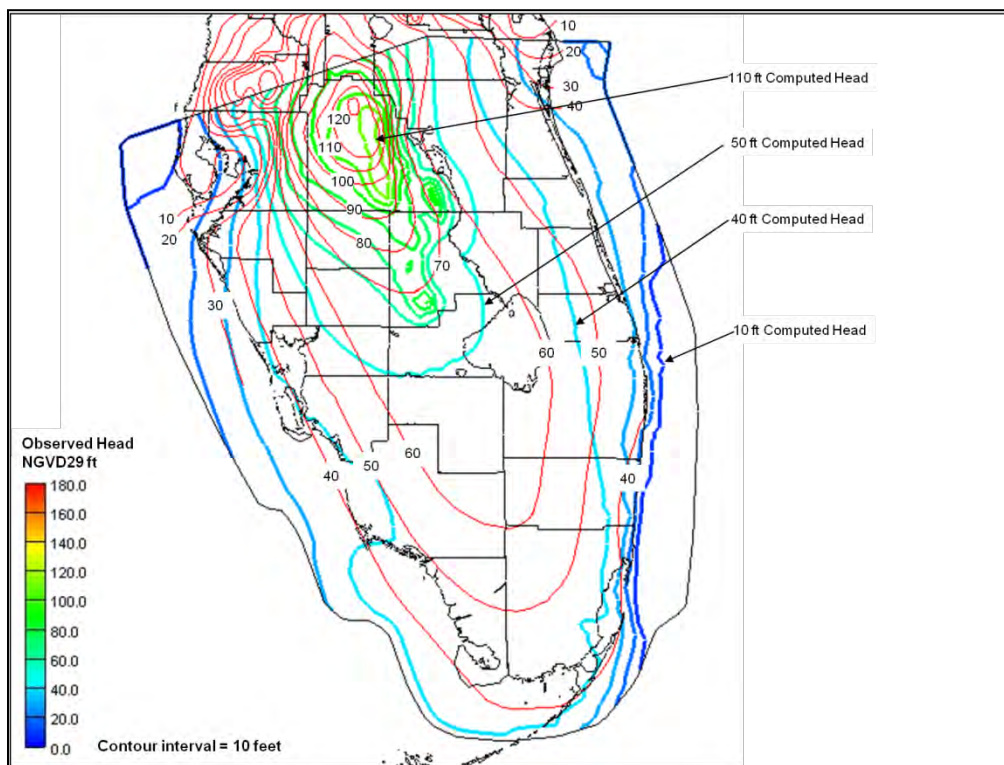
18 Boundary conditions for salinity were assigned around the entire model perimeter using a variable  
19 concentration condition. A variable concentration is equal to the concentration specified if the direction  
20 of flow is into the model. If the direction of flow is out of the model, the concentration on the boundary  
21 is computed by the model. For this study, reported measurements of total dissolved solids (TDS) are  
22 used as proxy for salinity. The terms 'TDS' and 'salinity' are used interchangeably in this chapter. For  
23 both WASH123D and SEAWAT codes, salinity values along the SAS perimeter boundary were specified as  
24 fresh water along the land boundary in the north and salt water (35,000 mg/L TDS) along the ocean  
25 boundary. Boundary concentrations for the FAS aquifers and confining units were based on observed  
26 concentration data. For elements in the ocean, a 100 percent salinity value of 35,000mg/L was  
27 assigned. Because of limited salinity data along the western and southern coasts, the 35,000 mg/L  
28 salinity value also was used for the FAS aquifers and confining units. The BZ boundaries were assumed  
29 to be 35,000 mg/L except for a small area along the northern boundary, which is less than 10,000 mg/L  
30 based on observed data.

31 **Initial Conditions.** The initial condition potentiometric heads were specified at every computational  
32 point in the Phase I models. The initial condition was used as a starting point in the iterative solution  
33 process. A constant total head was specified at the top of layer 1 for the steady state model simulation.  
34 The resulting heads from the steady state simulation were used to begin the transient simulation. Initial  
35 head assumptions had no impact on final results because the convergence criteria used for the steady  
36 state results was very small.

1 The initial salinity concentrations were specified at every computational point in the models based on an  
 2 interpolation of the available water quality data. Salinities were consistent with the boundary condition  
 3 assignment.

#### 4 7.3.3.4 Phase I Model Simulations

5 Since the observed groundwater elevations in the FAS across the study area are impacted by on-going  
 6 groundwater pumping and no pumping was included in the Phase I model, the results of the WASH123D  
 7 and SEAWAT simulations could not be compared to measured water levels. Instead, the model results  
 8 were roughly compared to estimated pre-development head contour maps published by USGS (Bush  
 9 and Johnston, 1988). The results of this comparison for the steady state WASH123D model are shown in  
 10 **Figure 7-7.**



11  
 12 **Figure 7-7 -- Pre-development groundwater heads in the UFA.**

13 In both the steady state and transient (35,000 year) simulations, the computed heads in the north of the  
 14 model generally agree with the pre-development head patterns, but are generally too low in the south.  
 15 The salinity levels in the upper portions of the FAS south of Lake Okeechobee also increased more than  
 16 expected at the end of the 35,000 year simulations. Several potential reasons for this model behavior  
 17 were identified, including:

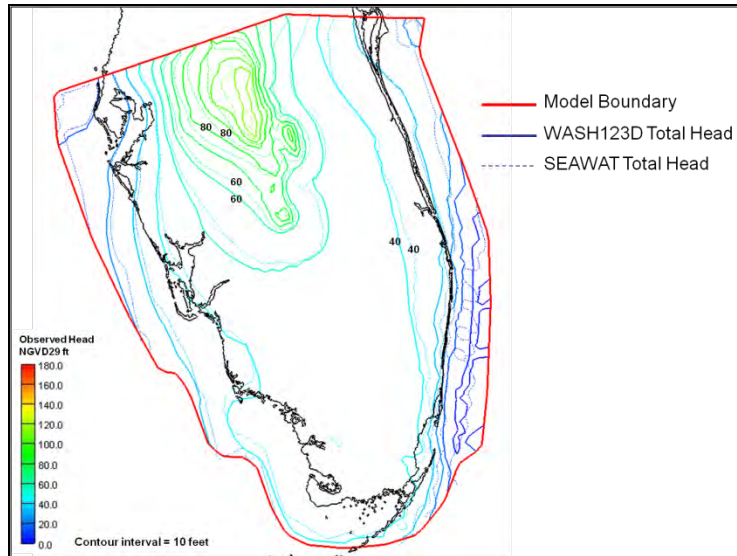
- 18 1. Possible regional anisotropy that allows freshwater entering the FAS in the north to  
 19 preferentially move to the south.

- 1        2. Initial salinity condition assumptions, which were based on the limited data available at the time
- 2        of model construction.
- 3        3. Uncertainty in the boundary conditions due to the location of the selected model boundary.
- 4        4. Variations in boundary heads and salinity over time due to sea level change.
- 5        5. Need for better spatial distribution of hydrogeologic parameters.
- 6        6. Need for finer mesh/grid resolution.

7        Although the computed heads were slightly low in comparison to estimated pre-development heads,  
8        the model was useful to address the Phase I goals and guide the Phase II modeling. The Phase I  
9        modeling indicated that the models were sensitive to the boundary conditions used to set the heads and  
10       concentrations on the exterior faces. Based on these findings, a thorough analysis of the existing water  
11       level and water quality data were needed for Phase II (see Appendix C of the Phase II Calibration report,  
12       provided in Appendix E of this report). Due to the uncertainty and model instability along the western  
13       boundary, it was determined that a more defensible model boundary was needed in this area in the  
14       Phase II model (see Section 2.3 of the Phase II Calibration report, provided in Appendix E of this report).  
15       The Phase I model results also indicated that the model resolution needed to be increased for the Phase  
16       II model in order to improve stability and to include regional and ASR pumping (see Section 2.3 of the  
17       Phase II Calibration report, provided in Appendix E of this report). Sensitivity analyses for flow,  
18       transport, and time-step parameters conducted during Phase I provided some insight for how varying  
19       model parameters would affect Phase II model results. Because these parameters are very dependent  
20       on model resolution, these sensitivities served mainly as a broad guidance for Phase II parameter  
21       variation.

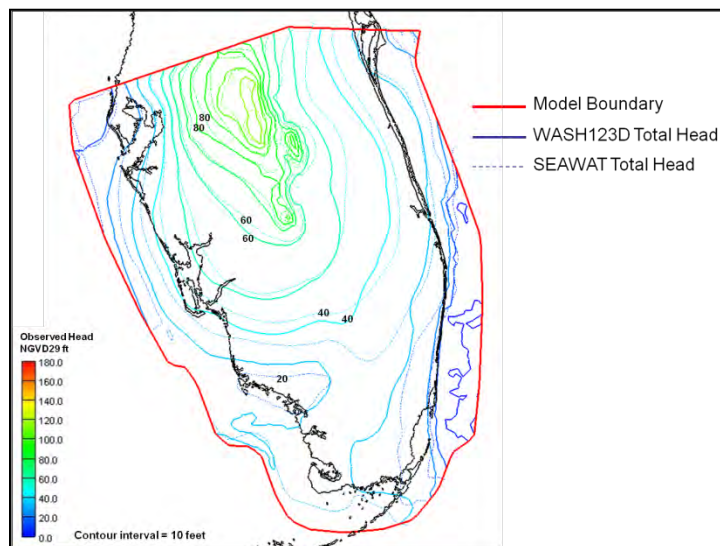
22       From a regional perspective, the flow patterns computed in the Phase I models generally reflect the  
23       conceptual understanding of groundwater flow in the FAS. Water entering the model in the Polk County  
24       recharge area moves downward to provide a source of fresh water to the underlying aquifers. The  
25       highest heads and lowest salt concentrations occur in the recharge area in all the aquifers. From Polk  
26       County, water moves in a radial pattern. As the water moves south, there is a point in the vicinity of  
27       Lake Okeechobee where the gradient across the confining units becomes upward. Saltier water from  
28       the units below the UFA and the ocean outcrop along the eastern model boundary intrude into the FAS,  
29       which results in increasing salinity in the FAS over geologic time.

30       In addition to identifying several areas for future improvement, the Phase I models were useful for  
31       comparison of the WASH123D and SEAWAT modeling codes. Although the FAS a complex flow and  
32       transport system, the two codes produced similar results. **Figures 7-8** and **7-9** compare the computed  
33       groundwater heads in the UFA from both models under steady state and transient conditions,  
34       respectively.



1

2 Figure 7-8 -- Comparison of computed steady state groundwater heads in the UFA.



3

4 Figure 7-9 -- Comparison of computed transient (35,000 years) groundwater heads in the UFA.

5 The minor differences between the results were attributed to variations in boundary condition  
 6 assignment and computational schemes resulting from differences in the numerical approaches of the  
 7 models. Although these differences in computational methodologies and treatment of hydraulic  
 8 parameters have a minor impact on the computed groundwater flow fields, both codes were  
 9 determined to be reasonable for future CERP ASR modeling.

10 In moving forward into Phase II, the recommendation was made to use both WASH123D and SEAWAT.  
 11 Since the two codes use different numerical schemes to compute the flow and transport fields, the  
 12 results of the two codes could be compared to determine if problems encountered with calibration

1 resulted from limitations in the conceptual model or were a function of the numerical solvers within the  
2 codes.

### 3 7.3.4 Phase II Regional Study (RASRSM)

4 The primary objective of the Phase II ASR modeling effort was to quantitatively evaluate the impacts of  
5 the proposed CERP ASR wells on the hydrogeologic conditions in the FAS. This evaluation was  
6 performed by using both regional and local scale models and incorporating the recommendations of the  
7 Phase I modeling. Each scale of model was used to address different project objectives. The initial work  
8 on the Phase II Regional ASR Study Model (RASRSM), which is described briefly in this section and in  
9 detail in **Appendix E**, involved the development and calibration of the regional scale models, which  
10 provided planning level information to address large-scale issues, such as the regional effect of the ASR  
11 well clusters on water levels, groundwater flow patterns, and the potential for rock fracturing. This  
12 scale of modeling is *not* appropriate for evaluating local issues, such as well-to-well interaction within an  
13 ASR well cluster, ASR well recovery efficiency, salt water intrusion, or upconing. These issues were  
14 addressed with local scale models that have significantly finer mesh/grid resolution and are discussed in  
15 USACE and SFWMD (2013).

16 The RASRSM was developed simultaneously using the USGS modeling code SEAWAT and the USACE  
17 code, WASH123D. Eventually, the WASH123D model was eliminated in favor of the SEAWAT model,  
18 which had a shorter run time. The local scale models were built using only SEAWAT. Although details of  
19 the WASH123D model are provided in **Appendix E**, only the SEAWAT model will be described here.

#### 20 7.3.4.1 Model Extent and Spatial Discretization

21 The Phase II RASRSM model boundaries were established based on conclusions from the bench scale  
22 and Phase I modeling efforts (Brown, et al. 2006; USACE, 2006). The side boundaries of the model were  
23 generally established along geologic outcrops to the ocean or aligned near observation wells using  
24 available data during the calibration and validation periods. The eastern boundary of the top model  
25 layer is located along the coast of the Atlantic Ocean. Subterranean geologic units extend eastward to  
26 their outcrop on the ocean floor, resulting in an additional 7,000 square miles of the model located  
27 offshore beneath the Atlantic Ocean. Ideally, the west and south boundaries would also extend out to  
28 the locations of the outcrops for each geologic layer in the Gulf of Mexico and be based on tide gauge  
29 data similar to the eastern boundary. However, these outcrops occur nearly 150 miles from the Florida  
30 coastline. Extension of the model boundary to these outcrops would add significantly to the model size,  
31 computational requirements, and the time required to reach a convergent solution. This would also add  
32 a large area to the model that has not been extensively studied, and for which there is no significant  
33 data regarding heads, water quality, or aquifer characteristics. Additional testing confirmed that the  
34 boundary effects on ASR performance measures were insignificant at the ASR locations. This analysis is  
35 presented in Appendix A of the D13R Report (**Appendix E**).

1 **Figure 7-10** shows the horizontal extent of the deepest layer of the model domain, which covers just  
 2 over 23,000 square miles of the Floridan peninsula. The northern model boundary for all geologic units  
 3 cuts across the Florida peninsula through Orlando. The western model boundary closely follows the  
 4 Gulf coast of Florida, beginning at the model's northwest corner, just west of Tampa. South of Sanibel  
 5 Island, the model boundary moves inland, crossing the Everglades to intersect the eastern boundary at  
 6 the south end of Biscayne Bay (Locations are labeled on Figure 1.1 of the Phase II report; USACE, 2011  
 7 and **Appendix E**).

8 The computational grid/mesh resolution was selected to balance the purpose of the model with the  
 9 constraints of time and computer resources. Higher resolution on the grid or mesh can provide greater  
 10 accuracy and detail, but can also tax project budgets and computer resources due to the additional time  
 11 required to compute the solution. This resolution was selected based in part on the recommendations  
 12 of the Phase I modeling.

13

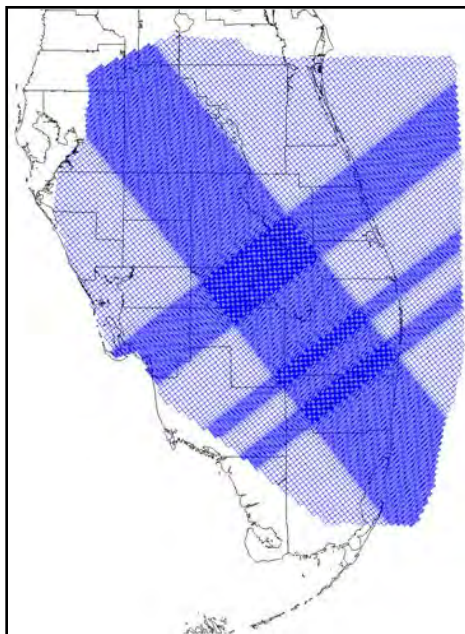


Figure 7-10 -- Phase II regional model extents.

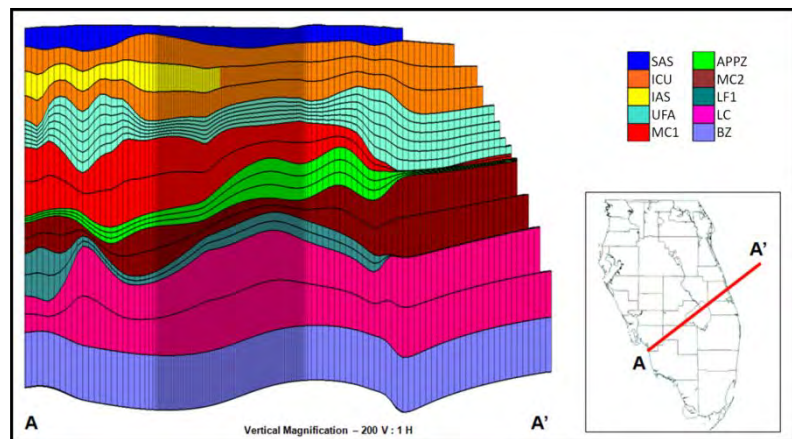


Figure 7-11 -- Vertical cross-section of SEAWAT model.

14 **Figure 7-10** shows the horizontal resolution of the SEAWAT computational grid. The smallest resolution  
 15 (2,000 ft) is found at the proposed ASR well cluster locations where greater accuracy and detail are  
 16 necessary. The size of the grid cells increases to 10,000 ft along the model boundary.

17 Vertically, the models extend from the ground surface to the bottom of the confined Boulder Zone (BZ)  
 18 member of the Lower Floridan (LF1) aquifer (**Figure 7-11; Table 7-2**). Although the top layer of the  
 19 SEAWAT grid is set to coincide with the Surficial Aquifer System (SAS), no calculations were made in this  
 20 layer. While the layer elevations of the model vary, the topographic high is near elevation 250-ft  
 21 NGVD29 and the deepest point in the model is about -3,600 ft NGVD29.

| Model Grid Layer | Hydrogeologic Unit   |
|------------------|--|
| 1                | Surficial Aquifer System (SAS)                                   |
| 2                | Intermediate Confining Unit (ICU)                                |
| 3                | Intermediate Aquifer (IA) /<br>Intermediate Confining Unit (ICU) |
| 4                | Intermediate Confining Unit (ICU)                                |
| 5-10             | Upper Floridan Aquifer (UFA)                                     |
| 11-12            | Upper Middle Confining Unit (MC1)                                |
| 13-15            | Avon Park Permeable Zone (APPZ)                                  |
| 16-17            | Lower Middle Confining Unit (MC2)                                |
| 18-19            | Lower Floridan Aquifer (LF1)                                     |
| 20-21            | Lower Confining Unit (LC)  |
| 22               | Boulder Zone (BZ)  |

1 As shown in **Figure 7-11**, the models include five confined aquifers and four confining units (note that  
 2 the ICU confines both the IA and the UFA, see **Figure 7-6**). The layering matches the results of the  
 3 Hydrogeologic Framework, pictured in **Figure 3-1**. Heterogeneity within the model layers was  
 4 incorporated using zonal modifications to hydrogeologic properties of each geologic unit, or pilot point  
 5 interpolation of hydrogeologic properties to individual cells of the model. Model grid layers are  
 6 assigned to hydrogeologic units as shown in **Table 7-2**.

#### 7 7.3.4.2 Model Time Discretization

8 The calibration period selected for the transient calibration of the regional model was October 31, 2003  
 9 through December 31, 2004. The calibration model was set up with 15 stress periods – one for each  
 10 month of the period. Most boundary conditions and source/sink options in SEAWAT require constant  
 11 values during each stress period. Thus, for head data, the average measured head during each month  
 12 was applied as a boundary condition for the entire month. For pumping data, the total pumped volume  
 13 was divided by the number of days in the month and applied as a constant flux during the entire month.  
 14 This simplification can result in some differences between observed and calculated data, but was  
 15 necessary due to the paucity of reliable pumping data available at many locations in the model domain.

16 The validation period of August 1993 through July 1994 was originally selected to be consistent with the  
 17 calibration period of the USGS model by Sepúlveda (2002). Analysis of the head data indicated that  
 18 October 1993 was a better starting point for the model since the heads were reasonably constant during  
 19 the period leading up to October 1993. The validation period was, therefore, shortened to October  
 20 1993 through July 1994. The same process of assigning month-long stress periods to the model period  
 21 was followed as explained above. Head results at the observation points are available at each time step  
 22 (approximately every 5 days). Head results on the grid as a whole were generally output every 10 days  
 23 to save on file sizes.



### 1 7.3.4.3 Conceptual Model

2 **Geology.** A wealth of geologic and hydrogeologic data is available for the regional model domain.  
3 Geologic interpretations were based primarily on Reese and Richardson (2008) and a draft report  
4 developed by Reese and Richardson (2004), which are summarized in **Chapter 3** of this report.  
5 Additional details on the application of the hydrogeologic information to the Phase II model are  
6 available in **Appendix E**.

7 **Hydrogeologic Properties.** Hydrogeologic properties such as hydraulic conductivity and specific storage  
8 were estimated for each model layer based on the available data. Then, during the calibration process,  
9 the property values were adjusted until an adequate calibration to available data was achieved. During  
10 calibration, the parameter values were required to remain within reasonable ranges as defined in the  
11 Reese and Richardson (2008), and incorporating data from aquifer pump tests (APT), packer tests and  
12 core permeability measurements provided by SFWMD (**Section 3.5**). Additional hydrogeologic data  
13 were collected from other sources and online databases including the SFWMD DBHYDRO, the USGS  
14 South Florida Information Access (SOFIA), the National Park Service South Florida Natural Resources  
15 Center (SFNRC), CH2M Hill (2005), and a number of published reports and papers.

16 On a regional scale, the hydraulic conductivity used in the model varies both vertically and horizontally.  
17 Over the model domain the flow zone hydraulic conductivities generally vary from 1.0 ft/day to 10,000  
18 ft/day, while the confining unit hydraulic conductivities generally vary from 0.000005 ft/day to 0.5  
19 ft/day. The spatial distribution of the hydraulic conductivity used in each geologic unit in the Phase II  
20 model is presented on Figures 4.31 to 4.40 of the Phase II Calibration Report.

21 Transmissivity was not explicitly determined in the Phase II Calibration Report. However, a recent  
22 compilation and regional extrapolation of transmissivity data was presented for the UFA (Kuniansky et  
23 al., 2012). Here, transmissivity values in the confined UFA of south Florida range between  
24 approximately 5,000 ft<sup>2</sup>/day and 50,000 ft<sup>2</sup>/day. Additional properties such as porosity, dispersivity,  
25 and molecular diffusion coefficient, were found to have little effect on the calibration of the model.  
26 Sensitivity analyses of these parameters are presented in Section 5.2 and 5.3 of **Appendix E**.

27 **Regional Anisotropy.** During the Phase I modeling, the SEAWAT grid angle was set at 18 degrees west  
28 of north to align with the axis of the Floridan peninsula. Bittner et al. (2008) analyzed a number of  
29 options for improving the agreement between the initial model results and the estimates of pre-  
30 development heads in the UFA from Meyer (1989) and Bush and Johnston (1988). They concluded that  
31 both the inclusion of anisotropy in the aquifers and the inclusion of temperature effects on density  
32 could improve the calibration of the model.

33 A lineament study (USACE, 2004) and preliminary results from some image log fracture analyses at  
34 SFWMD indicated that the dominant fracture orientation was NW to SE at an angle of approximately 38  
35 degrees west of north. For this reason, the regional grid for Phase II modeling was designed with a 38  
36 degree angle, in place of the 18 degree angle used in Phase I. However, after the grid was developed,

1 additional analysis by SFWMD indicated that the NW to SE orientation was based on a lumped view of  
2 all the UFA fractures from all the wells. When the data were split out to look at the dominant  
3 orientations from individual wells, it became clear that the dominant orientations varied geographically.  
4 The lumped view gave additional weight to a large volume of fractures in the UFA at the Kissimmee  
5 River ASR pilot location. This led to the conclusion that there currently is no conclusive evidence of  
6 regionally dominant orientation for fractures in the UFA. The anisotropy option was, therefore, not  
7 used in this Phase II regional model (although the grid angle of 38 degrees remained). These studies  
8 and their conclusions are summarized in **Sections 3.6.2** and **3.6.3**.

9 **Boundary Conditions.** The time-variant specified head boundary (CHD) was used for the top of the  
10 model and for the sides of aquifer layers. The heads assigned to the top boundary were set by  
11 interpolating available SAS head data. This method simulates recharge by allowing the model to  
12 compute flux in and out of the model to match assigned heads. The heads assigned to the eastern  
13 Atlantic Ocean boundary were based on the monthly mean sea level measured at two NOAA tide  
14 gauges. Note that with the coarse time discretization, this model does not attempt to reproduce daily  
15 tidal cycles. The heads assigned to the north, west and south boundaries were based on interpolations  
16 of average heads measured at monitoring wells near the model boundaries.

17 A no-flow boundary was used as the base of the model because of the much lower conductivity of the  
18 Sub-Floridan confining unit that underlies the Boulder Zone. Preferential flow in the Boulder Zone is  
19 expected to be horizontal with only insignificant flows in or out of the bottom of the model.

20 No-flow boundaries were used at cells along the side boundaries of the confining units, except where  
21 they outcropped to the ocean. The sensitivity analysis showed that horizontal flow through the model  
22 boundary in these confining units was an insignificant source or sink when compared to flow through  
23 the aquifers.

24 SEAWAT requires the user to define the water quality of the flows entering the model at any boundary  
25 condition. The SSM package (Source & Sink Mixing) was used to assign the TDS and temperature to  
26 each cell with a CHD boundary condition and all wells. For the boundary cells, the water quality of the  
27 incoming water was set based on the initial conditions at that location. For recharge wells, the TDS  
28 values were assigned using available data. Recharge water temperature values were assumed to be  
29 consistent with the temperature initial conditions for the SAS.

30 **Initial Conditions.** The initial conditions applied to the model included initial head, salinity and  
31 temperature. The initial head condition was based on early test runs of the model. For the transient  
32 model, the first stress period was solved in steady state mode to give the starting head condition for the  
33 subsequent transient simulation. It is important to note that while the initial head condition affects the  
34 speed at which the steady state solution is reached, it has no effect on the model results.

35 The model requires that initial salinity concentrations and temperatures be specified at every  
36 computational point in the model domain. In order to meet this requirement, an extensive data

1 collection effort was undertaken to identify representative water quality data from the SAS to the BZ.  
2 The collected data were interpolated to each active cell of the model.

3 In general, fresher zones in the deeper geologic units are observed in the northern portion of the model  
4 beneath the Polk County recharge area and south of Orlando. The TDS concentration increases to the  
5 south and near the geologic outcrops at the ocean. Additional details concerning the procedure used to  
6 develop the TDS data sets and initial conditions are presented in an appendix of the Phase II report  
7 (USACE, 2011), which is found in **Appendix E** of this report.

8 The starting temperature also was interpolated from available data and increases with depth on the  
9 western side of the peninsula but decreases with depth on the eastern ocean boundary. This trend  
10 creates a very large temperature variation, from 5°C to 44°C, in the BZ where temperature effects on  
11 density have the largest impacts on model results. The warmer west coast temperatures also extend  
12 through the mid-section of the state toward Lake Okeechobee in most of the geologic units.

13 **Sources and Sinks.** In addition to the model boundaries, pumping wells constitute a significant  
14 source/sink for groundwater in South Florida. This pumping includes withdrawal wells (irrigation and  
15 water supply, for example), existing ASR wells, and Class I injection wells. An extensive data collection  
16 effort was performed to compile and evaluate detailed data sets of the pumping distribution within the  
17 model domain. Over 30,000 wells were identified as active during the calibration/validation periods  
18 within the model domain. However, many of the wells were missing specific location information such  
19 as horizontal coordinates or open interval depths. Also, monthly transient pumping rate records for  
20 many wells were either unavailable or incomplete. As part of the data collection effort, estimates were  
21 made to fill these data gaps.

22 Additional effort was required to appropriately assign the pumping to the grid and mesh. The depths of  
23 the top and bottom of the open interval for each pump were converted to elevations based on the  
24 approximate ground surface elevation at the point. These elevations were compared to the model-  
25 simplified geology to determine the aquifer (or aquifers) impacted by each well. The pumping  
26 elevations were adjusted to prevent the model from pumping in confining units. Pump rates for wells  
27 covering more than one aquifer were prorated based on the length of open interval and the estimated  
28 hydraulic conductivity of each aquifer. Because SEAWAT requires all pumping to be applied to the  
29 center of a cell, all wells were automatically moved to the center of the cell containing them and the  
30 monthly pump rates were added to the pump rates of any other wells located in the same cell.

#### 31 7.3.4.4 Calibration/Validation

32 Model calibration is the process of varying model input parameters within a reasonable range until the  
33 model output matches observed conditions within some acceptable error criteria. For the Phase II  
34 RASRSM, a steady state calibration was first performed to the October 2003 and February 2004  
35 observed water level data sets. Once the steady state model was calibrated, a transient calibration was  
36 performed for the 15 month period from October 2003 to December 2004. Finally, a transient

1 validation simulation was performed for a 10-month transient period from October 1993 to July 1994.  
2 Observation wells for calibration were selected from the monitoring well database (see **Section 3.3**).

3 **Steady State Calibration.** A steady state calibration was performed for October 2003 and February 2004  
4 by varying the input parameters (principally hydraulic conductivity) until the model output (heads)  
5 matched the measured heads at non-pumping monitoring wells with data for either month. The model  
6 for each month was provided with a separate set of specified heads around the edges of the aquifers  
7 and at the surface, simulating different hydrologic conditions as reflected in the available data. The  
8 pumping data also were different for each month and based on the available reported pump rates and  
9 estimates. Starting conditions (salinity and temperature), hydraulic conductivity, and all other input  
10 parameters were identical for the two steady state calibration models.

11 The quality of the steady state calibration was evaluated in several different ways, including error  
12 statistics, calibration target figures, gradient analysis of well clusters, and comparison to other published  
13 information, such as estimates of recharge to the UFA and pre-development heads. More details on the  
14 criteria for selection of the calibration is provided in USACE (2011) and **Appendix E**.

15 During the course of the steady state calibration, it was found that the best calibration method was a  
16 combination of “trial and error” calibration with automated calibration using PEST, an open source  
17 calibration code developed by Watermark Numerical Computing (2004). The process also included  
18 numerous discussions with scientists from SFWMD to “truth-check” the calibration parameters against  
19 their superior local hydrogeologic knowledge and experience.

20 The main parameters varied for the steady state calibration were horizontal and vertical hydraulic  
21 conductivity for layers 2 through 22 (IAS through BZ). The conductivities were assigned smooth  
22 conductivity fields developed using the “pilot point method” (Doherty, 2003). Each aquifer or confining  
23 unit was given a set of “pilot points” placed somewhat randomly, but with a greater density in areas of  
24 expected heterogeneity. A hydraulic conductivity value was assigned to each point and a kriging  
25 algorithm (distributed with PEST for use with MODFLOW) was used to assign a unique hydraulic  
26 conductivity value to each grid cell. Details on the final calibrated hydraulic conductivity fields and  
27 comparisons of observed and calculated heads are provided in the Calibration section of the Phase II  
28 RASRSM report (USACE, 2011) found in **Appendix E**.

29 **Transient Calibration/Validation.** In order to model the successive recharge, storage, and recovery  
30 periods for the ASR wells, it was necessary that the ASR regional model be calibrated in transient mode.  
31 The addition of the time term necessitates a substantial increase in the number of parameters which  
32 can be varied during calibration. The hydraulic conductivity values had been tentatively set during the  
33 steady state calibration, though some iteration between the steady state and transient models  
34 occurred. Most of the transport parameters (porosity, dispersivity, and molecular diffusion coefficient)  
35 proved to be relatively insensitive on a regional scale due to minimal solute and heat transport occurring  
36 on the brief duration of the model calibration and validation periods (15 months or less). Specific  
37 storage was found to be the most sensitive parameter during the transient calibration.

1 The transient SEAWAT calibration advanced in a manner similar to the steady state SEAWAT calibration.  
2 The pilot point method was again implemented to create smoothed fields of specific storage.  
3 Calibration advanced as a combination of “trial and error” calibration and automated calibration. PEST  
4 was again used as the code for automated calibration.

5 Because of the time discretization (constant boundary conditions and pumping for each month) it is  
6 impossible for the model to correctly calculate the head every single day. The goal of the calibration  
7 effort was to match gross seasonal variations in head, including the average head during the driest  
8 period (usually during the month of June 2004) and the average head during the wettest period (usually  
9 late fall 2004).

10 See the Phase II RASRSM report (USACE, 2011) in **Appendix E** for specific details on the final calibrated  
11 storage coefficients and the comparison of measured and model-calculated heads. The same report  
12 also shows the results of the validation runs and the sensitivity analyses.

## 13 7.4 Groundwater Flow Patterns in South Florida

### 14 7.4.1 Concept of Equivalent Freshwater Head

15 Because of the large variability in salinity and temperature in the Floridan Aquifer System, the density of  
16 groundwater can vary substantially. These density variations can affect the direction and rate of  
17 groundwater movement. Both WASH123D and SEAWAT require the user to enter head boundary  
18 conditions and initial conditions as observed head based on local density, or the water level measured in  
19 a well. The models then use the temperature and salinity to calculate the *equivalent freshwater head*,  
20 which takes into account TDS, temperature, and pressure to determine the potential energy at a given  
21 location. The flow equations are solved based on equivalent freshwater heads with a pressure  
22 adjustment and then the solutions are converted back to observed heads for viewing and analysis.

23 Because model results are reported as heads, the solutions sometimes appear to show unusual flow  
24 patterns. When there are significant differences in salinity, groundr flow may appear to be moving  
25 upgradient. If the salinity is markedly different between two points, high heads may not correspond to  
26 high equivalent freshwater heads. More details on the relationship between observed head and  
27 equivalent freshwater head are given in Section 2.1 of the Phase II RASRSM report (USACE, 2011 and  
28 **Appendix E**).

### 29 7.4.2 UFA/APPZ Aquifer Flow

30 The model computed heads in the UFA and APPZ from the October 2004 steady state run are shown in  
31 **Figure 7-12** and **Figure 7-13**, respectively. The head contours have been overlain with flow directions at  
32 a number of locations to show the general direction of groundwater movement.

1 In general, water flows from the recharge area in northern Polk County towards exit points at the west  
2 and northeast boundaries. There is also a potentiometric high in the UFA and APPZ heads in the  
3 southern part of the model, from which groundwater flows in all directions. The source of this higher  
4 head water is the underlying geologic units (see the following section).

5 The APPZ groundwater flow pattern (**Figure 7-13**) is similar to those of the UFA. Flow directions are  
6 from the recharge area in Polk County towards exit points in Hillsborough, Manatee and Brevard  
7 Counties. Another groundwater high is found in the southern part of the model where groundwater  
8 flows radially in all directions from that high point.

9

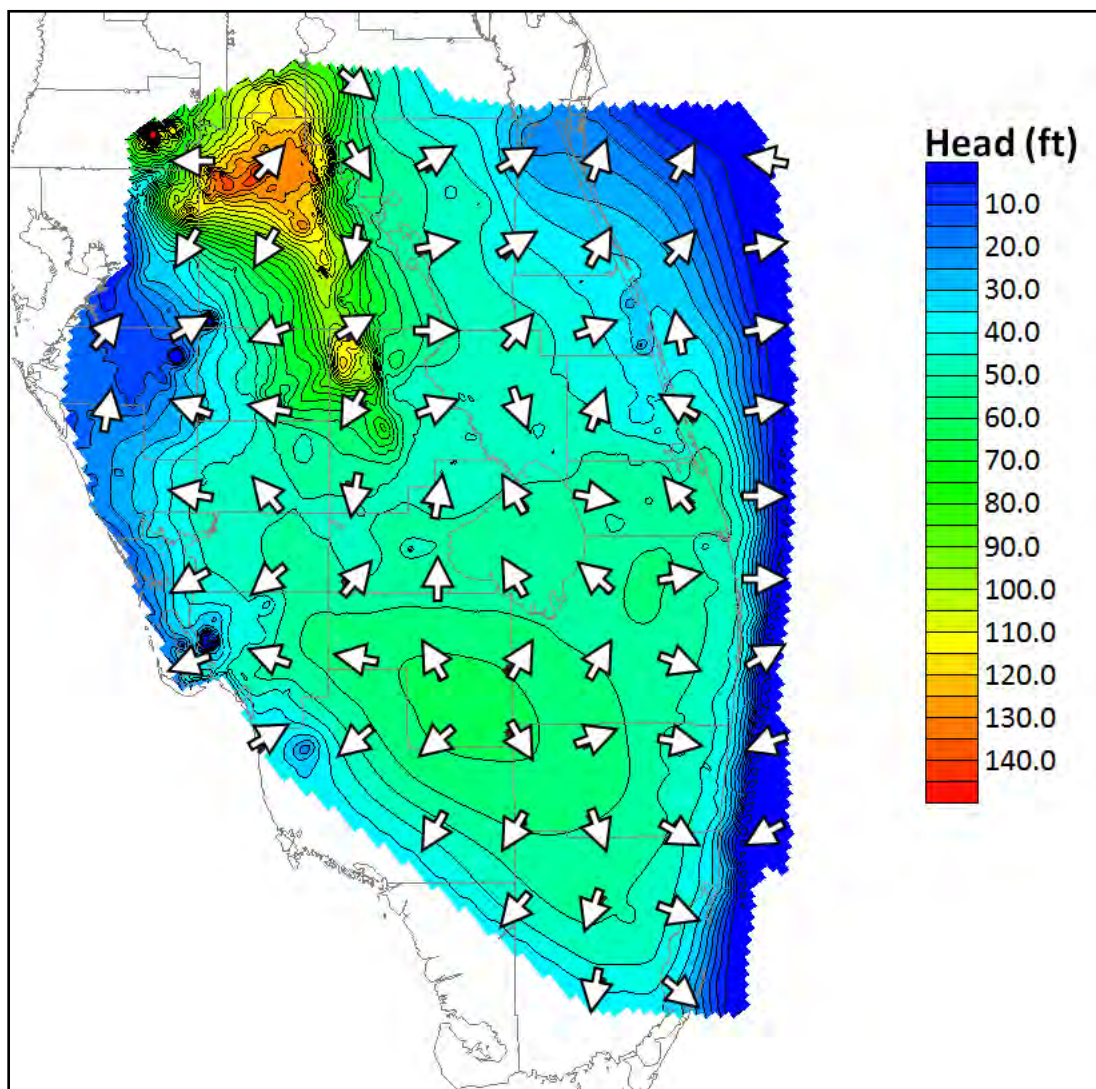


Figure 7-12 -- Model output heads and horizontal component of flow for UFA (February 2004 model solution).

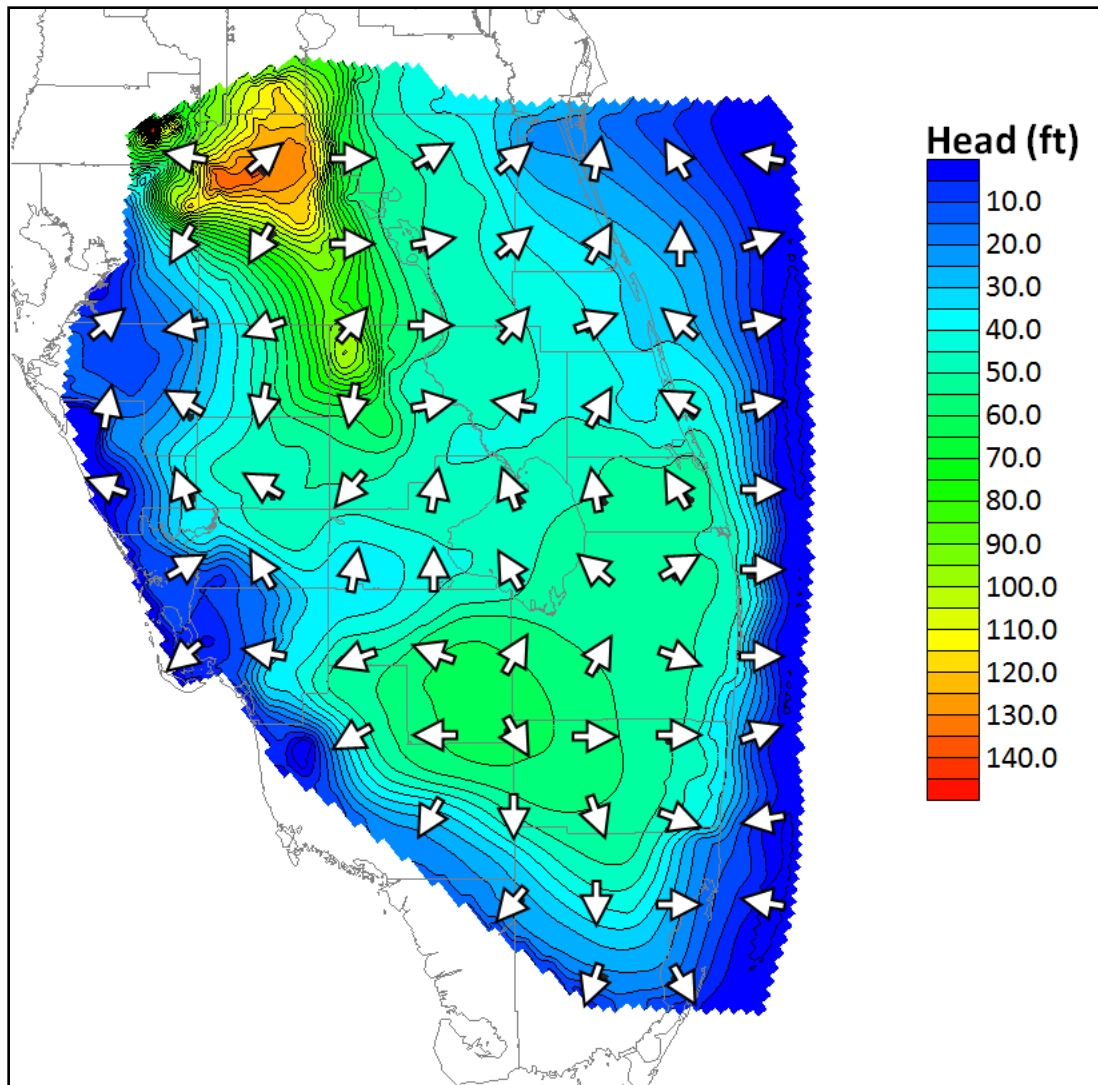


Figure 7-13 -- Model output heads and horizontal component of flow for APPZ (February 2004 model solution).

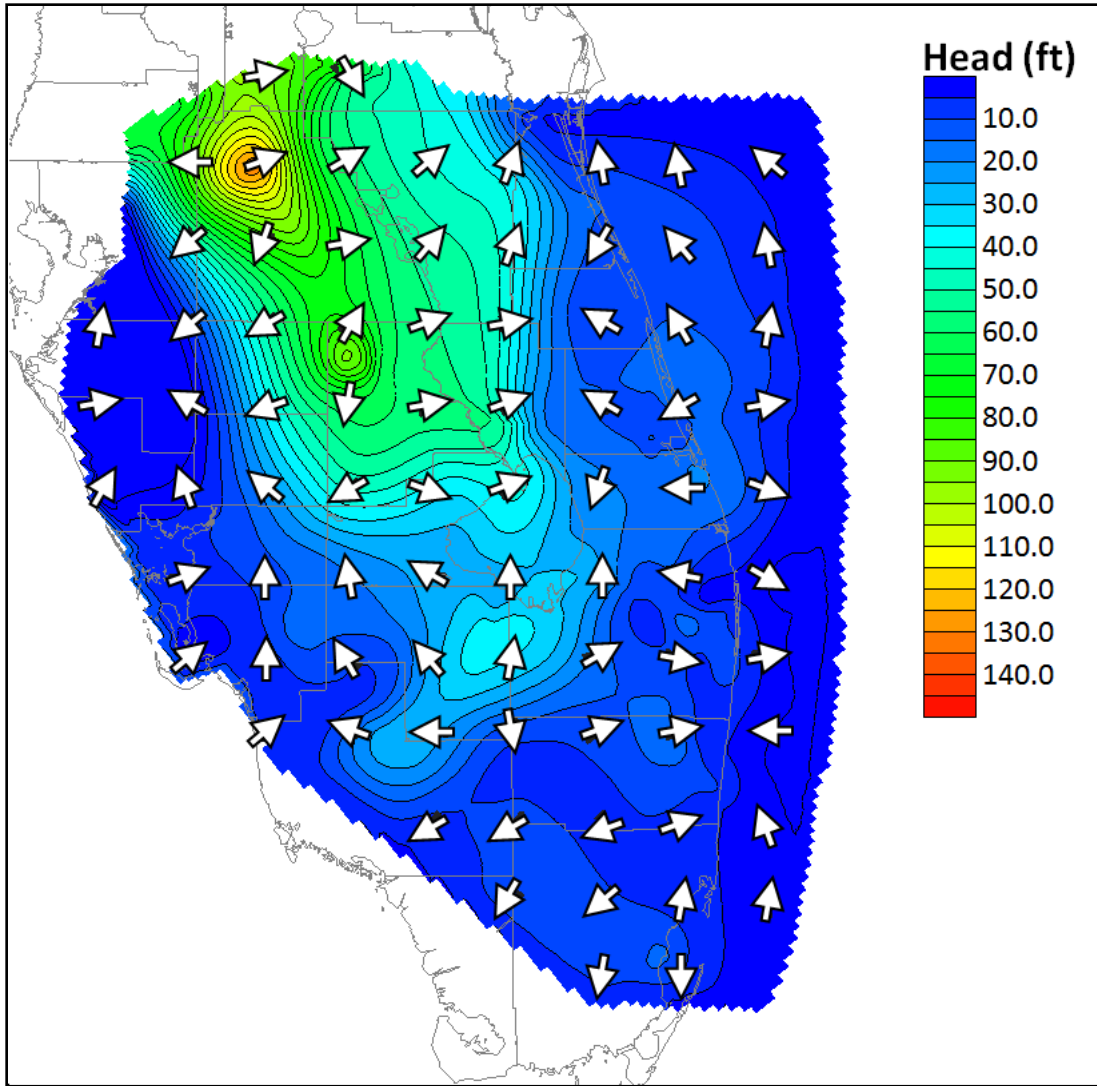
#### 1 7.4.3 LF1 and BZ Aquifer Flow

2 Model output for the LF1 and BZ layers are shown in **Figure 7-14** and **Figure 7-15**. The head contours  
 3 have been overlain with flow directions at a number of locations to show the general direction of  
 4 groundwater movement. Where large salinity differences exist, these flow paths may not be  
 5 perpendicular to head contours. Note that in these layers, the density has a great impact on flow  
 6 direction. In the LF1, the Polk County recharge area is still visible. Flow in the south of the model is  
 7 much more difficult to summarize because of a number of slight groundwater highs and lows.

8 The analysis of the BZ flows helps explain many of the anomalies seen in the shallower layers. As with  
 9 the upper layers, the Polk County recharge area is visible. The flow in the south shows a strong inward

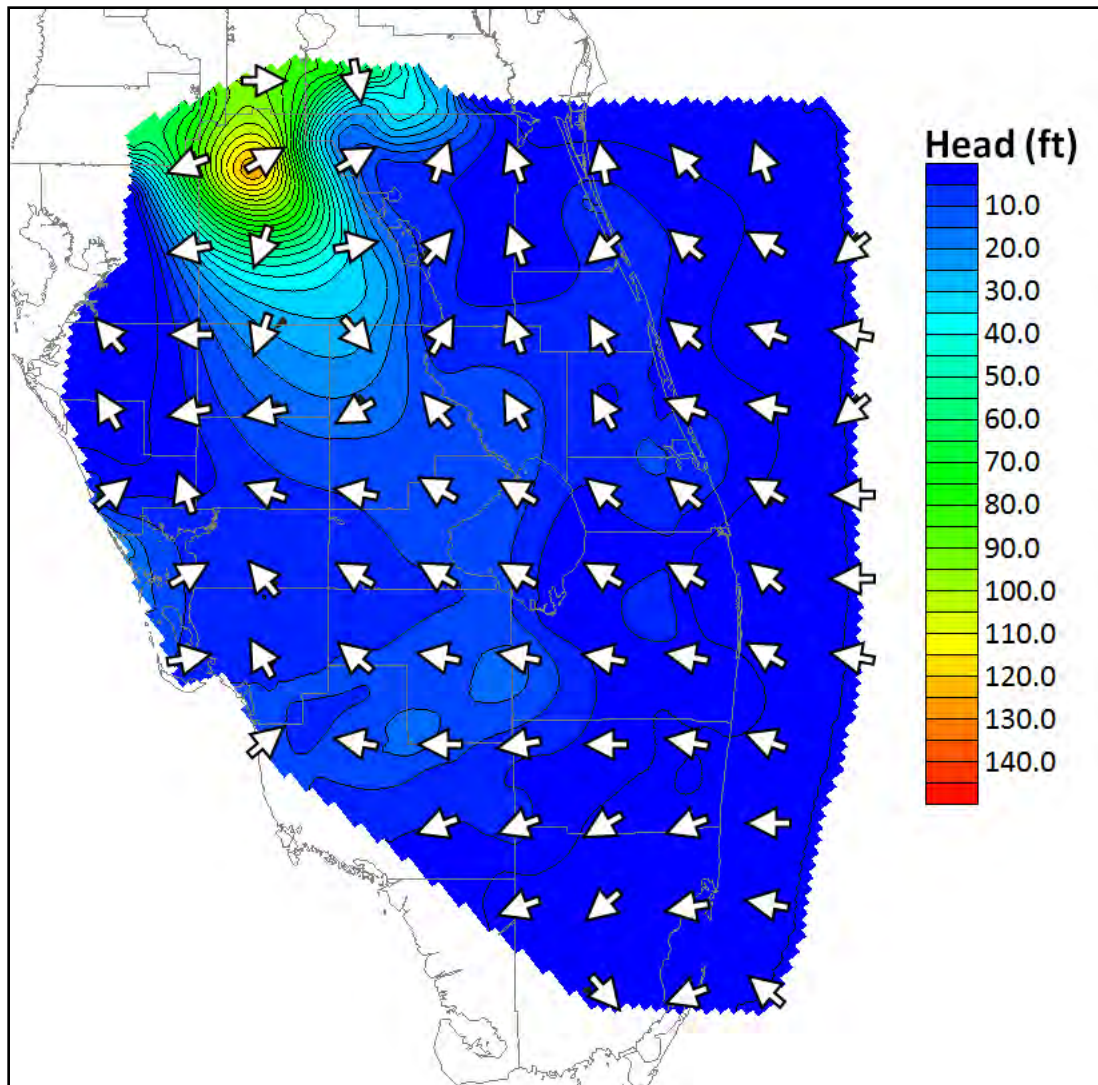
- 1 flow component from the lower east coast. This component of flow explains the groundwater highs
- 2 noted in the UFA and APPZ southwest of Lake Okeechobee.





1

2 Figure 7-14 -- Model output heads and horizontal component of flow for LF1 (February 2004  
3 model solution).



1  
2 Figure 7-15 -- Model output heads and horizontal component of flow for BZ (February 2004 model  
3 solution).

#### 4 7.4.4 Recharge Areas

5 **Figure 7-16** shows the discharge and recharge for the top of the UFA as calculated from the October  
6 2003 model solution. Blue areas are discharge areas (upward flow direction) and green, yellow or red  
7 areas are recharge areas (downward flow direction). Note that the recharge area covers the northwest  
8 portion of the model with the rest of the model discharging water through the UFA towards the surface.  
9 The area near the northwest boundary with variegated red and blue colors is caused by large cells in an  
10 area of great topographic variability. This area is not of concern for the validity of the model since it is  
11 far from the proposed ASR sites.

12 The upward flow noted in the remaining three quarters of the model is caused by the inflow of high  
13 salinity water from the ocean at the BZ level. Due to the high salinity and extreme depth of the BZ, the

- 1 ocean exerts great pressure on the BZ groundwater causing rising potential energy in the center of the
- 2 model for all layers.

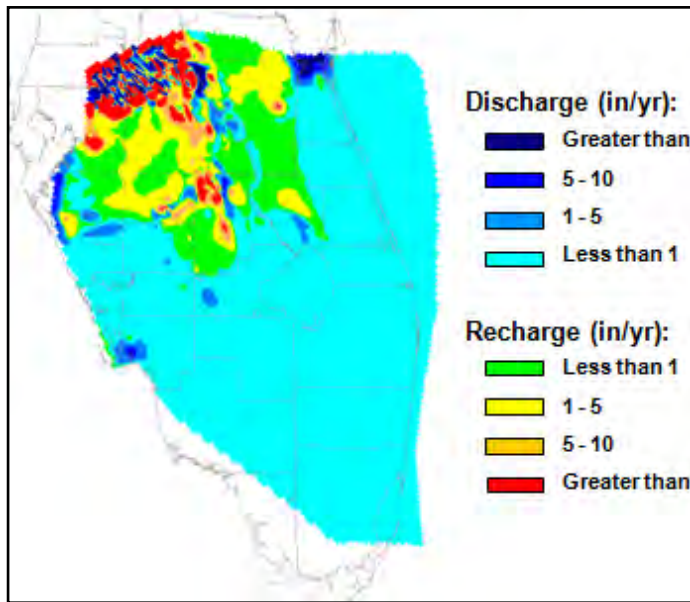


Figure 7-16 -- Recharge and discharge from the top of the UFA (October 2003 model solution).

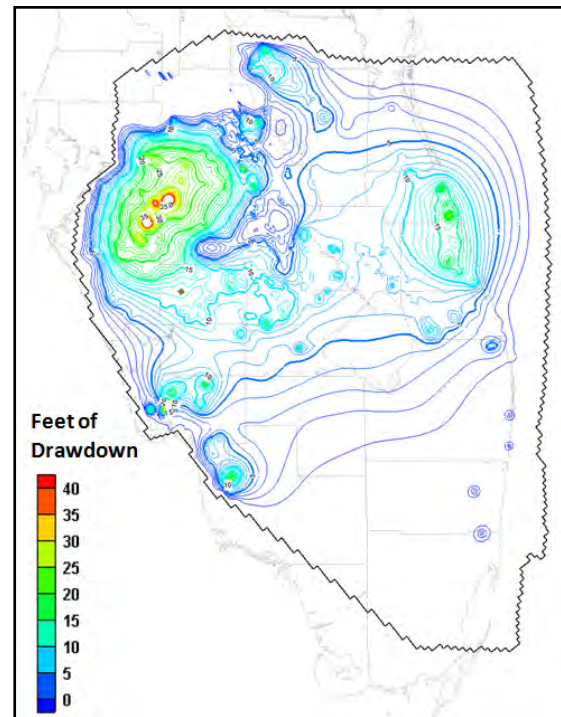


Figure 7-17 -- UFA drawdown caused by pumping. (February 2004 model solution).

### 3 7.4.5 Regional Pumping

4 Regional extraction pumping has a substantial impact on the groundwater system in south Florida.  
 5 **Figure 7-17** shows the impact of pumping on the model. The drawdown in this figure was calculated by  
 6 subtracting the heads from a model run with no wells from the heads calculated in the calibration model  
 7 run. Note that zero drawdowns at the north and west boundaries are not necessarily accurate.  
 8 Regional pumping affects the heads in observation wells that were used to set the boundary conditions.  
 9 When the pumping was removed from the model for this analysis, there was no way to remove the  
 10 impact of pumping at the boundaries.

11 The majority of the pumping occurs in the northern part of the model. Drawdowns can be significant,  
 12 exceeding 35-ft in Manatee and Polk Counties. Other areas of significant pumping occur along both  
 13 coasts and in the section between Lake Okeechobee and the Polk County recharge area.

### 14 7.4.6 General Flow Observations

15 The Phase II RASRSM results provide several general insights about groundwater flow in south Florida.  
 16 Additional details are available in **Appendix E**. General flow observations are summarized below:

- 1 • Flow is mostly horizontal in the aquifers and vertical in the confining units.
- 2 • The two major sources of groundwater are the BZ along the southern and eastern
- 3 boundaries and precipitation recharge in the highlands of Polk County.
- 4 • Pumping is a major sink to groundwater in the Floridan peninsula.
- 5 • Recharge in Polk County causes downward flow of fresh water all the way to the BZ.
- 6 • Inward flow of high salinity water in the BZ along the lower east coast is a significant source
- 7 of water pressure and high groundwater heads throughout southern Florida.
- 8 • Most flow is vertically upward in the southern half of the model (south of Lake Okeechobee)

## 9 7.5 Phase II RASRSM D13R Predictive Simulations

10 The regional impact of the proposed CERP ASR system was evaluated by applying the storage and  
11 recovery rates from the November 1998 D13R simulation on the South Florida Water Management  
12 Model [SFWMM] (USACE and SFWMD, 1999) to the RASRSM described in **Section 7.3.4**. The November  
13 1998 D13R simulation on the SFWMM is the “official” simulation recognized by the IMC and constituted  
14 the correction of a few errors found in the CERP Yellow Book document (personal communication, Dan  
15 Crawford, SAJ).

16 After first running the RASRSM with the CERP ASR design, simulated ASR wells were removed until limits  
17 on the performance measures were met. (See **Section 7.5.2** for a description of the performance  
18 measures developed by the PDT.) During the process, simulated ASR wells were added to other aquifers  
19 (APPZ, BZ) based on requests from and discussions with the PDT.

20 The SFWMM is a regional scale, physically based model that combines hydrology and water  
21 management practices in southern Florida. Model development began at SFWMD in the 1970s and  
22 several major revisions were completed during the last 4 decades. Although the SFWMM includes a  
23 groundwater component, it considers only surficial, unconfined flows and addresses them as 2D,  
24 vertically averaged flow. ASR wells are incorporated as reservoirs without the evapotranspiration  
25 losses. The model simply keeps track of the volumes of injected water (removed from the modeled  
26 system), applies a 70 percent recovery efficiency and tracks the volume of the net accumulation of  
27 excess water recharged during ASR. Recovered water is limited to the recharged volume. The SFWMM  
28 is only able to quantify the impacts of the ASR system on the water demands in the surface system. ASR  
29 wells are included as an additional management option for removal of excess water or supplementation  
30 during periods of water deficiency (SFWMD, 2005). The SFWMM is not able to consider regional-scale  
31 hydrogeologic impacts of the ASR wells in the FAS. The RASRSM was developed to investigate these  
32 hydrogeologic impacts which the SFWMM was not able to quantify.

33 The SFWMM-D13R included CERP and non-CERP projects and determined the volumes of water that  
34 would need to be removed or restored by ASR wells in six different basins. The maximum required rate  
35 for the ASR wells turned out to be 1.65 billion gallons per day. Assuming that all wells are sized to be  
36 able to pump 5 MGD, 333 ASR wells would be required to meet that maximum rate.

1 Although the SFWMM-D13R designated a certain number of ASR wells for each basin, the PDT for the  
 2 ASR Regional Study selected a number of property sites near water sources and divided the ASR wells in  
 3 each basin among the selected sites. The RASRSM-D13R adds the ASR wells to the selected sites and  
 4 then investigates the regional hydrogeologic impacts of these wells. The ‘calibration model’ referenced  
 5 in this section is the RASRSM before the addition of the ASR wells, when it was calibrated to field data  
 6 from 2003 and 2004 as described in **Section 7.3.4**.

7 The following sections give an overview of the RASRSM-D13R modeling approach, the selection of a final  
 8 scenario and the Monte Carlo analysis. Further details are available in the Regional Model Production  
 9 Scenario Report (USACE, 2014) which is attached as **Appendix E** to this report.

## 10 7.5.1 Approach

11 The RASRSM-D13R model was built using the same computational grid and geologic layering as the  
 12 calibration (RASRSM) model described in **Section 7.3.4**. This analysis made use of the results of all  
 13 calibration efforts previously described. Changes to the model included the addition of the ASR wells,  
 14 change of the model time period (which required adjustments to boundary conditions and source/sink  
 15 terms), and shortened stress periods.

### 16 7.5.1.1 Introduction of ASR Wells

17 USACE provided the daily volumes of recharge and recovery at ASR wells from the SFWMM-D13R  
 18 scenario for each of 6 basins: Lake Okeechobee, Caloosahatchee River, L-8, C-51, Central Palm Beach,  
 19 and Hillsboro. The number of wells required in each basin was determined by dividing the maximum  
 20 flow rate by the expected individual well capacity of 5 MGD. See **Figure 7-18** for the general locations  
 21 of these basins and **Table 7-3** for the numbers of required wells. Based on discussions with the ASR  
 22 Regional Study PDT, a total of 16 sites were selected for the simulation of ASR wells. Note that the  
 23 selection of these sites was based on current state ownership of the land. Other sites may be  
 24 considered in the future based on future ownership or leases of land. The L-8, C-51, Central Palm Beach  
 25 and Hillsboro basins each have only one possible site for ASR wells. The Caloosahatchee River Basin has  
 26 three sites and the Lake Okeechobee Basin has nine.

| Basin                | Number of CERP D13R<br>Planned ASR Wells<br>(5 MGD each) |
|----------------------|--|
| Caloosahatchee River | 44   |
| Lake Okeechobee      | 200  |
| L-8                  | 10   |
| C-51                 | 34   |
| Central Palm Beach   | 15   |
| Hillsboro            | 30   |
| <b>Total</b>         | <b>333</b>   |

27

1

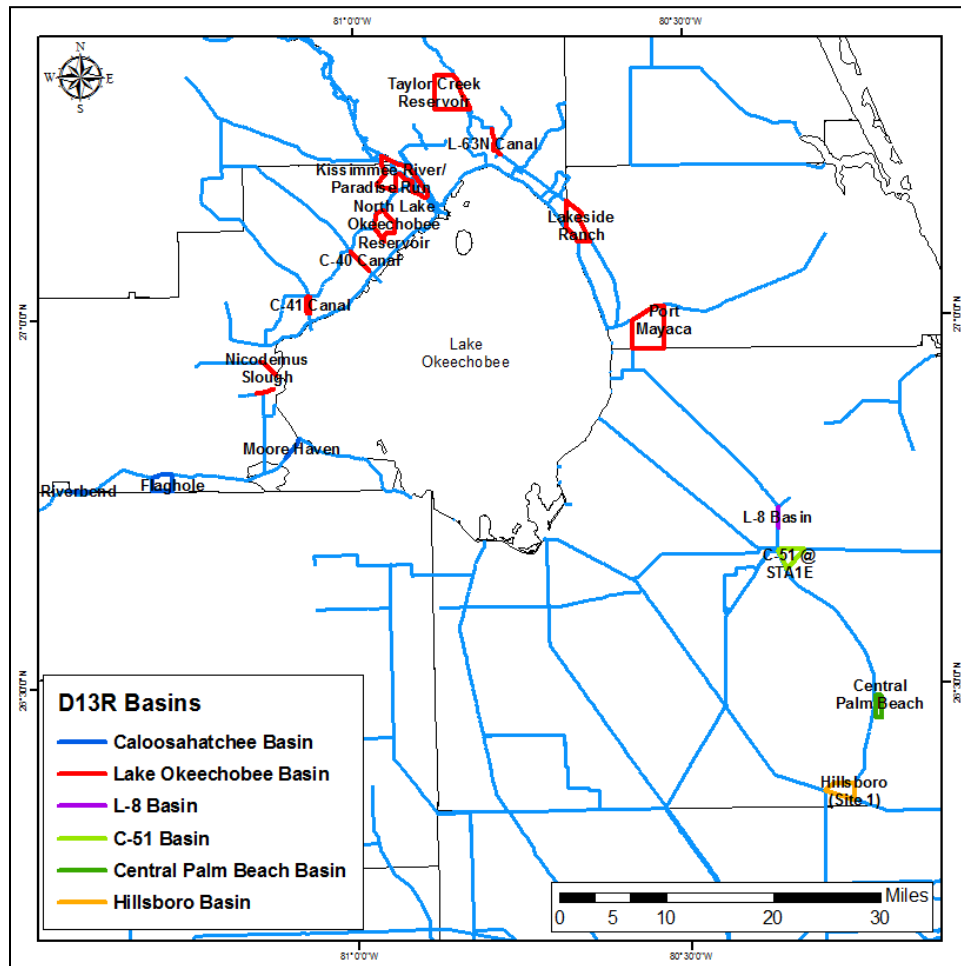


Figure 7-18 -- Proposed ASR Locations in D13R Basins.

2 The wells in each basin were divided among the available sites based roughly on the perimeter length of  
 3 the sites. As will be described in **Section 7.5.3**, as additional scenarios were developed, the numbers of  
 4 wells at each site changed from the original design.

#### 5 7.5.1.2 Modeled Time Period

6 The SFWMM-D13R scenario covered the 30-year period from 1965 to 1995. File size limitations and run  
 7 times make it difficult to run the RASRSM for such a long period of time. The input and output files for a  
 8 single 30-year RASRSM-D13R run required nearly 52 GB of storage space and the run-time was between  
 9 18 and 30 hours. In addition, some of the input files were too large for the allocation of memory for the  
 10 file buffer. In order to address the problems of run-times and space requirements, additional computer  
 11 resources were acquired and the decision was made to run a shorter section of the D13R period.

12 **Figure 7-19** shows the recharge and recovery rates and available aquifer storage at each basin.  
 13 Available aquifer storage is a running calculation made by adding 70 percent of recharged water (to  
 14 account for recovery efficiency) and subtracting recovered water. The year 1965 was selected as the

1 start time for the regional model run so that the starting condition would not be impacted by previous  
 2 recharge periods. The year 1977 was selected as the end time for the regional model run to include  
 3 periods covered by SAJ Lake Okeechobee models and to incorporate the entire first cycle of the Lake  
 4 Okeechobee basin wells (which return to zero stored volume in 1977). An analysis of precipitation data  
 5 and SFMMM ASR pump rates indicated that this shortened period covers a wide variety of hydrologic  
 6 conditions similar to what would have been seen with the full 30-year time period.

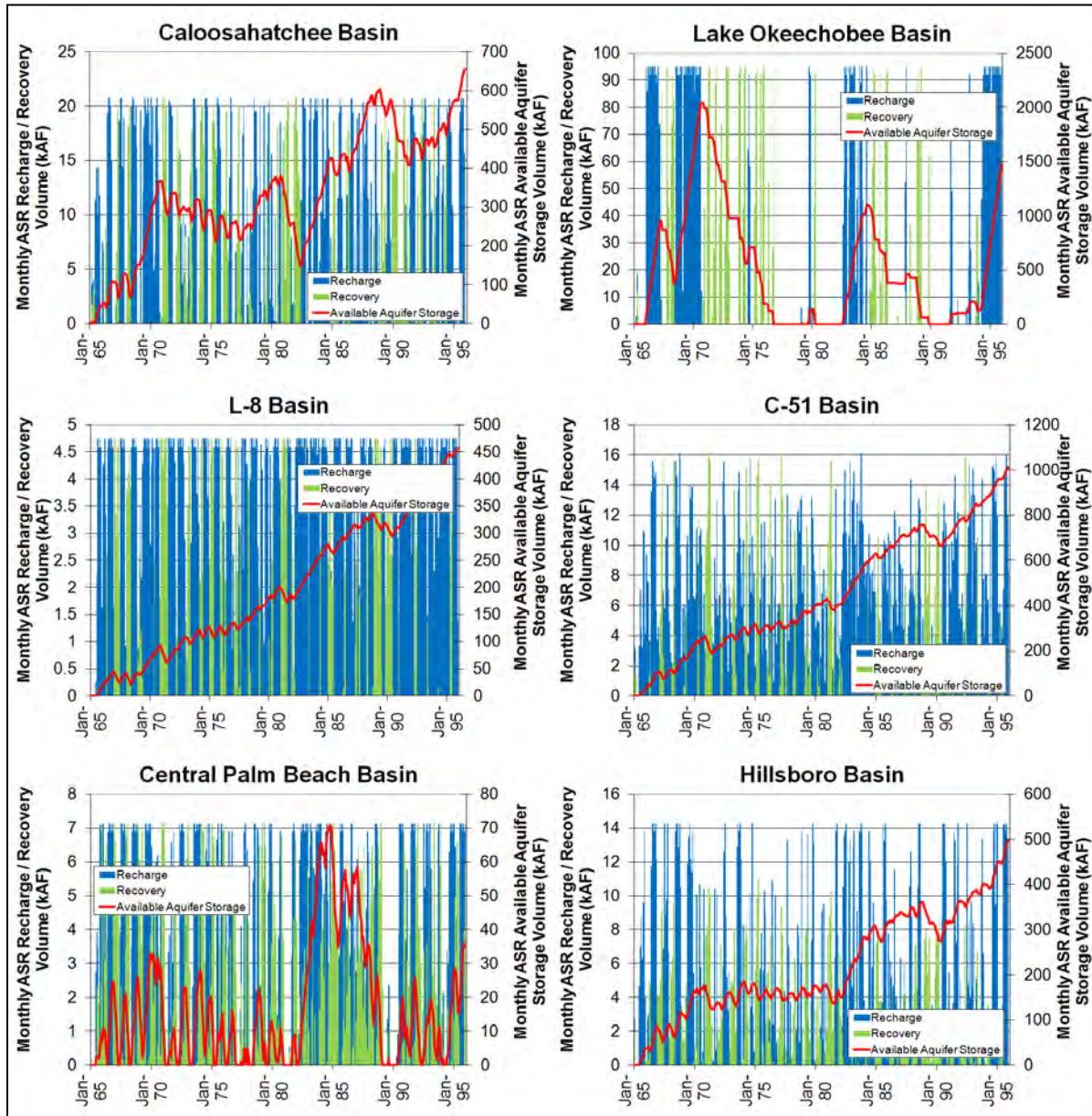


Figure 7-19 -- Monthly D13R recharge and recovery volumes with running storage volume.

7 The adjustment of the modeled time period required the adjustment of both boundary conditions and  
 8 sources/sinks (regional pumping) to reflect the conditions for the period 1965-1977 (as opposed to the

1 2003/2004 period used in the calibration model). The boundary conditions and the regional pumping  
2 for the D13R period were estimated using trend analyses of some available data and applying the results  
3 to the boundary conditions and pumping rates from the calibration model. Greater detail on the  
4 methodology is presented in the Regional Model Production Scenario Report (USACE, 2014) which is  
5 attached as **Appendix E** to this report. The resulting model was run without ASR wells and compared to  
6 some data from the era and found to match reasonably well.

### 7 7.5.1.3 Shortened Stress Periods

8 The calibration model was built with month-long stress periods, meaning that all boundary conditions  
9 and sources/sinks were averaged over the month and assumed constant for that period. Time-step sizes  
10 (calculation times) were approximately 5 days in length. This provided reasonable precision on the  
11 results for comparison to field data and calibration of material parameters.

12 The month-long stress period was found to be too coarse for the D13R scenarios due to the rapid  
13 changes in ASR pumping that often occurred in the SFWMM-D13R output. Pumping often changed  
14 significantly on a daily basis, even shifting from recharge and recovery and back again within the same  
15 month. In order to more precisely reproduce the ASR pumping schedule, stress periods were set to 10  
16 days, with 5-day time steps. These shorter stress periods resulted in larger output files, but provided a  
17 better simulation of D13R pumping scenarios.

## 18 7.5.2 Performance Measures

19 The PDT developed a set of performance measures which were used to assess the impacts of the ASR  
20 wells to the hydrogeologic system. Several of these performance measures were used to eliminate  
21 unrealistic D13R pumping scenarios and are called “specific” performance measures. Other  
22 performance measures were simply used to provide decision-making information and are called  
23 “informative” performance measures.

### 24 7.5.2.1 Specific Performance Measure: Rock Fracturing

25 One of the initial concerns, expressed early in the regional ASR study process, was that large volume,  
26 high pressure recharge into the aquifers would fracture rock that includes the UFA or overlying confining  
27 units. Rock fracturing could result in significant, permanent changes to the subsurface hydrogeologic  
28 conditions of south Florida and vertical leakage between permeable zones. The PDT turned to Nick  
29 Geibel of USACE Omaha District to analyze the strength of the rock and the pressures that would cause  
30 rock fracturing (Geibel and Brown, 2012).

31 This analysis resulted in a calculation of the maximum allowable head at each point in each aquifer. An  
32 example result is shown for the UFA in **Figure 7-20**. A similar analysis was made for the APPZ and can be  
33 found in USACE (2014), also in Appendix E. In the UFA, the maximum allowable total head in the areas  
34 of the proposed ASR sites ranged from 300-ft to 600-ft. In the APPZ, maximum allowable total heads



- 1 were even higher. Because these limits were so high, other performance measures became limiting
- 2 factors and the D13R scenario results were not compared to these rock fracturing limits.

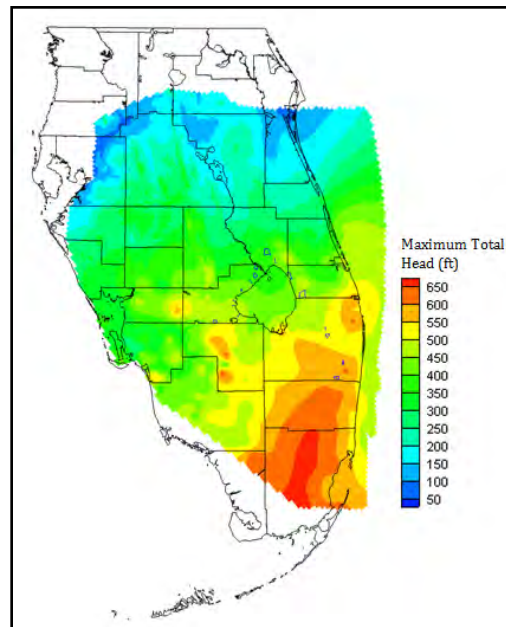


Figure 7-20 -- Maximum total head estimated to preclude rock fracturing (UFA).

### 3 7.5.2.2 Specific Performance Measure: Pump Pressure

4 As the PDT discussed the ramifications of early model results, it became clear that a limit should be set  
5 on the pressure the ASR pumps were required to overcome. The well package in SEAWAT forces the  
6 user-defined fluxes into the model without regard to the size of the pump that would be required to  
7 achieve this flux rate. The PDT determined that it would be unlikely that an ASR pump would be able to  
8 overcome more than 100 psi of head. This is also the pressure at which most FAS wells are tested and  
9 the pressure at which both the KRASR and HASR system ASR wells were tested. This performance  
10 measure was used in the first few RASRSM-D13R scenarios to eliminate ASR wells from sites where this  
11 pressure would be exceeded.

12 The source of the recharge water was assumed to be a surface water body located near the ASR site.  
13 Thus, the head to overcome is approximately equal to the difference between the model-calculated  
14 aquifer head and the ground surface elevation at the well, if head losses and pump efficiency are  
15 ignored. This head difference can be converted to pressure using the density of water. Greater detail  
16 on this calculation is provided in USACE (2014) and **Appendix E**.

### 17 7.5.2.3 Specific Performance Measure: Artesian Pressure Protection Area (APPA)

18 Another performance measure requested by the PDT was the evaluation of the impact of ASR on the  
19 artesian pressure in the UFA and APPZ aquifers in St. Lucie and Martin Counties. Water users in that  
20 area depend on the artesian heads for water withdrawal. Permits for ASR systems in the APPA will

1 require that the flow from artesian aquifers not be reduced by more than 10 percent as a result of the  
2 project.

3 Merritt (1997) presents an equation to estimate the flow from an artesian aquifer. When added to a  
4 percent reduction equation and simplified, the remaining parameters include only the ground surface  
5 elevation and the aquifer head estimated with and without the ASR wells. This calculation was made  
6 for each cell in St. Lucie and Martin Counties at each output time step for the UFA and APPZ. The result  
7 was reported with maps of the UFA and APPZ layers with the cells colored by the maximum percent flow  
8 reduction across the time period. Additional details are available in the Phase II RASRSM report (USACE,  
9 2014; **Appendix E** of this report).

#### 10 7.5.2.4 Informative Performance Measure: Head Impacts

11 Another matter of importance when analyzing the regional effects of the CERP ASR program is the  
12 drawdown which might be experienced by neighboring water users due to the extraction cycles on the  
13 ASR wells. For permitting purposes, it is important to know the extent of the 1-ft and 5-ft drawdown  
14 contours. Since CERP ASR wells in each basin have different pumping schedules and varying rates, it is  
15 not reasonable to select a specific time period during the 13-year model run at which maximum  
16 drawdown would be expected for the entire model. Instead, the drawdown was calculated for each cell  
17 of the model at each output time step by subtracting the head in a model run with no ASR wells from  
18 that in the ASR simulation. Then, at each cell, the maximum drawdown was extracted and combined  
19 with the maximums in other cells into a single dataset representing the maximum drawdown over the  
20 model run period (1965-1977). Note that the maximum drawdown may not occur at the same time in  
21 each cell of the model. The 1-foot contour and the 5-foot contour were delineated for each aquifer and  
22 these contours are plotted in output figures (see USACE, 2014; **Appendix E** of this report).

23 Although neighboring users may, at some periods, experience reductions in water levels due to ASR  
24 recovery, they will also, at other periods, experience increases in water levels due to ASR recharge  
25 (mounding). Similar to the drawdown analysis, the maximum mounding in each cell was combined into  
26 a single dataset and the 1-foot and 5-foot mounding contours for each aquifer are presented on maps  
27 (USACE, 2014). Note again that the maximum mounding may not occur at the same time in each cell of  
28 the model.

29 The maximum drawdown and mounding figures give a good picture of the worst-case scenario for head  
30 impacts. However, this worst case may be a rare occurrence over the 13-year simulation. In addition,  
31 the mounding is generally greater and longer lasting than the drawdown. These details are not evident  
32 in the previously described maximum drawdown and mounding map figures. To give an idea of the  
33 temporal component of head impacts to neighboring users, additional figures are provided for each  
34 scenario that show time plots of drawdown and mounding at numerous locations near the ASR sites  
35 (USACE, 2014 and Appendix E). These locations are positioned at distances of 5, 15, and 25 miles from  
36 the proposed ASR well sites and have been chosen in all radial directions.

1 Although the drawdown/mounding analysis is listed here as a performance measure, the PDT has not  
2 selected a drawdown/mounding limit beyond which the ASR scenario would be rejected. Although  
3 these results did not impact scenario selection in the same way that the other performance measures  
4 did, these results are important for stakeholders and decision-makers and, as such, is termed an  
5 informative performance measure.

#### 6 7.5.2.5 Water Quality Migration and Salt Water Intrusion

7 Because the ASR wells will recharge fresh water to mostly saline aquifers, and because the recharge  
8 volumes will exceed recovery volumes, it is reasonable to expect that the CERP ASR plan will have a  
9 beneficial impact on coastal seawater intrusion and overall water quality in the Floridan peninsula. The  
10 PDT wished to quantify this impact since it is an advantage of ASR system over some other components  
11 of CERP. Other members of the PDT expressed some concern that the ASR systems might push low  
12 quality water into the zone of influence of a water supply well and requested that this possible impact  
13 be investigated.

14 Unfortunately, this regional model is not well-suited to answering these questions for at least two  
15 reasons. First, the cells are too large to accurately portray solute transport, especially near the wells.  
16 Second, impacts to salinity at locations far from the ASR wells are highly dependent on transport  
17 parameters such as dispersion, which could not be calibrated due to lack of TDS time series data and the  
18 short time period of the calibration models. Investigations of water quality migration are better suited  
19 to pilot study cycle testing with associated local-scale models (USACE and SFWMD, 2013). This  
20 performance measure was not evaluated with the regional model.

#### 21 7.5.2.6 Informative Performance Measure: Ability to Provide Storage/Recovery Designated in 22 SFWMM-D13R

23 SFWMM-D13R was developed to be able to meet urban, agricultural, and ecological water supply  
24 requirements. It also provides storage for excess water that may be required later. Many of the  
25 scenarios tested in the RASRSM-D13R involved a reduction in the number of ASR wells from the  
26 SFWMM-D13R design, or a reduction in the volume pumped. The volume of stored and recovered  
27 water that can be provided by each scenario will be important for decision-makers.

28 Like the drawdown performance measure, the PDT defined no limit beyond which the scenario would be  
29 rejected based on storage and recovery rates, so this is designated as an informative performance  
30 measure. Plots are provided showing the total annual injected and extracted volumes for each scenario  
31 compared to the volumes defined by SFWMM-D13R. This allows decision makers to quickly analyze the  
32 water volumes that would need to be made up using other components of CERP.

### 1 7.5.3 Development of Scenarios

2 After the calibrated RASRSM model had been adjusted to reflect the 1965-1977 period as described  
3 previously, the model was first set up to run the entire suite of 333 ASR wells as designated in SFWMM-  
4 D13R. The locations of these wells are shown on **Figure 7-14**. The results were compared to the full  
5 suite of performance measures and then the PDT designed a number of follow-up simulations, which  
6 were also analyzed against the performance measures. The following scenarios were run using the  
7 regional model and are discussed below:

8 **Scenario 1:** Full D13R design from SFWMM

9 **Scenario 2:** Scale back Scenario 1 to meet pump pressure requirement by successively removing  
10 wells from the model until pump pressures are near or below 100 psi. This is not a unique  
11 design – there may be other arrangements of the wells that will meet this requirement, but will  
12 have more or fewer wells or a different distribution of the same number of wells.

13 **Scenario 3:** Add all wells that were removed for Scenario 2 to the APPZ. This simulation allows for  
14 full recharge capacity, but because of the assumed lower (30 percent) recovery efficiency in the  
15 APPZ, the recovery volumes are often lower than the original SFWMM-D13R design. Recovery  
16 efficiency in the APPZ was estimated based on early results from the Hillsboro ASR Pilot Project  
17 (USACE and SFWMD, 2013).

18 **Scenario 4:** Scale back Scenario 3 to meet pump pressure requirement by successively removing  
19 wells from the model (APPZ layer) until pump pressures are near or below 100 psi. This is not a  
20 unique design – there may be other arrangements of the wells that will meet this requirement,  
21 but will have more or fewer wells or a different distribution of the same number of wells.

22 **Scenario 9:** Add all wells that were removed for Scenario 4 to the BZ. These wells are to have  
23 capacities of 10 MGD and 0 percent efficiency. Because of the doubled capacity, the number of  
24 wells in the BZ is half what had been removed from Scenario 4. Some well counts in upper  
25 layers were adjusted slightly to prevent the inclusion of “half wells.”

26 **Scenario 10:** Scale back Scenario 9 to meet APPA performance measure and to eliminate drawdown  
27 greater than one foot at a distance of one mile from each site.

28 **Scenario 11:** Scale back Scenario 9 to meet APPA performance measure (allow drawdown of any  
29 magnitude outside the APPA.)

30 **Scenario 12:** Remove BZ wells from Scenario 11.

31 Scenario 5 was similar to Scenario 9 and was removed from this analysis because it added no unique  
32 information. Scenarios 6 through 8 investigated the possibility of using gravity drainage to extract water  
33 during recovery periods. The application of the RASRSM to these scenarios was questionable and the  
34 PDT ultimately decided to eliminate these runs from the analysis.

1 7.5.4 Final Simulation

2 Scenario 11 was designed to meet all specific performance measures while balancing impacts to the  
 3 informative performance measures. It was developed by starting with Scenario 10 and gradually  
 4 increasing extraction volumes until just before the APPA requirement was exceeded. The resulting  
 5 design is shown in **Table 7-4**. This simulation was selected by the PDT as the scenario best able to  
 6 achieve the performance objectives and it was used in the Monte Carlo analysis.

**Table 7-4 -- Scenario 11 Design.**

Recovery efficiency is the ratio of available extraction volume to injected water volume; Extraction percentage is an additional reduction of extraction rates to meet the Artesian Pressure Protection Area rules.

| Basin                 | Proposed ASR System       | UFA (5mgd capacity) |                               |                                 | APPZ (5 MGD capacity) |                               |                                 | BZ (10 MGD capacity) |                               | Total No. Wells | Target No. Wells (at 5 mgd) |
|-----------------------|---------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------|
|                       |                           | # Wells             | Recovery Efficiency (percent) | Extraction Percentage (percent) | # Wells               | Recovery Efficiency (percent) | Extraction Percentage (percent) | # Wells              | Recovery Efficiency (percent) |                 |                             |
| Caloosahatchee Basin  | Moore Haven               | 4                   | 70                            | 100                             | 0                     |                               |                                 | 6                    | 0                             | 27              | 44                          |
|                       | River Bend                | 3                   | 70                            | 100                             | 1                     | 30                            | 100                             | 2                    | 0                             |                 |                             |
|                       | Flaghole                  | 2                   | 70                            | 100                             | 0                     |                               |                                 | 9                    | 0                             |                 |                             |
|                       | Basin Total               | 9                   |                               |                                 | 1                     |                               |                                 | 17                   |                               |                 |                             |
| Lake Okeechobee Basin | Nicodemus Slough          | 0                   |                               |                                 | 10                    | 30                            | 100                             | 0                    |                               | 139             | 200                         |
|                       | C-41 Canal                | 0                   |                               |                                 | 0                     |                               |                                 | 5                    | 0                             |                 |                             |
|                       | C-40 Canal                | 2                   | 70                            | 100                             | 0                     |                               |                                 | 4                    | 0                             |                 |                             |
|                       | North Lake Okeechobee     | 8                   | 70                            | 25                              | 2                     | 30                            | 100                             | 5                    | 0                             |                 |                             |
|                       | Kissimmee R/ Paradise Run | 15                  | 70                            | 25                              | 0                     |                               |                                 | 30                   | 0                             |                 |                             |
|                       | Taylor Creek              | 0                   |                               |                                 | 10                    | 30                            | 50                              | 5                    | 0                             |                 |                             |
|                       | L-63N                     | 0                   |                               |                                 | 9                     | 30                            | 50                              | 3                    | 0                             |                 |                             |
|                       | Lakeside Ranch            | 4                   | 70                            | 0                               | 0                     |                               |                                 | 8                    | 0                             |                 |                             |
|                       | Port Mayaca               | 18                  | 70                            | 0                               | 0                     |                               |                                 | 1                    | 0                             |                 |                             |
|                       | Basin Total               | 47                  |                               |                                 | 31                    |                               |                                 | 61                   |                               |                 |                             |
| L-8                   | 6                         | 70                  | 100                           | 0                               |                       |                               | 2                               | 0                    | 8                             | 10              |                             |
| C-51                  | 12                        | 70                  | 100                           | 2                               | 30                    | 100                           | 10                              | 0                    | 24                            | 34              |                             |
| Central Palm Beach    | 10                        | 70                  | 100                           | 3                               | 30                    | 100                           | 1                               | 0                    | 14                            | 15              |                             |
| Site 1 (Hillsboro)    | 10                        | 40                  | 100                           | 0                               |                       |                               | 10                              | 0                    | 20                            | 30              |                             |
| <b>Total</b>          | <b>94</b>                 |                     |                               | <b>37</b>                       |                       |                               | <b>101</b>                      |                      | <b>232</b>                    | <b>333</b>      |                             |

7 7.5.4.1 Scenario 11 Results and Conclusions

8 The ultimate purpose of this modeling effort was to find a distribution of ASR wells that would meet all  
 9 of the specific performance measures while maximizing the volumes of water recharged and recovered  
 10 according to the SFWMM-D13R pumping schedules. More extensive explanation of the results is  
 11 provided in Appendix E. Here we present a few key findings.

- 12 • Specific Performance Measure: Pump Pressure. Most pump pressures remain below 100 psi  
 13 with a few being slightly over the limit (**Figure 7-21**). These exceedances are within the error  
 14 tolerance of the model.

- 1 • Specific Performance Measure: Artesian Pressure Protection Area. Artesian pressure reductions  
2 in St. Lucie and Martin Counties meet the 10 percent requirement in both the UFA and APPZ.  
3 Areas outside these counties see greater loss of artesian pressure during the extraction periods  
4 of the ASR pumping schedule (**Figure 7-22**).
- 5 • Informative Performance Measure: Head Impacts to Neighboring Users. Maximum head  
6 impacts are extensive across the model domain (**Figure 7-23**). Note that not all areas will  
7 experience these impacts at the same time or all the time. Increased heads are as common as  
8 decreased heads.
- 9 • Informative Performance Measure: Ability to Provide Storage/Recovery Volumes Designated in  
10 SFWMM-D13R. This design, which incorporates a large number of BZ wells with no recovery,  
11 can provide the full amount of recharge volume envisioned in SFWMM-D13R. However,  
12 recovery volumes cannot be met. The amount of recovered water varies by site and by year,  
13 but is between 12 percent and 60 percent during the 13 year period across the entire CERP-  
14 envisioned system (**Figure 7-24**). The variability of the percentage is due to a number of factors,  
15 including hydraulic conductivity at the site, numbers of wells at the site, numbers of nearby ASR  
16 sites, proximity to St. Lucie and Martin Counties, and previous recharge and recovery activities.

17 As has been mentioned, this scenario is not unique. There may be other distributions of ASR wells  
18 which would provide greater recovery volumes without exceeding the specific performance  
19 measures. Further, the current locations were based on present state ownership of the land.  
20 Future changes in land ownership or leasing arrangements could result in additional ASR sites which  
21 would change the results of this scenario. Selection of new ASR sites in areas of greater hydraulic  
22 conductivity, farther from St. Lucie and Martin Counties and placement of additional wells in  
23 smaller, more isolated clusters will likely improve recovery volumes. However, with the current  
24 constraints, it does not seem likely that ASR alone will be able to provide the total recovery volumes  
25 designated the SFWMM-D13R.

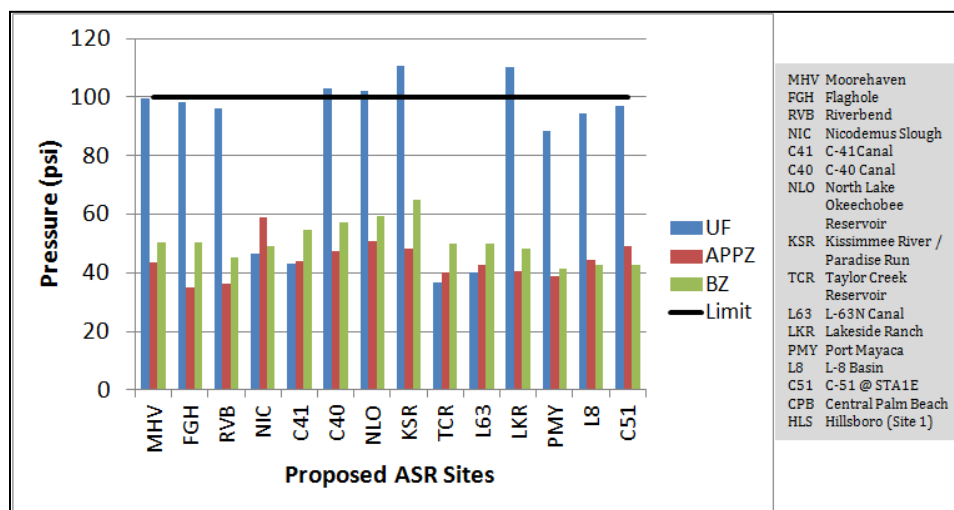


Figure 7-21 -- Maximum pressure pumps must overcome at each proposed ASR system.

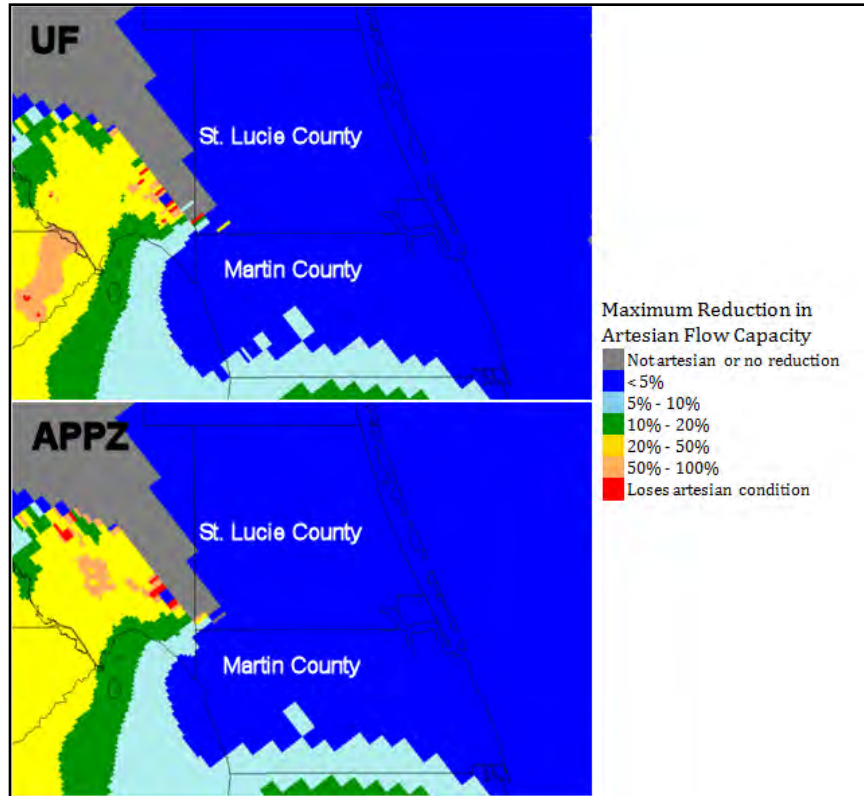


Figure 7-22 -- Artesian Pressure Protection Area: Maximum percent loss of flow.

1

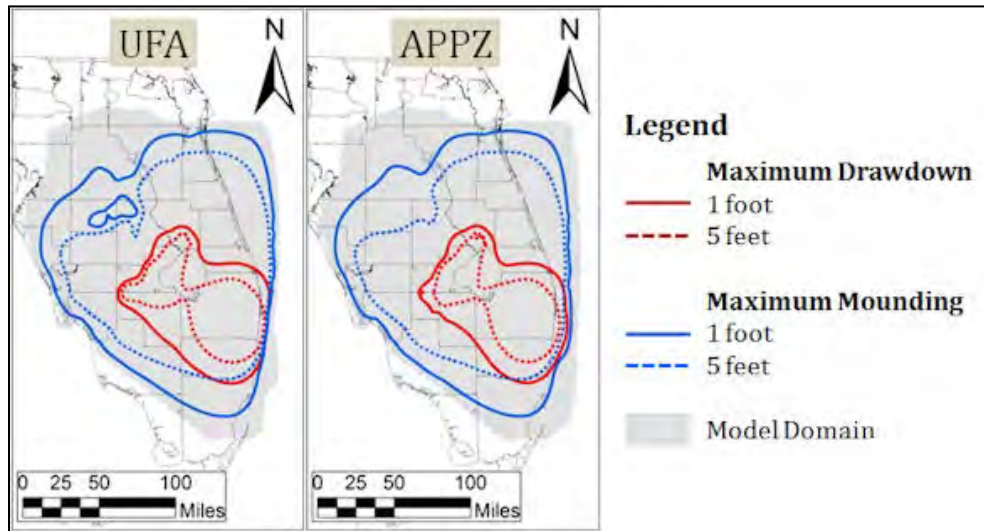


Figure 7-23 -- Maximum head changes due to CERP ASR pumping in model layers representing the UFA and APPZ.

2

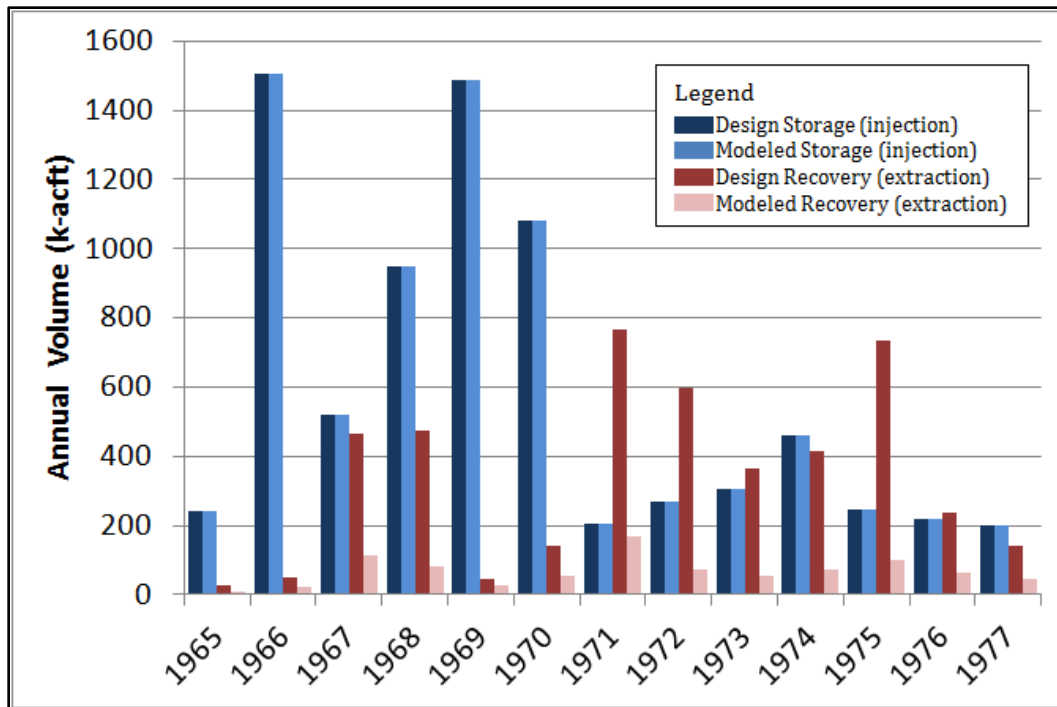


Figure 7-24 -- Comparison of D13R design to allowable annual volumes.

#### 1 7.5.4.2 Supplementary Scenario 12

2 After the completion of all the production scenario analyses and the Monte Carlo simulation (presented  
 3 in **Section 7.5.5**), discussions with the PDT and the IMC model reviewers revealed some concerns about  
 4 the BZ ASR wells from stakeholders not originally involved in the scenario decisions. Concerns included:

- 5 • Drilling to BZ depths is quite expensive, perhaps prohibitively so,
- 6 • With no recovery cycle, these wells are not truly “ASR wells,”
- 7 • Despite the ecological and flood-protection advantages of disposing of excess water through  
 8 these BZ wells, this water is desperately needed in the Everglades and although there is no  
 9 current mechanism to transport it there, the idea of disposing of needed water is not palatable  
 10 to some.

11 To address these concerns, an additional scenario (Scenario 12) was added which was identical to  
 12 Scenario 11, except it did not include any BZ wells. See Appendix E for the full results of this and all  
 13 other scenarios.

#### 14 7.5.5 Monte Carlo Analysis

15 Often, numerical groundwater modeling is treated in a deterministic way – i.e. the modeler inputs his  
 16 best guess for all parameters and treats the result as the “correct answer.” In reality, there is  
 17 uncertainty in all models. Model uncertainty can stem from uncertainty in the input parameters,



1 simplifications made to force the system to fit a mathematical model, error caused by spatial and  
2 temporal discretization, etc. It is often more advisable to approach groundwater modeling from a  
3 probabilistic standpoint and use the uncertainty in the input parameters to estimate the uncertainty in  
4 the output. In a probabilistic model, there is not just one “correct answer;” instead there are a range of  
5 possible answers. The decision makers can then provide for a range of possible results in their planning.

6 A Monte Carlo sensitivity analysis is one way to quantify the uncertainty in the output. In this type of  
7 analysis, the input parameters are given probability distributions instead of discrete values. The range  
8 and distribution of the values should be an indication of the uncertainty in the parameter. Parameters  
9 that are well known or have been measured at the site might be given a narrower range of values than  
10 parameters that are unknown or obtained from the literature. The model is then run multiple times  
11 with different sets of randomized parameter values selected from those distributions. Assuming that  
12 the input distributions are valid, this methodology results in a number of equally probable model  
13 results. Instead of reporting a single answer, modelers can report the range and distribution of the  
14 model results and planners can design for contingencies based on the output distributions. Also, if the  
15 results of the Monte Carlo analysis indicate a wide variability in output, it can signal the need to collect  
16 more data to reduce the uncertainty and tighten the variability of the model output.

17 During the Monte Carlo analysis of the RASRSM, the input parameters for Scenario 11 were randomized  
18 and model was run with and without ASR wells using each randomized set of parameters. The results  
19 were then analyzed in comparison to the performance measures. The entire process was automated so  
20 that the computer could run a large number of randomized scenarios and provide statistics on output  
21 without user intervention.

#### 22 7.5.5.1 Monte Carlo Setup

23 The input parameters that were varied for this Monte Carlo analysis were porosity, dispersivity,  
24 molecular diffusion, hydraulic conductivity, specific storage, starting TDS, starting temperature, the  
25 thickness of the BZ and horizontal anisotropy. Their probability distributions varied based on the  
26 parameter type and included log-normal distributions and uniform distributions with a few variations.  
27 Ranges of acceptable values were set based on estimated uncertainty in the parameter value. In each  
28 case, efforts were made to achieve useful levels of variability without straying too far from the  
29 calibrated, accepted values.

30 The process of verifying each randomized simulation is pictured in **Figure 7-25**. Once the distributions  
31 were set up, each iteration began by selecting a randomized value for each parameter and running the  
32 steady state calibration model. The results were compared to the calibration field data and if the run  
33 did not meet a pre-determined error limit, the iteration was abandoned and a new set of randomized  
34 parameters was selected. Once the steady state calibration was met, the transient calibration model  
35 was run with the same randomized parameters. Again, the results were compared to the calibration  
36 field data and those runs not meeting a predetermined error limit were eliminated from consideration.

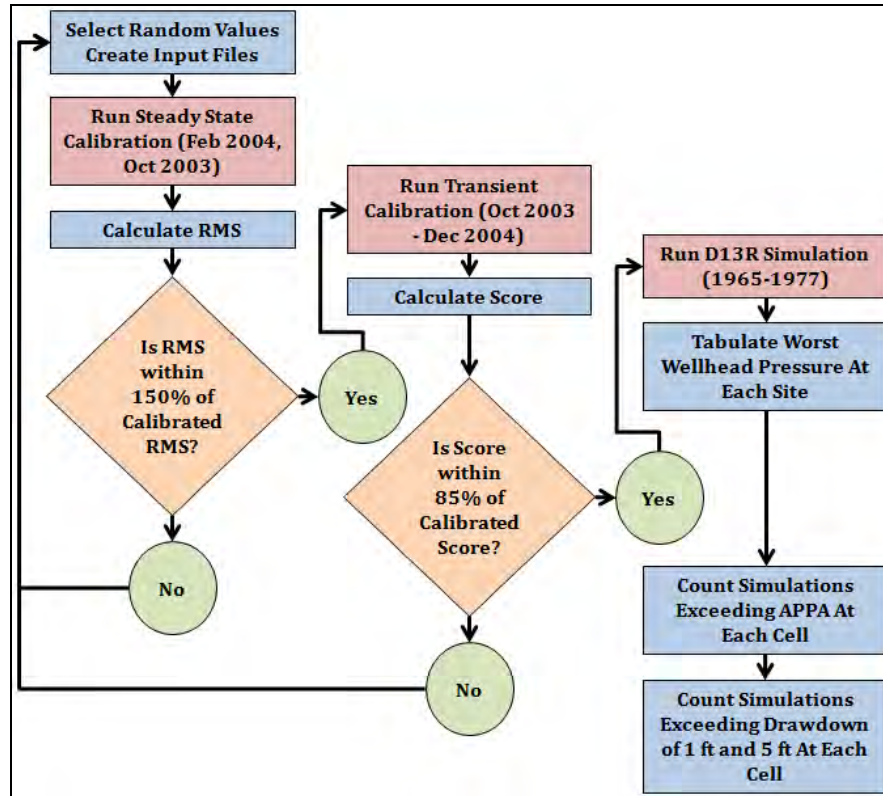


Figure 7-25 -- Monte Carlo setup.

1 Once a randomized model scenario had met both the steady state and transient calibration criteria, the  
 2 D13R Scenario 11 ASR wells were added to the model and it was run for the 1965-1977 period. A similar  
 3 model was run without the ASR wells for comparison. The results were then analyzed for compliance  
 4 with the performance measures. To save computer storage space, the actual solution files could not be  
 5 saved. Instead, running counts of simulations exceeding performance measures were stored as the  
 6 simulations finished. The result was a distribution on the performance measure results, which helped  
 7 quantify the impact of uncertainty of input parameters on the output performance measures. In total,  
 8 825 scenarios were run to completion and their results were used in the analysis.

#### 9 7.5.5.2 Monte Carlo Results

10 The final result of the Monte Carlo simulation included:

- 11 • A grid dataset showing the number of Monte Carlo simulations with a loss of more than 10
- 12 percent of the artesian pressure at each cell,
- 13 • A grid dataset showing the number of Monte Carlo simulations with more than 1 foot of
- 14 maximum drawdown at each cell,
- 15 • A grid dataset showing the number of Monte Carlo simulations with more than 5 feet of
- 16 maximum drawdown at each cell, and

- A list of the maximum pump pressures encountered at each proposed ASR site for each Monte Carlo iteration.
- These results are shown in **Figure 7-26** through **Figure 7-28**.

**Pump Pressure.** For all of the UFA sites, the majority of the Monte Carlo runs met the pressure requirements. The percentages and the spread of the results vary significantly, however. Some results of the Monte Carlo pump pressure calculations are shown in **Figure 7-26**. More detailed results are shown in USACE (2014) and Appendix E. Note that all Monte Carlo simulations met the pump pressure requirement at all sites in the APPZ and BZ.

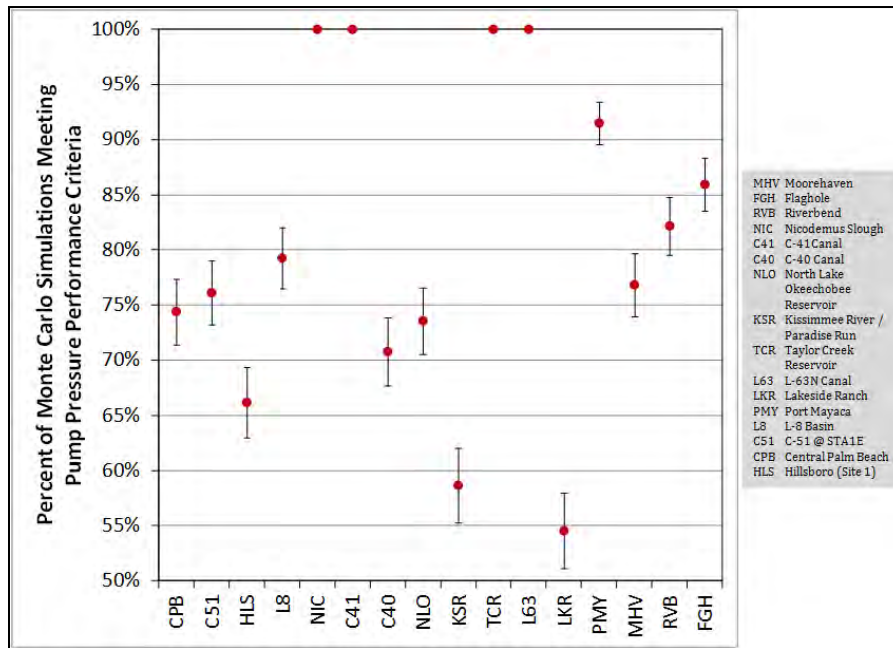
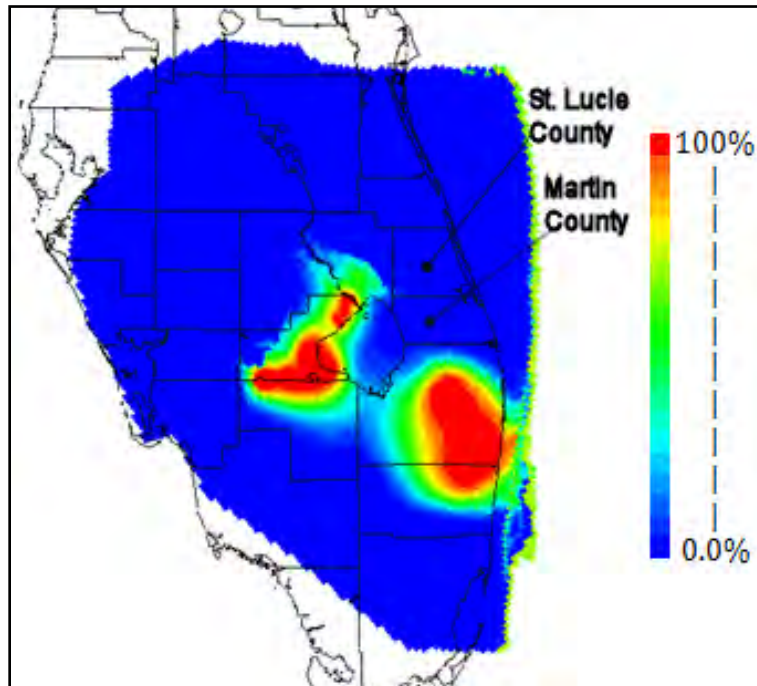


Figure 7-26 -- Monte Carlo Results. Percent of random scenarios meeting pump pressure performance criteria. Vertical bars indicate 95 percent confidence interval.

Only four sites passed the criteria for every Monte Carlo run, but these are the four sites that have no ASR wells assigned to the UFA in Scenario 11. All other sites failed the criteria at least part of the time, so there is a possibility that the number of ASR wells would need to be reduced at some or all of the sites. The most critical sites are Kissimmee River and Lakeside Ranch, both of which slightly exceeded the 100 psi requirement in Scenario 11. Hillsboro is the third most critical site, although it was below the limit in Scenario 11.

**Artesian Pressure Protection Area.** One of the performance criteria was that not more than 10 percent of artesian well flow be lost in the APPA, in St. Lucie and Martin Counties. As the Monte Carlo simulations finished, each cell was investigated and the loss of artesian pressure was calculated. The number of simulations where more than 10 percent of the artesian pressure was lost was summed up for each cell in the model. **Figure 7-27** shows the percentage of Monte Carlo runs where more than 10

1 percent was lost at any time during the 13-year simulation. These results show that the distribution of  
2 ASR wells in Scenario 11 is very likely to be able to meet this performance measure. More extensive  
3 results are presented in USACE (2014) and Appendix E.



4  
5 **Figure 7-27 -- Monte Carlo Results.** Percent of random runs which exceeded 10 percent artesian  
6 flow loss at any time during the 13-year simulation (UFA).

7 **Drawdown.** Drawdown was not a specific performance measure, since there was no specific limit on  
8 how much drawdown would be allowable or the distance at which impacts could be felt. However, the  
9 drawdown impacts to the neighboring areas were investigated and incorporated into the Monte Carlo  
10 simulation. After each Monte Carlo run, the maximum drawdown was computed for each cell of the  
11 grid. It is important to note that this magnitude of drawdown is a worst-case condition and would not  
12 be found during most of the run period. In fact, the figures in USACE (2014) show that the water table  
13 actually rises during much of the period. As the Monte Carlo analysis progressed, the scenarios with  
14 greater than 1 foot drawdown, and greater than 5 feet drawdown, were counted for each cell.

15 **Figure 7-28** shows the percentage of Monte Carlo scenarios that had a maximum drawdown in the UFA  
16 greater than 5 feet sometime during the 13-year simulation. More extensive results are provided in  
17 USACE (2014) and Appendix E. Impacts to the head surrounding the ASR sites are significant. Red areas,  
18 indicating nearly all Monte Carlo simulations exceeded 5-foot drawdown, are large. It is likely that  
19 maximum drawdown across Glades County, Palm Beach County, Broward County and Lake Okeechobee  
20 will exceed 5 feet at times.

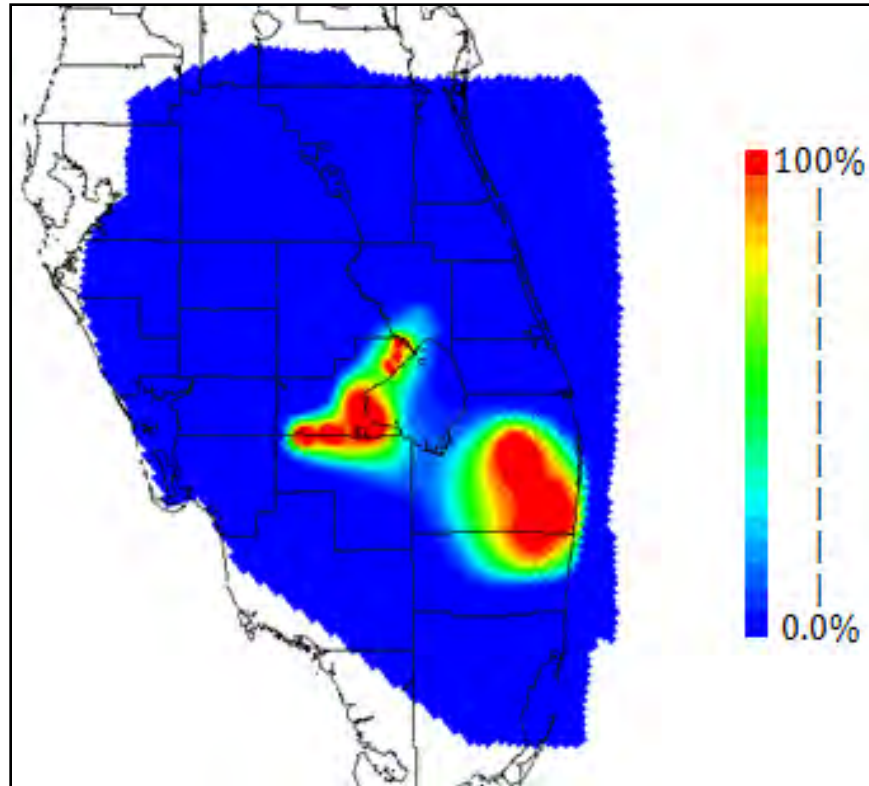


Figure 7-28 -- Monte Carlo Results. Percent of random runs which exceeded 5 ft drawdown at any time during 13-year simulation (UFA).

## 1 7.6 Summary and Conclusions

2 The models described in this chapter were developed in support of CERP to look at regional  
3 hydrogeologic impacts of the proposed 333 ASR wells in southern Florida. The modeling project was  
4 developed in stages to provide opportunities for testing hypotheses and methods before application to  
5 the final model. Each stage was reviewed independently by the PDT and the IMC. Comments were  
6 incorporated into final documents. The documents are available as **Appendix E** attached to this  
7 document.

8 The project began with a search of available models and literature (**Section 7.7.3.1**). This provided  
9 valuable information and background and offered recommendations on implementation details. The  
10 bench scale study (**Section 7.7.3.2**) evaluated several modeling codes and recommended the use of  
11 SEAWAT and WASH123D.

12 The Phase I Study models (**Section 7.7.3.3**) were coarsely refined and did not include all of the data used  
13 in later versions. Most notably, the pumping data were not yet available at the time of Phase I model  
14 development. This model provided information on where best to set boundaries and what types of  
15 parameter values might be most useful. This model had difficulty reproducing both the salinity and

1 heads in the southern part of the model and led to additional research and study to determine the cause  
2 of this difficulty and to recommend options for improvement in the Phase II model.

3 The Phase II Calibration models (**Section 7.3.4**) were much more finely gridded and included all of the  
4 available data, including regional pumping. These models were very closely calibrated to all of the  
5 available head data. Extensive sensitivity analyses looked at possible variability in the results. This  
6 model was subjected to the greatest degree of review and scrutiny both during the modeling process  
7 and after completion of the report. This review process was meant to ensure that the result was as  
8 accurate and defensible as possible, given the available data.

9 The calibration model was broadened to include the D13R scenario with ASR pumping rates and  
10 schedules drawn from SFWMM-D13R (**Section 7.7.5**). Changes to the design were made to meet PDT-  
11 developed performance measures, including the pressure that well pumps would be required to  
12 overcome and the effect of the ASR system on the APPA in St. Lucie and Martin Counties. The suggested  
13 arrangement of these wells (Scenario 11) is indicated in **Table 7-4**. Although full recharge potential will  
14 be available, a significant reduction in the available water for recovery will limit the effectiveness of the  
15 system. The model also indicates that this arrangement of wells will result in significant head impacts  
16 over a large area of the Floridan peninsula.

17 Due to the depth and poor water quality in the BZ, it is unlikely that so many BZ wells could be built.  
18 Scenario 12 was developed to simulate a more likely scenario including only the UFA and APPZ wells.  
19 The comparison of these results to the performance measures is only slightly different from Scenario 11  
20 but it involves a significant reduction in storage capacity for the system.

21 A Monte Carlo analysis (**Section 7.7.5.5**) of the results of Scenario 11 showed that some additional  
22 reduction in the number of wells or the extraction rates may be necessary at a few sites due to pump  
23 pressure limitations. The sites most likely to require a small reduction in ASR wells are Lakeside Ranch,  
24 Kissimmee River/Paradise Run and Hillsboro (Site 1). It is unlikely that any further reduction will be  
25 necessary in protection of artesian conditions in St. Lucie or Martin Counties, though the design for  
26 Scenario 11 already includes significant reductions in extraction volumes for several sites around the  
27 northeast shore of Lake Okeechobee.

28 The RASRSM-D13R run makes assumptions about the conditions of the aquifer, the seasonal variations  
29 during the 1960s and 1970s and the recovery efficiencies expected from the aquifers. All of these  
30 assumptions will need to be closely analyzed through pilot studies at the proposed ASR sites with local  
31 scale models to predict the local effects of the ASR well system.

32 The final results show that it is unlikely that the aquifer will sustain the pumping requirements of 333  
33 UFA ASR wells as defined in the CERP plan. The modeling process showed that pump pressure  
34 requirements and protection of the APPA can be met with approximately 94 ASR wells in the UFA, 37  
35 ASR wells in the APPZ and 101 ASR wells in the BZ if the extraction at sites near the APPA is significantly  
36 reduced.

## 1 8 Ecological Risk Assessment: Effects of ASR on the Lake Okeechobee and Greater 2 Everglades

### 3 8.1 Introduction

4 In response to concerns expressed by the South Florida Ecosystem Restoration Working Group (SFERWG)  
5 and the National Academy of Sciences Committee on the Restoration of the Greater Everglades  
6 Ecosystem (CROGEE), the Jacksonville District of the Army Corps of Engineers (USACE) and the SFWMD  
7 conducted ecological, toxicological, and modeling studies to quantify the risks and benefits of  
8 implementing CERP ASR. These studies culminated in an Environmental Risk Assessment (ERA) Report  
9 that is included in this document as **Appendix F**. A summary of the major study efforts (ecotoxicology,  
10 hydrologic /water quality modeling, and mercury methylation) are provided followed by the conclusions  
11 from the ERA.

### 12 8.2 Ecotoxicology

13 This section describes the measured effects of ASR recovered water on a broad set of aquatic organisms.  
14 These data were developed through the use of laboratory toxicological tests, onsite studies, and field  
15 assessments. In order to evaluate the intensity of the effects, a series of laboratory, onsite and in-situ  
16 studies were developed and conducted during cycle tests 1 and 2 at KRASR. Acute and chronic studies  
17 were conducted with algae, invertebrates, fish and frogs. The effects included mortality, growth,  
18 reproduction, and bioaccumulation potential. Toxicological data was developed by exposing test  
19 organisms to control water and increasing dilutions of recovered waters (up to full strength recovered  
20 water). In situ studies included periphytometers, bioaccumulation studies and stream condition index  
21 measurements.

#### 22 8.2.1 Acute and Chronic Toxicology

23 An ecotoxicology research program was conducted to identify a set of aquatic tests to evaluate the  
24 ecotoxicity and bioconcentration potential of ASR recovered waters discharged to aquatic ecosystems  
25 (Johnson, 2005; Johnson et al., 2007). All toxicity tests conducted at KRASR are summarized in **Table 8-1**  
26 for all cycles. Over 80 acute and chronic toxicity tests were conducted as part of this effects  
27 characterization at KRASR. Most likely this is the largest development of acute and chronic toxicity  
28 dataset for an ASR system. An effect on reproduction of *C. dubia* was observed during cycle test 1 in two  
29 of the tests using recovered water. The March 10, 2009 test showed a statistically significant difference  
30 between the 12.5 percent recovered water and the controls. This data point is considered a test anomaly  
31 since no effects on reproduction were observed at higher recovered water concentrations up to 100  
32 percent. The March 24, 2009 sample of recovered water showed an **IC<sub>25</sub> of 95.52 percent**, indicating a  
33 minor but measurable reduction in reproduction of the water flea in 95.52 percent recovered water.  
34 Cycle test 2 showed an effect on reproduction on two tests. The November sample showed a decrease in  
35 reproduction in **100 percent** recovered water and the last sample near the completion of the cycle  
36 showed an **IC<sub>25</sub> of 76.4 percent**. Cycle test 3 had one sampling event (May 2011) that showed effects on  
37 the survival (96-hour LC50 of 83.92 percent) and reduced reproduction (**IC<sub>25</sub> of 7.2 percent**), also near the  
38 end of the cycle. Two of the mid-cycle samples during cycle test 4 also showed chronic effects on *C. dubia*

1 reproduction with IC<sub>25</sub> of **83.9** and **76.2** percent. But the following three monthly tests did not show this  
2 effect.

3 There appears to be a change in recovered water quality that occurs during the mid- to late-period in the  
4 recovery cycles that results in a slight reduction in reproduction of this sensitive invertebrate species.  
5 Except for the May 2011 test, all other chronic test results show a minor, but measurable, reduction in  
6 reproduction. These chronic tests also show that a recovered water dilution greater than 50 percent  
7 would not be expected to elicit this effect on reproduction. The May 2011 showed the highest effect (IC<sub>25</sub>  
8 of 7.2 percent) and these results appear to be valid. A separate acute test also showed acute toxicity to *C.*  
9 *dubia* with that sample. This effect observed on this sample during cycle test 3 was not apparent in the  
10 subsequent samples taken in May 2011. Similar results were observed during cycle test 4, slight chronic  
11 toxicity in the second and third month, but no further toxicity later in the recovery cycle. Frog Embryo  
12 Teratogenesis Assay – *Xenopus* (FETAX) tests were conducted three times during cycle test 1 and three  
13 times during cycle test 2 using recovered water. These tests did not show a quantifiable effect of the  
14 recovered water on the survival, malformations, or growth.

15 Overall, the recovered water from KRASR did not show quantifiable acute or chronic effects on any  
16 species tested with the exception of the sensitive cladoceran *C. dubia*. The effect observed was on  
17 reproduction of this sensitive cladoceran species, showing that at times during mid- to late cycle the  
18 recovered water at concentrations greater than 50 percent had an inhibitory effect on the reproduction  
19 of this species. The cause for this chronic effect is not known. Toxicological testing at HASR did not  
20 identify any chronic or acute toxicity associated with recovered ASR water.

## 21 8.2.2 Bioconcentration

22 Bioconcentration studies were conducted at the KRASR during the recharge and recovery periods of cycle  
23 test 1 (mobile laboratory exposures of fish and mussels) and the recovery period of cycle test 2 (field  
24 exposures using caged mussels). During cycle test 4 field collected mussels were evaluated for metal  
25 concentration in their tissues. During the mobile laboratory bioconcentration studies, the metals  
26 analyzed in the recharge/recovered waters and animal tissues were mercury (total and methyl mercury),  
27 arsenic, molybdenum, antimony, aluminum, cadmium, chromium, nickel, selenium, and zinc. Radium-226  
28 and -228 radionuclides were also analyzed in freshwater mussels. The recovered water bioconcentration  
29 study was conducted using a laboratory control and three treatments as follows:

- 30 • Laboratory control water prepared using reverse osmosis water
- 31 • RCV: Recovered ASR water, 100 percent unaltered
- 32 • BSW: Background surface water (receiving water), 100 percent unaltered
- 33 • MIX: 50/50 mixture of receiving water and recovered ASR water

34 The objectives of these bioconcentration tests were to evaluate the potential accumulation of selected  
35 metals and radium in the tissues of the test organisms exposed to surface water and recovered water.  
36 Statistical comparisons were made to determine if there was a difference in metal concentrations in  
37 treatment types and tissue concentrations. During cycle test 1, arsenic, nickel and mercury increased in



| Cycle   | Phase                 | Test Initiation Date | <i>Selenastrum capricornutum</i><br>96-hr Chronic<br>(Green Algae) | <i>Ceriodaphnia dubia</i><br>7-day Chronic<br>(Water Flea) |   | <i>Pimephales promelas</i><br>7-day Chronic<br>(Fathead Minnow) | <i>Daphnia magna</i><br>21-day Chronic<br>(Water Flea) |   | FETAX Frog Embryo Toxicity Assay<br>(Frog – <i>Xenopus</i> ) |   |  | <i>C. dubia</i><br>96-hr<br>Acute<br>(Water<br>Flea) |                 |
|---------|-----------------------|----------------------|--|--|---|---|--|---|--|---|--|--|-----------------|
|         |                       |                      | 96-hr growth<br>test (NOEC)  | Percent<br>Survival<br>test<br>(NOEC)                      | Reproduction<br>test<br>(NOEC/IC <sub>25</sub> )        | Embryo-larval survival<br>and teratogenesis test<br>(NOEC)      | Chronic<br>survival<br>test<br>(NOEC)                  | Chronic<br>reproduction<br>test (NOEC/ IC <sub>25</sub> ) | Mortality<br>significantly<br>different<br>from<br>control?  | Malformation<br>significantly<br>different<br>from control? | Growth<br>significantly<br>different<br>from<br>control? | Acute<br>survival test<br>(LC <sub>50</sub> )        |                 |
| Cycle 1 | RCG <sup>1</sup>      | Jan 13-15, 2009      | 100 percent  | 100  | 100 percent/<br>>100 percent                            | >100 percent  | 100<br>percent   | 100 percent/<br>>100 percent                              | No   | No  | No   | >100<br>percent                                      |                 |
|         |                       | Feb 2-3, 2009        | 25 percent   | 100<br>percent   | 100 percent/<br>>100 percent                            | >100 percent  |  |   | No   | No  | No   |  |                 |
|         | Recovered water (RCV) | Mar 10-12, 2009      | 100 percent  | 100<br>percent   | >100 percent  |   | 100<br>percent   | 100 percent/<br>>100 percent                              | No   | No  | No   | >100<br>percent                                      |                 |
|         |                       | Mar 16-20, 2009      | 100 percent  | 100<br>percent   | 100 percent/<br>>100 percent                            |   |  |   | No   | No  | No   | >100<br>percent                                      |                 |
|         |                       | Mar 23-26, 2009      | 100 percent  | 100<br>percent   | 100 percent/<br><b>IC<sub>25</sub>95.5<br/>percent</b>  | >100 percent  |  |   | No   | No  | No   |  |                 |
|         |                       | Mar 31–Apr 2, 2009   | 100 percent  | 100<br>percent   | 100 percent/<br>>100 percent                            | >100 percent  |  |   |  |   |  | >100<br>percent                                      |                 |
|         |                       | Apr 7, 2009          |  |  |   | >100 percent  |  |   |  |   |  |  |                 |
|         |                       | Apr 17, 2009         |  |  |   |   |  |   |  |   |  | >100<br>percent                                      |                 |
| Cycle 2 | RCV                   | Oct 28-29, 2009      | 100 percent  | 100<br>percent   | 100 percent/<br>>100 percent                            | >100 percent  |  |   | No   | No  | No   | >100<br>percent                                      |                 |
|         |                       | Nov 17-19, 2009      | 100 percent  | 100<br>percent   | 50 percent /<br>>100 percent                            | >100 percent  |  |   |  |   |  | >100<br>percent                                      |                 |
|         |                       | Dec 7-10, 2009       | 100 percent  | 100<br>percent   | 100 percent/<br>>100 percent                            | >100 percent  |  |   | No   | No  | No   |  |                 |
|         |                       | Dec 22, 2009         |  |  | 50 percent /<br><b>IC<sub>25</sub> 76.4<br/>percent</b> |   |  |   |  |   |  |  | >100<br>percent |
|         |                       | 31-Dec 31, 2009      |  |  |   | >100 percent  |  |   |  |   |  |  |                 |
|         |                       | Jan 2-4, 2010        |  |  |   |   |  |   | No   | No  | No   | >100<br>percent                                      |                 |

1  
2  
3

Table 8-1 -- Summary of Acute and Chronic Toxicity Test Results for All KRASR Cycle Tests, *continued*.

| Cycle     | Phase | Test Initiation Date | <i>Selenastrum capricornutum</i><br>96-hr Chronic<br>(Green Algae) | <i>Ceriodaphnia dubia</i><br>7-day Chronic<br>(Water Flea) |  | <i>Pimephales promelas</i><br>7-day Chronic<br>(Fathead Minnow) | <i>Daphnia magna</i><br>21-day Chronic<br>(Water Flea) |  | FETAX Frog Embryo Toxicity Assay<br>(Frog – <i>Xenopus</i> ) |  |  | <i>C. dubia</i><br>96-hr<br>Acute<br>(Water Flea) | <i>C. leedsii</i><br>96-hr<br>Acute<br>(Bannerfin shiner) |              |
|-----------|-------|----------------------|--|--|--|---|--|--|--|--|--|---|---|--------------|
|           |       |                      | 96-hr growth test (NOEC)   | Percent Survival test (NOEC)                               | Reproduction test (NOEC/IC <sub>25</sub> ) | Embryo-larval survival and teratogenesis test (NOEC)            | Chronic survival test (NOEC)                           | Chronic reproduction test (NOEC/IC <sub>25</sub> ) | Mortality significantly different from control?              | Malformation significantly different from control? | Growth significantly different from control? | Acute survival test (LC <sub>50</sub> )           | 96-hr growth test (NOEC)                                  |              |
| Cycle 3   | RCV   | January 2011         |  |  | 100 percent / >100 percent                 | >100 percent  |  |  |  |  |  | >100 percent                                      | >100 percent  |              |
|           |       | February 2011        |  |  | No test                                    | No test   |  |  |  |  |  | >100 percent                                      | >100 percent  |              |
|           |       | March 2011           |  |  | No test                                    | No test   |  |  |  |  |  | >100 percent                                      | >100 percent  |              |
|           |       | May 2011             |  |  | <b>IC<sub>25</sub> 7.2 percent</b>         | >100 percent  |  |  |  |  |  | <b>83.92 percent</b>                              | >100 percent  |              |
|           |       | June 2011            |  |  | >100 percent / 100 percent                 | >100 percent  |  |  |  |  |  | >100 percent                                      | >100 percent  |              |
| Cycle 4   | RCV   | January 2013         |  |  | >100 percent / 100 percent                 | >100 percent  |  |  |  |  |  | >100 percent                                      | >100 percent  |              |
|           |       | February 2013        |  |  | >100 percent                               | >100 percent  |  |  |  |  |  |   |   |              |
|           |       |                      | <b>IC<sub>25</sub> 83.9</b>  |  |  |   |  |  |  |  |  |   |   |              |
|           |       | March 2013           |  |  | >100 percent /                             | >100 percent  |  |  |  |  |  |   | >100 percent  | >100 percent |
|           |       |                      | <b>IC<sub>25</sub> 76.2</b>  |  |  |   |  |  |  |  |  |   |   |              |
|           |       | April 2013           |  | >100 percent   | >100 percent / >100 percent                | >100 percent  |  |  |  |  |  |   | >100 percent  | >100 percent |
| May 2013  |       | >100 percent         | >100 percent / >100 percent  | >100 percent   |  |   |  |  |  |  | >100 percent                                 | >100 percent                                      |   |              |
| June 2013 |       | >100 percent         | >100 percent / >100 percent  | >100 percent   |  |   |  |  |  |  | >100 percent                                 | >100 percent                                      |   |              |

NOTES: RCG = Recharge water (source water) , RCV = Recovered water

1 mussel tissue exposed to the BSW and the MIX samples. In fish tissue, molybdenum increased in the  
2 MIX sample.

3 The objective of the bioconcentration *in situ* exposures of caged mussels was to evaluate the potential  
4 uptake of metals and radium from recovered water, and its natural dilution in the receiving water body  
5 during the recovery period. This study was conducted using the freshwater mussel *E. buckleyi*, similar to  
6 the bioconcentration study conducted during cycle test 1 recovery. Mussels were housed in cages, with  
7 individual compartments to maintain equal spacing and thus similar exposure for each mussel (**Figure**  
8 **8-1**). Three cages were deployed at each station location.

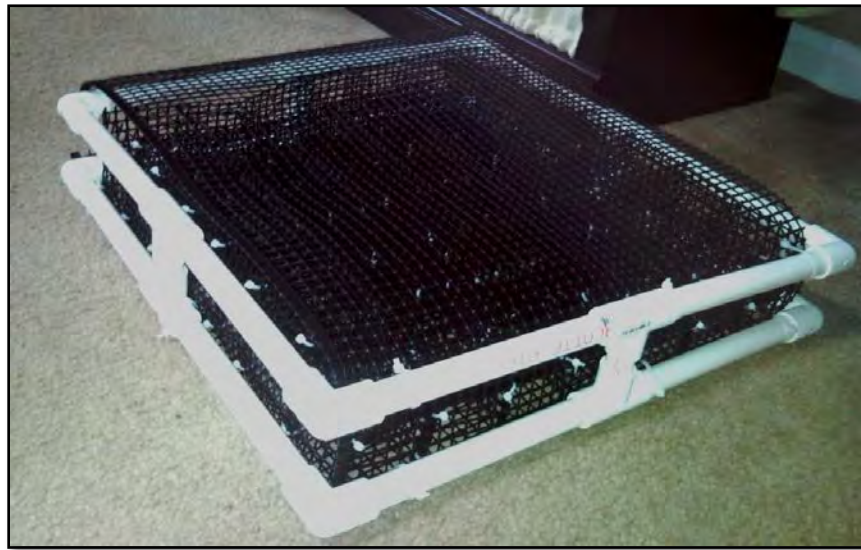


Figure 8-1 -- Cages for freshwater mussel exposures.

9 The exposure locations for the *in situ* bioconcentration study are shown in **Figure 8-2**. Mercury was  
10 found to be significantly higher at the discharge stations than background conditions ( $p=0.004$ ), while  
11 control stations were not significantly different from either background or discharge. Methyl mercury  
12 concentrations, however, were found to be significantly lower at the discharge stations than  
13 background, and background was significantly lower than control stations ( $p<0.001$ ). Molybdenum  
14 concentrations were higher at the discharge than either the background or control mussels ( $p<0.001$ ).  
15 Treatment was a significant factor ( $p=0.012$ ) in determining arsenic concentration in mussels with higher  
16 concentrations observed at the discharge than control stations. A system-wide effect over time was also  
17 observed with significantly higher ( $p<0.001$ ) concentrations on day 35 than day 0 (background) or day  
18 69.

19 Native mussels were collected in the vicinity of the KRASR during recharge and near completion of the  
20 KRASR cycle test 4 recovery phase. These data appear to show that radiation and mercury tissue  
21 concentrations in native river mussels were lower in the Kissimmee River near the end of the recovery  
22 period as compared to the recharge period. This is an unexpected result for radiation; however, the  
23 lower mercury tissue concentrations are consistent with reduced mercury concentration in the

1 recovered water. There is insufficient data to be sure if these observations are related to the ASR  
 2 discharges. Manganese and arsenic appear to be slightly higher in mussel tissue during May as  
 3 compared to December and this could be related to the ASR discharge, but not confirmed through these  
 4 data. To reduce uncertainty regarding the potential for metals bioaccumulation, additional testing of  
 5 sessile local fauna is indicated for future ASR testing and operation.



Figure 8-2 -- Location of *in-situ* exposure of caged mussels, periphytometers, and water quality sondes during the KRASR cycle test 2 recovery period.

### 6 8.2.3 Periphyton

7 Periphyton baseline field studies were included in the ecotoxicology program in order to include plant  
 8 communities in the assessment of potential risks and/or benefits of ASR implementation.  
 9 Periphytometers were deployed in the Kissimmee River concurrent with the cycle test 1 KRASR recharge  
 10 and recovery periods and during cycle test 2 recovery at stations shown in **Figure 8-3**.

11 Diatom taxa were generally the most abundant and most of the dominant taxa in this data have species  
 12 that are associated with nutrient-rich environments. Nutrients can influence periphyton abundance and  
 13 community structure, but other factors (e.g. light availability, amount of colonizable substrate, water  
 14 temperature, and grazer abundances) can weaken generally positive nutrient-periphyton abundance  
 15 relationships. Dissolved metals, even at relatively low concentrations, also have been associated with  
 16 reduced periphyton abundance and shifts in community composition after a few weeks of exposure.  
 17 While there is no evidence that KRASR recovery water had a significant influence on periphyton

- 1 communities compared to upstream and downstream sites, low level site repetition and variability in
- 2 sites used for incubation precludes an in-depth statistical analysis of the periphyton data.



Figure 8-3 -- Location of stations for periphytometer deployment during KRASR cycle test 1.

### 3 8.3 Hydrologic and Water Quality Modeling

4 Hydrologic, hydrodynamic, hydrogeologic, and water quality simulation models were used to develop  
 5 plausible ASR implementation scenarios for the Lake Okeechobee Basin and to characterize ASR  
 6 exposure pathways in terms of timing, intensity and spatial distribution. **Figure 8-4** shows the modeling  
 7 scheme that links the SFWMM D13R simulation output to the RASRSM, LOOPS, LOEM, and ELM-Sulfate  
 8 modeling efforts.

9 The original CERP plan to construct and operate 200 ASR wells within the Lake Okeechobee Basin was  
 10 specified in the Central and South Florida Restudy Report (USACE and SFWMD, 1999). The D13R  
 11 scenario originally prepared for the Restudy Report did not consider possible hydrogeologic or  
 12 engineering constraints on the number and placement of CERP ASR facilities. Since the placement and  
 13 operation of CERP ASR wells are key to defining the spatial component of the exposure pathways,  
 14 additional CERP ASR scenarios were developed to ensure that the RASRSM considered consistent and  
 15 plausible alternatives.

16 The additional ASR scenarios were initially developed using a regional groundwater model to determine  
 17 the hydrogeologic feasibility of well placement and operation scenarios. These scenarios as defined by  
 18 the number of wells, aquifer placement, and assumed recovery efficiency, were input into the LOOPS

1 model to determine the timing and duration components of the exposure pathway. The output from  
 2 the LOOPS model was used to define the timing and duration of ASR exposure for each alternative  
 3 scenario as well as to provide ASR flow boundary conditions (recharge and recovery event timing and  
 4 duration) for the Lake Okeechobee Environmental Model (LOEM).

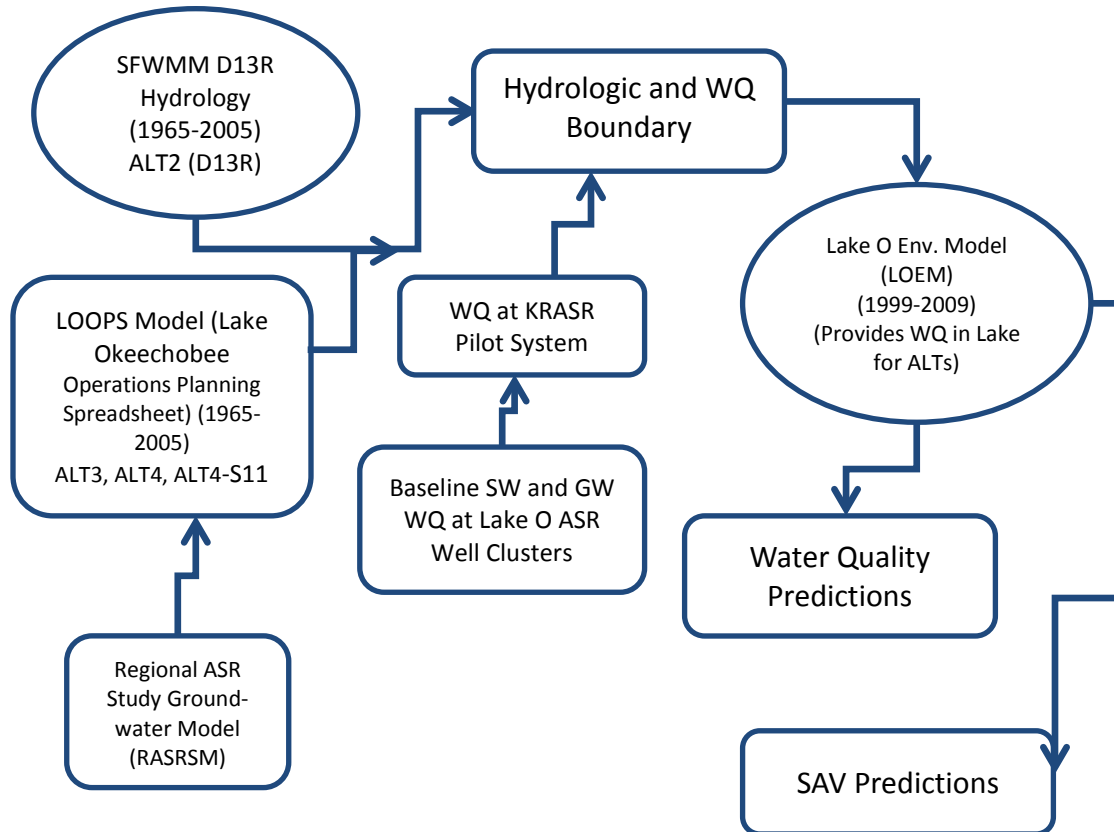


Figure 8-4 -- Modeling scheme used to evaluate water quality impacts of ASR scenarios in Lake Okeechobee

5 The LOEM is a hydrodynamic and water quality model of Lake Okeechobee. It was used to simulate the  
 6 water quality and SAV impacts due to changes to the lake operation schedule. The water quality  
 7 assumptions for ASR exposure were developed from available surface and groundwater quality data as  
 8 well as water quality data collected from the Kissimmee ASR Pilot site.

9 **Figure 8-5** shows the locations of potential ASR well clusters within the Lake Okeechobee Basin. Model  
 10 simulation outputs for the Lake Okeechobee Basin were the basis for estimating the exposures to the  
 11 near-field, mid-field, far-field, and far-far field receiving water bodies for the ASR scenarios evaluated in  
 12 the ERA. The scenarios considered were the following:

- 13 • **Alternative 1** - ALT1 is the no-action alternative. Under this alternative, no ASR facilities or wells  
 14 would be constructed or operated.

- 1       • **Alternative 2** - ALT2 includes 200 wells within the Lake Okeechobee Basin. This scenario  
 2 matches the original D13R scenario from the CERP report in terms of the number of wells in the  
 3 basin, their placement in the UFAZ, and their assumed recovery efficiency of 70 percent. The  
 4 regional hydrogeologic modeling determined that this implementation scenario posed  
 5 unacceptable groundwater stage conditions during recharge and recovery and thus was not  
 6 considered feasible.
- 7       • **Alternative 3** - ALT3 includes 100 wells within the Lake Okeechobee Basin. This scenario is  
 8 essentially half the size of ALT2 and it also has the wells placed in the UFAZ.
- 9       • **Alternative 4** - ALT4 includes 200 wells within the Lake Okeechobee Basin; however, some of  
 10 these wells are placed in the APPZ and BZ portions of the Floridan Aquifer in order to ensure  
 11 that they don't result in excessive recharge pressures during recharge or groundwater stage  
 12 drawdown during recovery.
- 13       • **Alternative 4-S11** - Alternative 4-Scenario 11 (ALT4-S11) has the same number of wells and  
 14 placement as ALT4. This scenario was developed by the hydrogeologic team to further refine  
 15 the operating scheme of ALT4 to reduce recovery volumes so that ASR operations would not  
 16 exceed Martin and St. Lucie Counties groundwater protection rules that require the  
 17 maintenance of artesian conditions in the Floridan Aquifer.

18 Each of the simulation models used in the ERA was configured to simulate the ASR implementation  
 19 scenarios. A short description of each modeling effort along with key output is provided.



Figure 8-5 -- Proposed well cluster locations within Lake Okeechobee basin.

### 20 8.3.1 SFWMM D13R Simulation

21 The location, frequency, magnitude, and duration of CERP ASR recharge and discharge events are  
 22 provided by the D13R version of the South Florida Water Management Model (SFWMM) 2x2 regional  
 23 surface hydrology model. The ASR D13R output was used to drive the operation of the ASR wells in the

1 ASR Regional Groundwater models (see below) as well as to define critical exposure conditions for  
2 surface waters exposed to ASR discharges. Additional SFWMM 2x2 modeling was not done to develop  
3 other CERP ASR implementation scenarios for the Regional ASR study due to the cost and time involved.  
4 The Lake Okeechobee Operations Planning Spreadsheet (LOOPS) model, described below, was used to  
5 the develop Lake Okeechobee basin ASR implementation hydrology other than that defined by the D13R  
6 assumptions.

### 7 8.3.2 Regional Groundwater Model for CERP ASR

8 The regional groundwater model was used to determine the hydrogeological impact (pressure,  
9 drawdown, etc.) of operating CERP ASR facilities. The findings of this modeling effort, described in  
10 **Chapter 7**, was used to bound the ecological and water quality impacts expected from CERP ASR under  
11 realistic hydrogeological scenarios.

### 12 8.3.3 Lake Okeechobee Operations Planning Spreadsheet (LOOPS)

13 The Lake Okeechobee Operations Planning Spreadsheet (LOOPS) (Niedrauer et. al, 2006) simulates the  
14 effect of lake operations schedules on Lake Okeechobee stages. This tool is set up to simulate the 1965  
15 to 2005 period of record with boundary conditions for surface water inflows to the lake and rainfall and  
16 evapotranspiration for this period. For this study, the LOOPS model was modified to include ASR  
17 operations for CERP ASR within the Lake Okeechobee Basin. Its specific use in the ERA was as a means  
18 to predict the timing and volume of ASR recharge and recovery in the Lake Okeechobee basin under ASR  
19 implementation scenarios other than D13R. **Figures 8-6** and **8-7** show the timing of ASR recharge and  
20 recovery over the 36 year simulation period (1965-2000) for the ASR implementation alternatives  
21 considered in the ERA. These hydrographs provide a general indication of the duration and timing of  
22 recharge, recovery, and idle time which are important factors in assessing exposure to ASR flows. These  
23 hydrographs show that different ASR implementation scenarios generally will not significantly influence  
24 the timing of recharge or recovery events and that approximately one-third of the time the facilities are  
25 likely to be idle. The LOOPS was used to develop the ASR exposure scenarios for the Kissimmee River  
26 Basin to compare recharge and recovery volumes to historic S-65E flows.

27

28



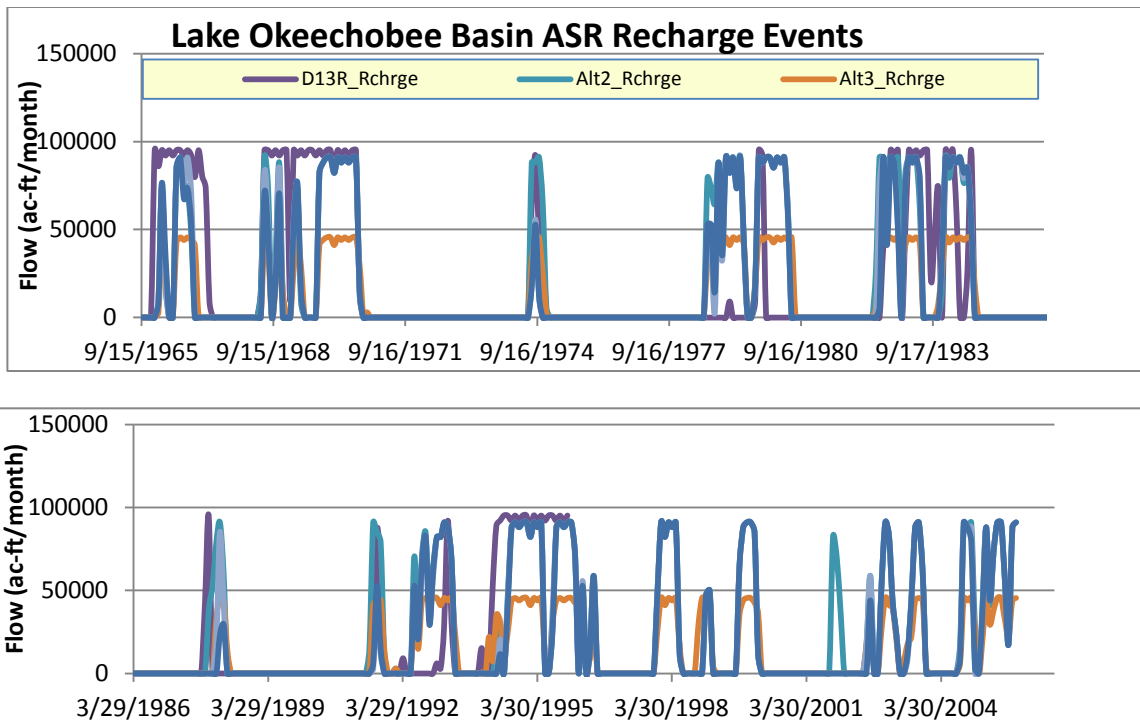


Figure 8-6 -- Lake Okeechobee basin recharge events as predicted using SFWMM (D13R) and LOOPS.

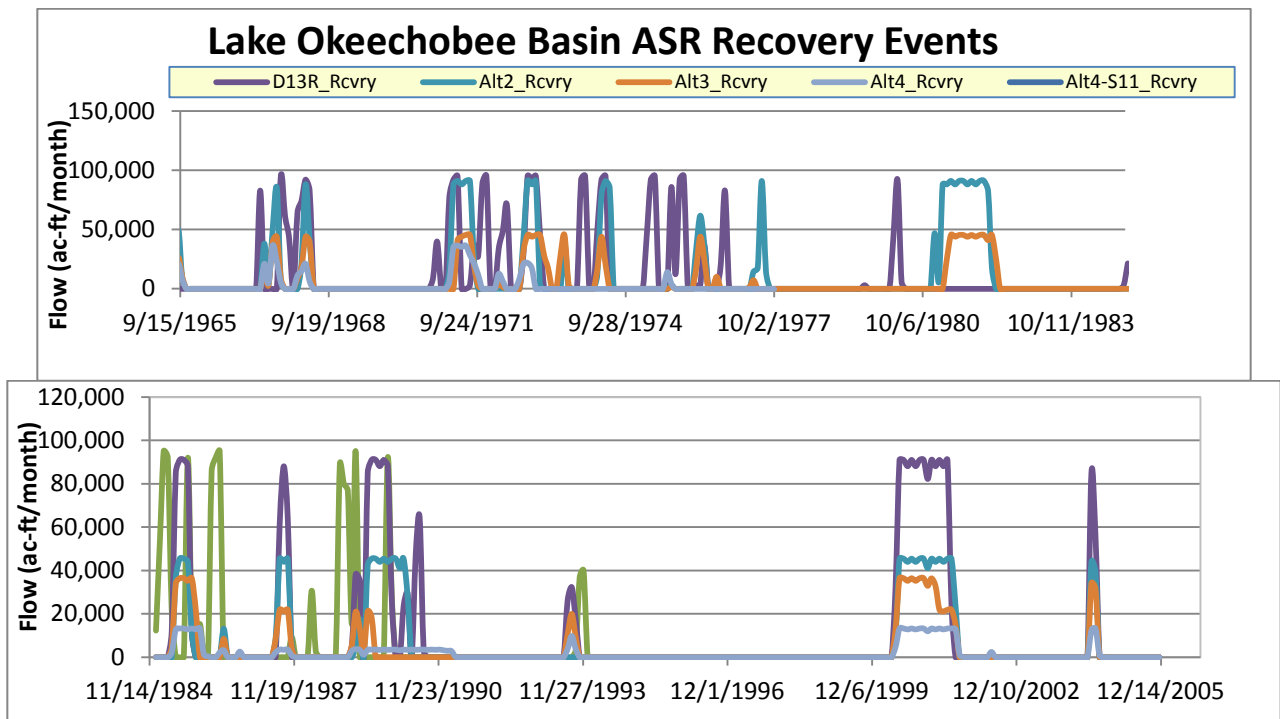


Figure 8-7 -- Lake Okeechobee basin recovery events as predicted using SFWMM (D13R) and LOOPS.

### 1 8.3.4 Lake Okeechobee Environmental Model (LOEM)

2 The LOEM (Lake Okeechobee Environmental Model) is a 3-D finite element water quality simulation  
3 model that is based on the Environmental Fluid Dynamics Code (EFDC) package (Hamrick and Wu, 1997).  
4 The model simulates hydrodynamic and water quality conditions (nutrients, temperature, and toxics) on  
5 a 1 square kilometer basis. For the ecological risk assessment, the existing LOEM model was modified to  
6 include an enhanced submerged aquatic vegetation (SAV) model and boundary conditions were  
7 developed to simulate the 1999 to 2009 period with and without ASR operations (AEE, 2012; Jin and Ji,  
8 2012). The model was configured to simulate the WQ impact to Lake Okeechobee of several critical ASR  
9 discharge events as predicted for the ASR implementation scenarios developed by the groundwater  
10 modeling team. LOEM model boundary conditions were developed using a spreadsheet that  
11 incorporated LOOPS output and KRASR recovered water quality data to generate time-varying water  
12 quality boundary conditions for ASR inflows and outflows to the lake for ALT2, ALT3, and ALT4.

13 The concentrations of water quality constituents in the recovered water generally are bounded by the  
14 surface water quality and the groundwater quality compositional end-members. At the start of a  
15 recovery event, the quality of the recovered water is similar to the surface water quality. As a recovery  
16 event proceeds, the concentrations typically become closer in composition to groundwater quality.  
17 Given the uncertainty in the quality of the recovered water, two conditions were modeled for each ASR  
18 scenario. One set of model runs were designated with a “C” as in constant water quality as set by the  
19 baseline groundwater quality concentrations (ALT2C, ALT3C, ALT4C). The other set of model runs were  
20 designated with a “V” to denote variable water quality that trends from surface water quality  
21 concentrations to groundwater quality concentrations as a recovery event proceeds (ALT2V, ALT3V,  
22 ALT4V).

23 **Figure 8-8** shows the LOEM model grid and water quality sampling locations used to calibrate the LOEM  
24 model and review model predictions. Concentrations of dissolved solids in Lake Okeechobee surface  
25 water are generally inversely related to lake stage and volume since years with above average rainfall  
26 conditions tend to result in reduced dissolved solids concentrations. The modeled results indicate that  
27 for the nutrients (nitrogen and phosphorus species) the ASR scenarios would not significantly increase or  
28 decrease average Lake concentrations. For instance, though the recovered water total phosphorus (TP)  
29 concentration for the ALT2C model run is 0.01 mg/L which is significantly lower than the recharge water  
30 TP concentration of 0.10 mg/L, there is no change in Lake TP concentration. Based on these results, it  
31 appears that the ability to sequester phosphorus load in the aquifer through ASR operations will not  
32 result in a measurable change to water column concentration of phosphorus in the Lake. This may be  
33 due to internal cycling of legacy phosphorus between the water column and the sediment bed.  
34 However, the average annual reduction in TP load from ASR implementation varies from around 30  
35 mTONS/yr for ALT2, ALT4, and ALT-4S11 to around 20 mTons/yr for ALT3. All of the alternatives  
36 discharge less than 2 mTONS/yr. This load removal will contribute to efforts to meet the TMDL for  
37 phosphorus in the Lake.

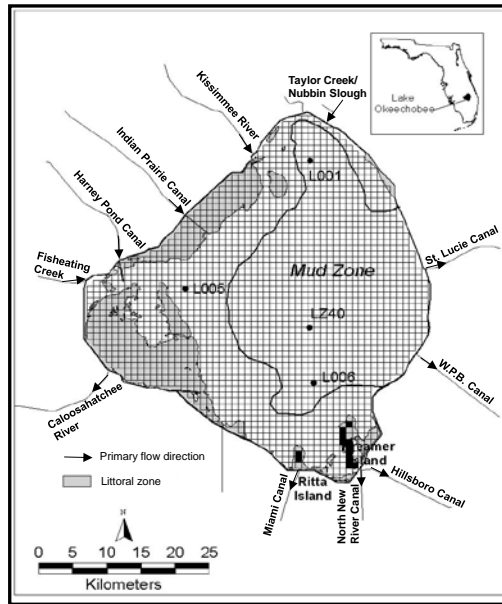


Figure 8-8 -- LOEM model grid and water quality monitoring stations in Lake Okeechobee.

1 Sulfate and chloride concentrations appear to be significantly impacted by the ASR scenarios that have  
 2 the most wells discharging to the lake. Graphs of the water quality modeling results for several  
 3 parameters at monitoring station L001 are presented in **Figures 8-9** through **8-12**. The L001 station is  
 4 located in the northern portion of Lake Okeechobee and the predicted results at this station are  
 5 representative of the predicted changes in water quality for most of the Lake.

6 **Figure 8-9** shows the predicted sulfate concentration at L001. Periods of high sulfate concentration in  
 7 this figure are coincident with low lake stage since sulfate concentrations are inversely correlated to lake  
 8 stage. Relative to other alternatives, the sulfate concentration at L001 for ALT2C results in the largest  
 9 increase in sulfate concentrations over baseline conditions. This is due to two factors: ALT2C has the  
 10 maximum number of ASR wells discharging to the Lake, and the recovered water quality concentrations  
 11 are assumed to match the baseline groundwater concentration during the entire recovery period. The  
 12 assumption that recovered water quality matches groundwater baseline conditions is not realistic as  
 13 demonstrated by water quality data collected during recovery events at the KRASR pilot site as well as at  
 14 other ASR facilities throughout Florida. For this reason, ALT2C is considered to be a conservative  
 15 estimate of the potential for CERP ASR to alter Lake Okeechobee water quality. As discussed earlier in  
 16 this report, the number and placement of the 200 wells in ALT2 has been shown to cause unacceptable  
 17 changes to groundwater stage conditions during both recharge and recovery. For this reason, the ALT2  
 18 scenario is not considered feasible. ALT3C with half of the wells as ALT2C increases the maximum  
 19 sulfate concentration from around 60 mg/L to nearly 80 mg/L. Since ALT3C assumes that recovered  
 20 water concentrations match the baseline GW concentrations for the entire recovery period, the  
 21 estimates of peak sulfate concentration shown here are likely high and also conservative for this 100  
 22 well scenario. ALT2V provides a more realistic prediction of the impact of 200 Upper Floridan ASR wells  
 23 on Lake Okeechobee sulfate concentrations. For ALT2V, the maximum sulfate concentration in the Lake  
 24 appears to increase from around 60 mg/L to 75 mg/L during periods when ASR water is recovered and  
 25 discharged to the Lake.

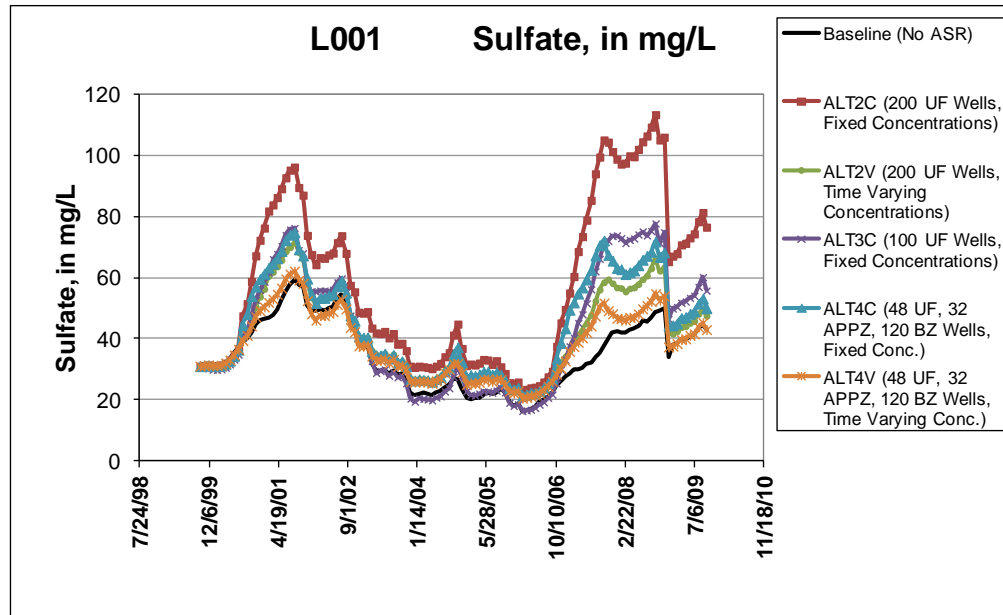


Figure 8-9 -- Predicted sulfate at L001 (northern Lake Okeechobee).

1 Maximum sulfate concentrations for ALT4V increase only moderately at L001 from around 60 mg/L to a  
 2 peak of approximately 62 mg/L. The maximum increase at any one time of sulfate for ALT4V appears to  
 3 be approximately 20 mg/L which occurs in 2007. ALT4-S11 was not simulated using the LOEM model  
 4 since this alternative was created after the LOEM modeling project was completed. However, since  
 5 ALT4-S11 has approximately 50 percent of the recovered water in comparison to ALT4, it is likely that  
 6 the maximum increase in sulfate concentration for ALT4-S11 is on the order of 10 mg/L. This is due to  
 7 the combined effect of reduced ASR discharges in ALT4S-11 with a recovery rate of only 1.25 MGD for  
 8 the wells located in the high efficiency UF aquifer zone and the 2.5 MGD recovery rate for the APPZ  
 9 wells.

10 These modeled results show that several ASR scenarios could cause increased sulfate concentrations in  
 11 Lake Okeechobee during and immediately after ASR recovery events; however, shortly after the  
 12 recovery events end, the sulfate concentrations return almost to the baseline (no-ASR) concentration.  
 13 The strong inverse correlation between Lake stage and sulfate concentrations effectively limits the  
 14 duration of ASR related exposure to elevated sulfate concentrations since increased Lake stages that  
 15 result from rainfall runoff naturally dilute sulfate concentrations. Also, the initiation of rainfall and  
 16 higher lake stages can trigger the end of ASR discharge events that contribute sulfate to the lake.

17 **Figure 8-10** shows the impact of ASR scenarios on Lake chloride concentrations. Like sulfate, the ALT2C  
 18 alternative results in the greatest increase in lake chloride from a maximum near 100 mg/L to nearly 200  
 19 mg/L. For the more realistic ALT2V and ALT4V, the maximum chloride concentration is around 120  
 20 mg/L. Similar to sulfate, chloride concentrations return to near the baseline concentration conditions  
 21 for all of the alternatives shortly after recovery ceases.

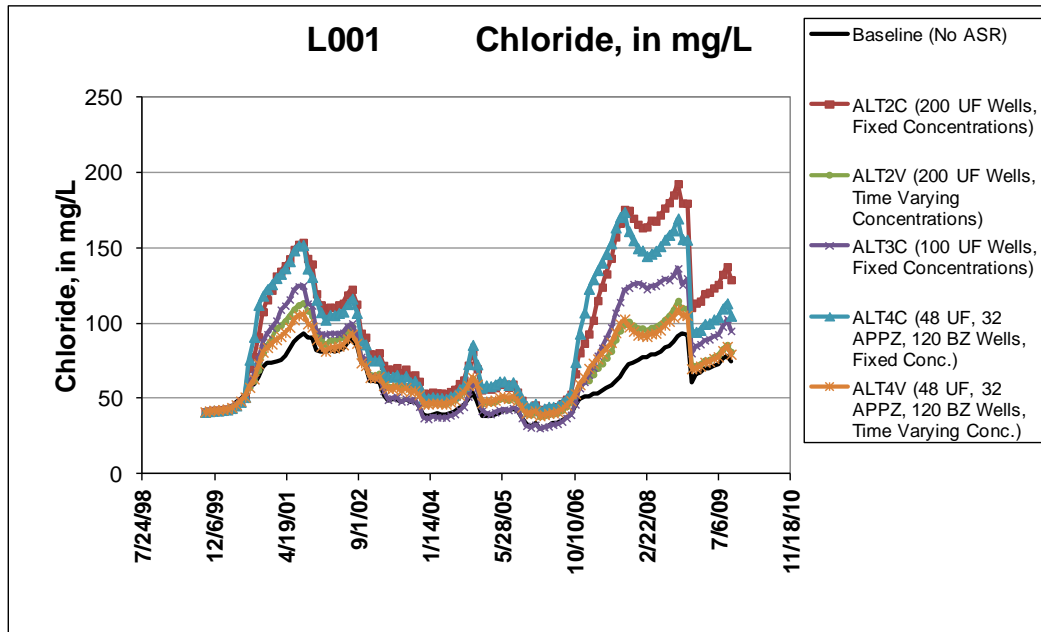


Figure 8-10 -- Predicted chloride at L001 (northern Lake Okeechobee).

1 **Figure 8-11** shows that there is little to no impact from ASR on lake temperature at L001. This is likely  
 2 due to the fact that the recovered water from ASR wells is near the ambient surface water temperature  
 3 and this ASR water relatively quickly reaches thermal equilibrium with the lake water. However, there  
 4 may be areas in close proximity to ASR discharge locations where there is some impact to ambient Lake  
 5 water temperature. However due to mixing from wind and other environmental drivers such as solar  
 6 input, the main portion of the Lake (at L001 for instance) is not exposed to thermal impacts from ASR  
 7 discharges.

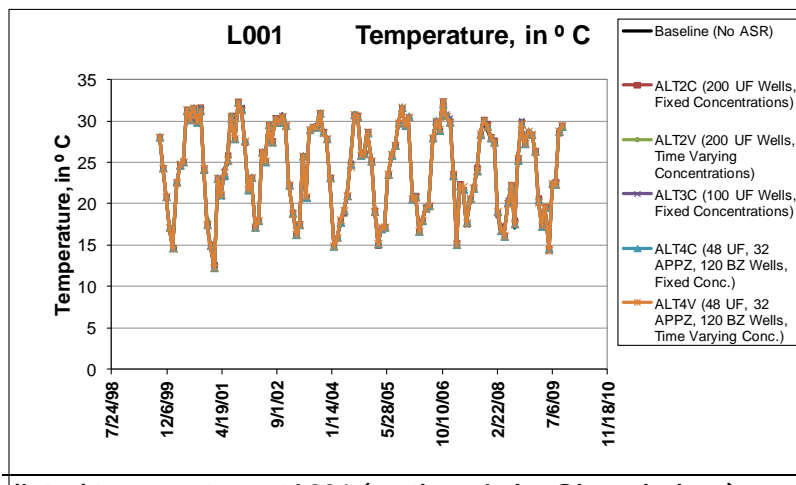


Figure 8-11 -- Predicted temperature at L001 (northern Lake Okeechobee).

8 **Figure 8-12** shows the impact of the ASR scenarios on DO at LOO1. In general, there are no significant  
 9 changes to Lake DO concentrations due to the assumption that the recovered water is discharged into  
 10 the Lake with a concentration at 5 mg/L which is likely very close to the ambient Lake DO concentration.

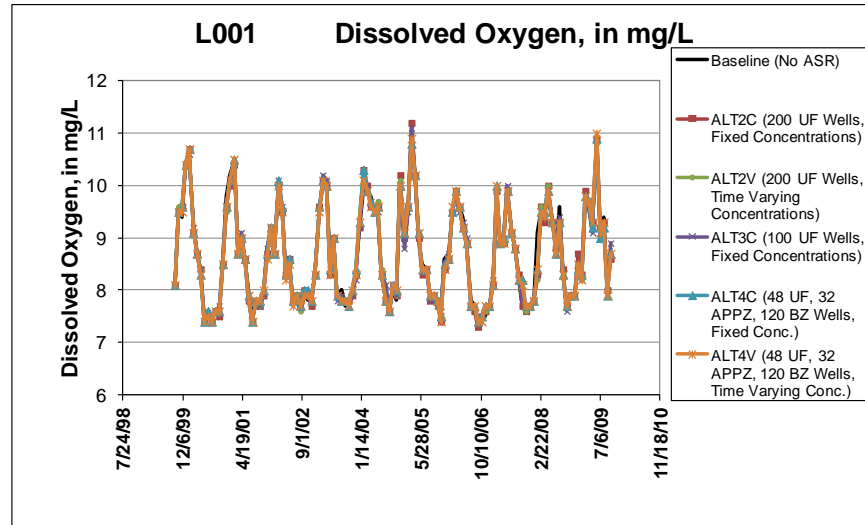


Figure 8-12 -- Predicted dissolved oxygen at L001 (northern Lake Okeechobee).

1 The results for other monitoring locations are similar to those presented here. This is an indication that  
 2 the Lake is well mixed and that locating ASR well clusters around the perimeter of the Lake rather than  
 3 at a single location is a good strategy to limit water quality changes associated with ASR discharges.  
 4 However, given the circulation patterns predicted by the LOEM, it is possible that large volume ASR  
 5 discharges from Kissimmee River ASR facilities might be pushed into the ecologically significant littoral  
 6 zone along the southwest shore of the Lake.

7 **Figure 8-13** shows the LOEM predicted impact of ALT2 hydrology on Lake Okeechobee SAV coverage  
 8 and biomass for the simulated period of 1999 to 2009. During this period, the lake experienced a  
 9 significant drought in 2001. Following the drought, the SAV in the lake expanded to more than 50,000  
 10 acres which is greatest amount of SAV coverage ever measured. As a result of the 2004 and 2005  
 11 hurricanes, the SAV acreage crashed as a result of excessive turbidity which limited light transmittance  
 12 which is important to SAV. The lake elevation graph at the top of **Figure 8-13** is in meters. The 2.5-  
 13 meter (m) elevation is equivalent to a lake stage of 17.2-ft NGVD and the 0.5-m elevation is equivalent  
 14 to a lake stage of 10.6-ft NGVD. In mid-2001, the ALT2 hydrology increases the lake elevation by  
 15 approximately 0.5-m. This resulted in a predicted increase in SAV acreage of approximately 10,000  
 16 acres during a 90-120 day period. Similarly, in 2007 and 2008, the increased lake stage due to ALT2 ASR  
 17 resulted in two instances where SAV acreage was increased by approximately 10,000 acres. Though  
 18 ALT2 hydrology appears to increase SAV acreage, SAV biomass does not appear to be substantially  
 19 impacted by this hydrologic scenario. Note that the ALT2 scenario is not considered feasible for  
 20 hydrogeologic reasons.

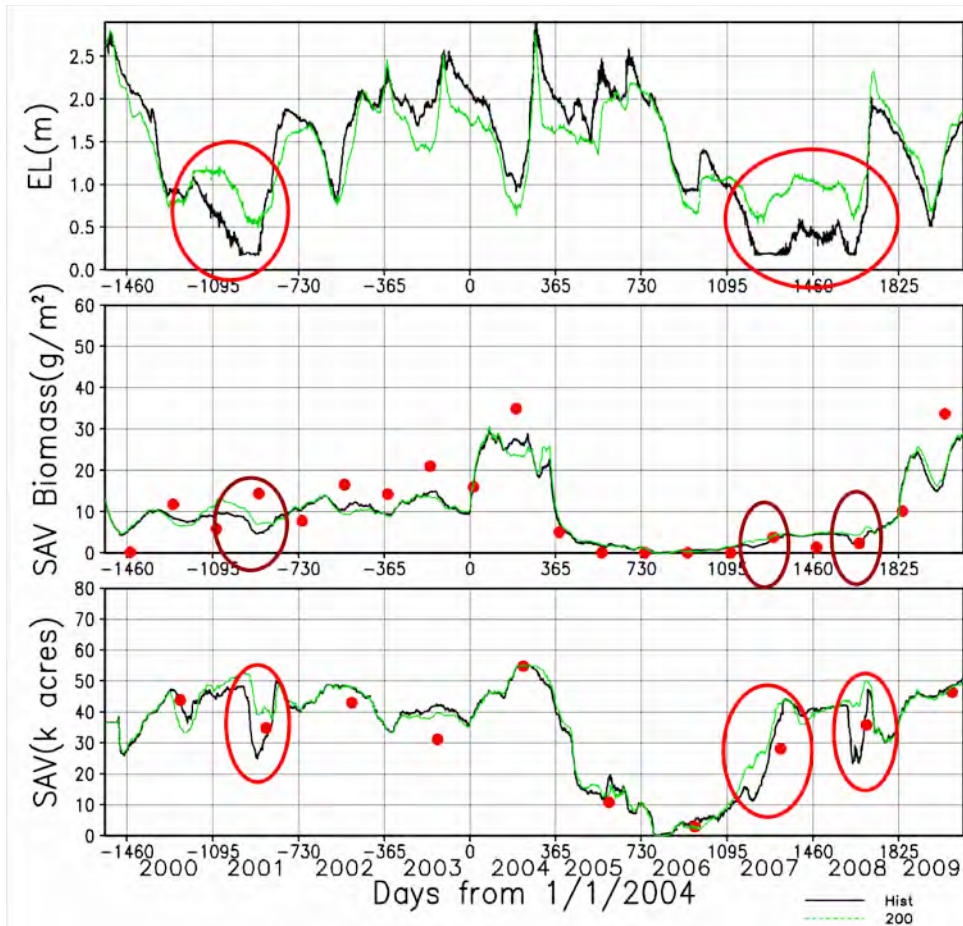


Figure 8-13 -- SAV predictions for ALT2 scenario. Red dots represent field data. Base condition represents no-ASR alternative, 200 represents ALT2 scenario.

- 1 **Figure 8-14** shows the impact of the ALT4C on SAV biomass and acreage. ALT4 hydrology increases lake
- 2 stages during 2001 and 2007 by approximately 0.25 meters which is half the increase predicted for ALT2.
- 3 The LOEM model predicts greater SAV acreage and biomass during 2001 and 2007 for ALT4V relative to
- 4 the baseline prediction than that predicted for ALT2V. One possible explanation for this is that depth
- 5 conditions and timing are more favorable for SAV under ALT4 during the 2001 and 2007 critical periods
- 6 than that for ALT2.

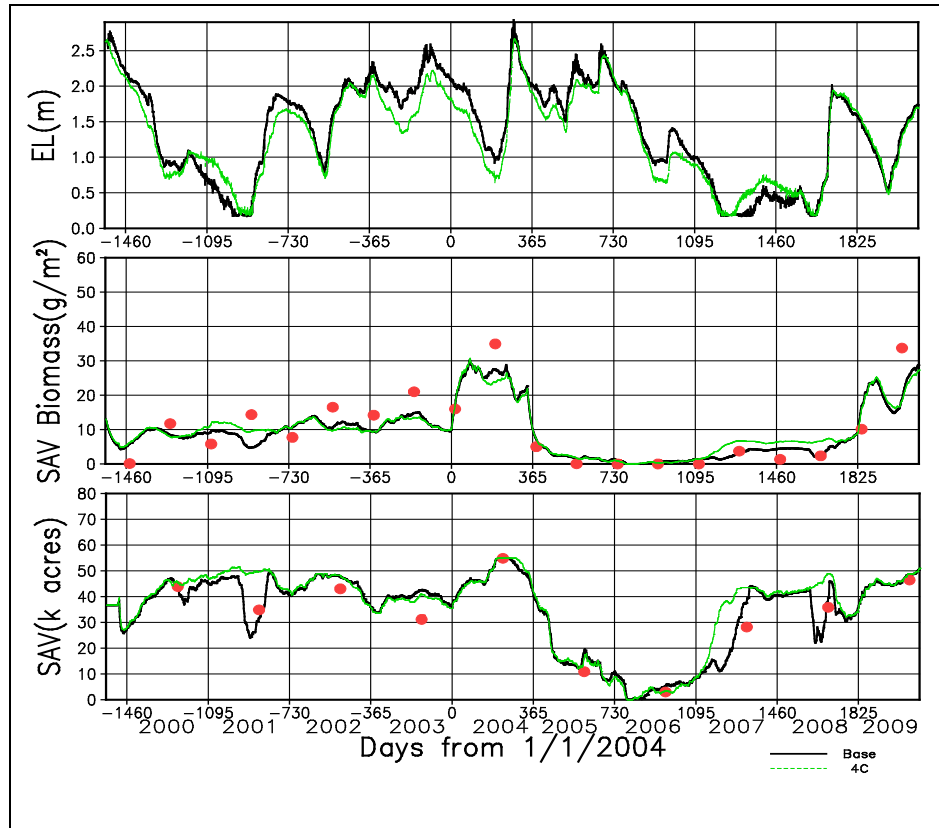


Figure 8-14 -- SAV predictions for ALT4 scenario. Red dots represent field data. Base condition represents no-ASR alternative, 4C represents ALT4C scenario).

1 As discussed earlier, the LOEM model was not used to simulate ALT4-S11 conditions since the LOEM  
 2 modeling work was completed before this alternative was conceived. Rough projections of impacts to  
 3 SAV caused by the implementation of ALT4-S11 can be made using SAV output from the ALT4 LOEM  
 4 model run as a guide and the projected changes in minimum lake stage conditions from the LOOPS  
 5 simulation output. The maximum ASR related increase in lake stage from ASR is 0.6 ft for ALT4 and 0.1  
 6 ft for ALT4-S11. In comparison to the no ASR alternative, the lowest lake stage over the 41 year  
 7 simulation period increases by 0.3-ft with ALT4 and decreases by 0.1 ft with ALT4-S11. With limited ASR  
 8 recovery flows, ALT4-S11 performs worse under dry conditions relative to ALT4 and the no ASR  
 9 alternatives and it is likely that SAV conditions in the lake would either see no improvement with this  
 10 alternative or a decrease in SAV coverage and biomass. Poor low-lake stage performance for ALT4-S11  
 11 is a result of pumping large volumes of Lake water into the APPZ and BZ storage zones and never  
 12 recovering this water. For instance, in ALT4S-11 the total volume of stored ASR water over the 1965-  
 13 2005 period is 10 million ac-ft while the predicted recovered volume is less than 900,000 ac-ft. ALT4 has  
 14 the same recharge volume but its recovery volume of the same period is approximately twice that of  
 15 ALT4-S11 at 1.75 million ac-ft. Color and turbidity changes to Lake Okeechobee and the Greater  
 16 Everglades from ASR discharges are considered to be low given the dilution and mixing of recovered ASR  
 17 water with Lake water so no change to SAV from these water quality effects are anticipated.



### 1 8.3.5 Everglades Landscape Model for Sulfate

2 Sulfate dynamics within the Everglades Protective Area (EPA) play a qualitative role in regulating  
3 mercury methylation and bioaccumulation by fish. The Everglades Landscape Model (ELM) was  
4 originally developed to simulate the landscape vegetation response to changes in hydrology and  
5 nutrients within the EPA. ELM version 2.8.6 (Fitz, 2013) was modified for this ERA to include the  
6 simulation of ASR related changes to sulfate loads within the EPA. Rather than use the D13R hydrology,  
7 the ELM-Sulfate model used the revised CERPO hydrology since this extended the simulation period from  
8 1995 to 2000. The output from the ELM-Sulfate model was used to evaluate the potential for ASR  
9 discharges into the Everglades to change the existing mercury methylation conditions. Output from this  
10 modeling effort is discussed in the **Section 8.4**.

## 11 8.4 Mercury Methylation Potential

12 Sulfate has been identified by the USGS and other parties as potentially playing a significant role in  
13 regulating mercury methylation within Lake Okeechobee and the Greater Everglades. The ERA study  
14 team reviewed the ASR well placement scenarios and LOEM modeling output and determined that  
15 potential changes to sulfate loads delivered to Lake Okeechobee and the Greater Everglades was the  
16 most important exposure to evaluate for this region. ASR-related sulfate loads could potentially alter  
17 the location of methyl mercury hotspots and the rate of mercury methylation which could result in  
18 increased mercury bioaccumulation in fish. To address ASR-related sulfate loading, the team developed  
19 and linked a series of models culminating in the development of the ELM-Sulfate model by Fitz (2013)  
20 and the interpretation of this output (Orem et al., in review).

### 21 8.4.1 Lake Okeechobee Sulfate Simulations

22 The LOEM model was used to develop the sulfate boundary conditions for the ELM-Sulfate simulations.  
23 **Figure 8-15** shows the impact on Lake Okeechobee sulfate concentrations that result from ASR  
24 discharges from ALT2C, ALT2V, and ALT4C as predicted by the LOEM model.

25 LOEM Simulation results indicate that mean Lake sulfate concentrations will increase from the long-term  
26 background of 30 mg/L to 50 mg/L, 34 mg/L, and 31 mg/L, for scenarios ALT2C, ALT2V, and ALT4V,  
27 respectively. Based on the ALT4V results, no change in the long-term average sulfate concentration  
28 would be expected from ALT4-S11 given its reduced recovered water volume discharged to the Lake.

29 The additional sulfate loading for any of these alternatives is expected to have minimal impacts on  
30 methyl mercury production in Lake Okeechobee if the relationship between sulfate and methyl mercury  
31 is similar to that observed in the water conservation areas (WCA) and ENP. While no detailed studies of  
32 Hg methylation in Lake Okeechobee have been conducted, mercury levels in the muscle of gar and other  
33 top predator fish collected from Lake Okeechobee are similar to, or lower than, those generally reported

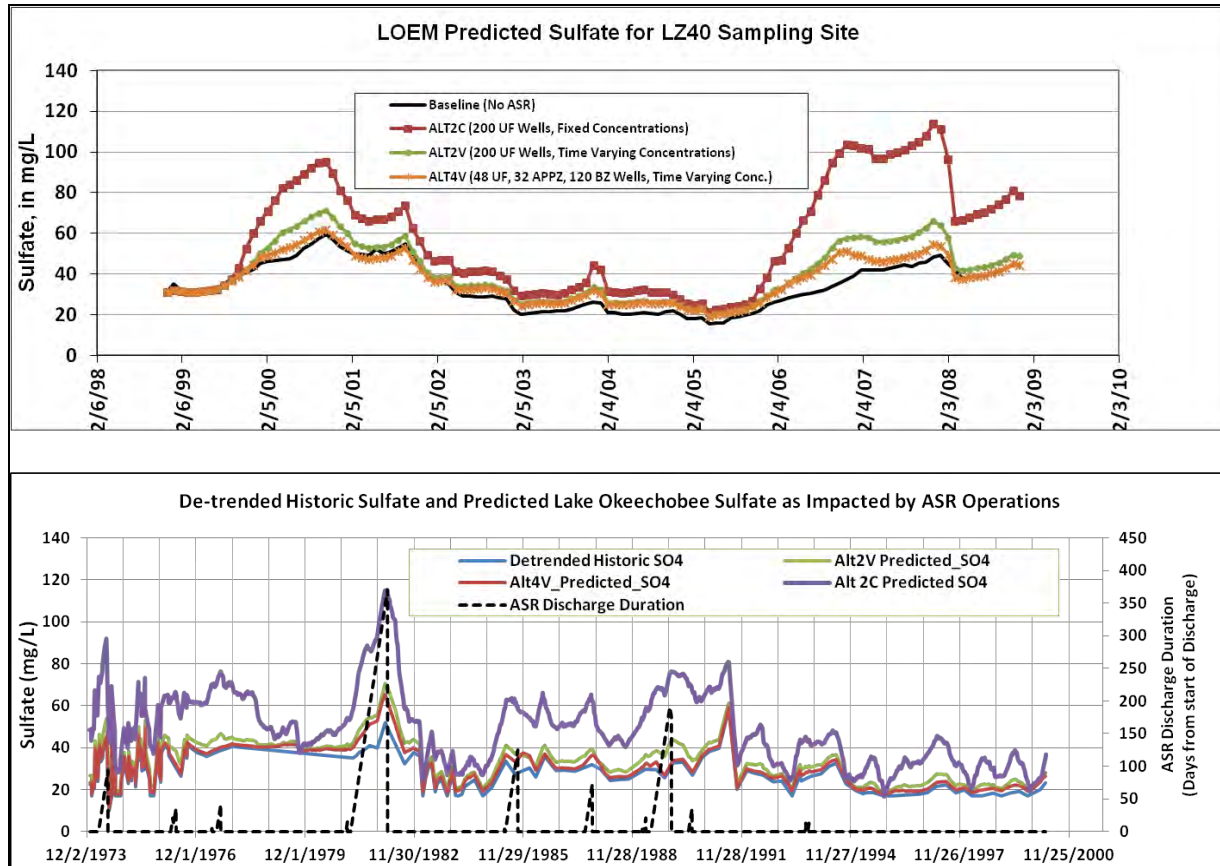


Figure 8-15 -- Predicted  $\text{SO}_4$  concentrations in Lake Okeechobee from LOEM for the 1999-2009 period (top graph); and estimated ASR-related  $\text{SO}_4$  concentrations during the 1974-2000 time period (bottom graph).

1 from other areas of the United States. Thus, although the levels of mercury in fish from the Everglades  
 2 to the south of Lake Okeechobee are sufficiently high to result in human fish consumption advisories,  
 3 there are no similar advisories for Lake Okeechobee. The reasons for this are not presently known, but  
 4 there are several likely explanations. First, while there are some areas of mud and peat bottom  
 5 sediments, most of the lake bottom consists primarily of rubble and sand with relatively low organic  
 6 carbon content. This type of sediment is not generally associated with sulfate reduction and methyl  
 7 mercury formation. Second, observed sulfate levels of approximately 30 mg/L in the lake place its  
 8 condition in the zone of methylation inhibition. Third, several lines of evidence suggest that microbial  
 9 sulfate reduction is not prevalent in Lake Okeechobee. Sulfur models for Lake Okeechobee indicate that  
 10 it is more of a reservoir of sulfate within the ecosystem, and there is no source of sulfate and minimal  
 11 retention of sulfur within the Lake (James and McCormick, 2012). The lack of sulfur retention further  
 12 suggests that limited sedimentary sulfate reduction is occurring within the Lake. Thus, Lake Okeechobee  
 13 receives sulfate inflow from rivers to the north, back-pumping from the Everglades Agricultural Area,  
 14 and small amounts from rainfall, some evapo-concentration of sulfate occurs due to the large surface  
 15 area of the lake, and the sulfate passes through on its way to the EPA. Fourth, Lake Okeechobee does  
 16 not commonly stratify with regard to oxygen, which is a condition frequently observed in lakes with  
 17 elevated methyl mercury (Rask et al., 2010). Last, eutrophic lakes like Lake Okeechobee generally

1 exhibit low methyl mercury levels, likely due to bio-dilution effects (Chen and Folt, 2006). Overall, there  
 2 appears to be a low risk that any of the ASR alternatives would adversely impact mercury methylation  
 3 dynamics within most of the Lake; however, there is a moderate level of uncertainty surrounding this  
 4 risk characterization result since the Lake is very large and there may be locations within the Lake that  
 5 favor mercury methylation which might be exposed to ASR flows.

#### 6 8.4.2 Greater Everglades Sulfate Simulations

7 Three spatial performance metrics were developed to evaluate the ELM-Sulfate simulation output. The  
 8 first performance metric, Sulfate Loss, measures the rate of marsh uptake of sulfate from the water  
 9 column over the simulation period. This metric provides an integrated perspective of the exposure of  
 10 additional sulfate load on the landscape; however, since it is a long-term average it tends to mask short-  
 11 term impulses which may be critical to the mercury methylation and bioaccumulation processes. The  
 12 second metric is  $\text{SO}_4$  period of record spatial average concentration. This metric provides a long-term  
 13 perspective of the areas that are subjected to additional sulfate loading; however, again it does not  
 14 capture short-term exposure. The third metric is the short-term average water column  $\text{SO}_4$   
 15 concentration mapping. This metric captures short-term increases in sulfate concentrations that  
 16 potentially could result in changes to methyl mercury dynamics and subsequent bioaccumulation in fish.

17 **Figure 8-16** shows the water column sulfate concentration in WCA-3A in the vicinity of the L-29  
 18 Interceptor canal for a period in 1982 that represents a worst-case scenario. This time period was  
 19 selected because ASR operations before and after this date would result in the highest Lake sulfate  
 20 concentrations for the 1974-1999 period as shown in **Figure 8-15**. **Figures 8-17, 8-18, and 8-19** show the  
 21 results for the third performance metric for 19 May 1982, which follows an extended ASR recovery  
 22 event. For ALT2C, **Figure 8-17** shows that there are more than 36,000 hectares (ha) with an increase in  
 23 water column sulfate of more than 5 mg/L. For ALT2V, **Figure 8-18** shows that there are slightly less  
 24 than 1,700 ha with an increase in water column sulfate of more than 5 mg/L. **Figure 8-19** shows that for  
 25 ALT4V there is no area with an increase or decrease of water column sulfate of  $\pm 5$  mg/L.

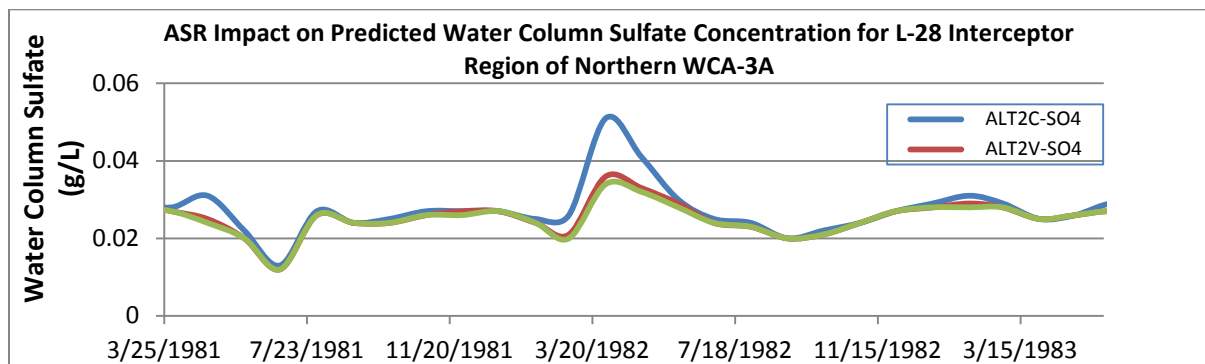


Figure 8-16 -- ELM-Sulfate predicted  $\text{SO}_4$  concentrations in WCA-3A near the L-28 Interceptor.

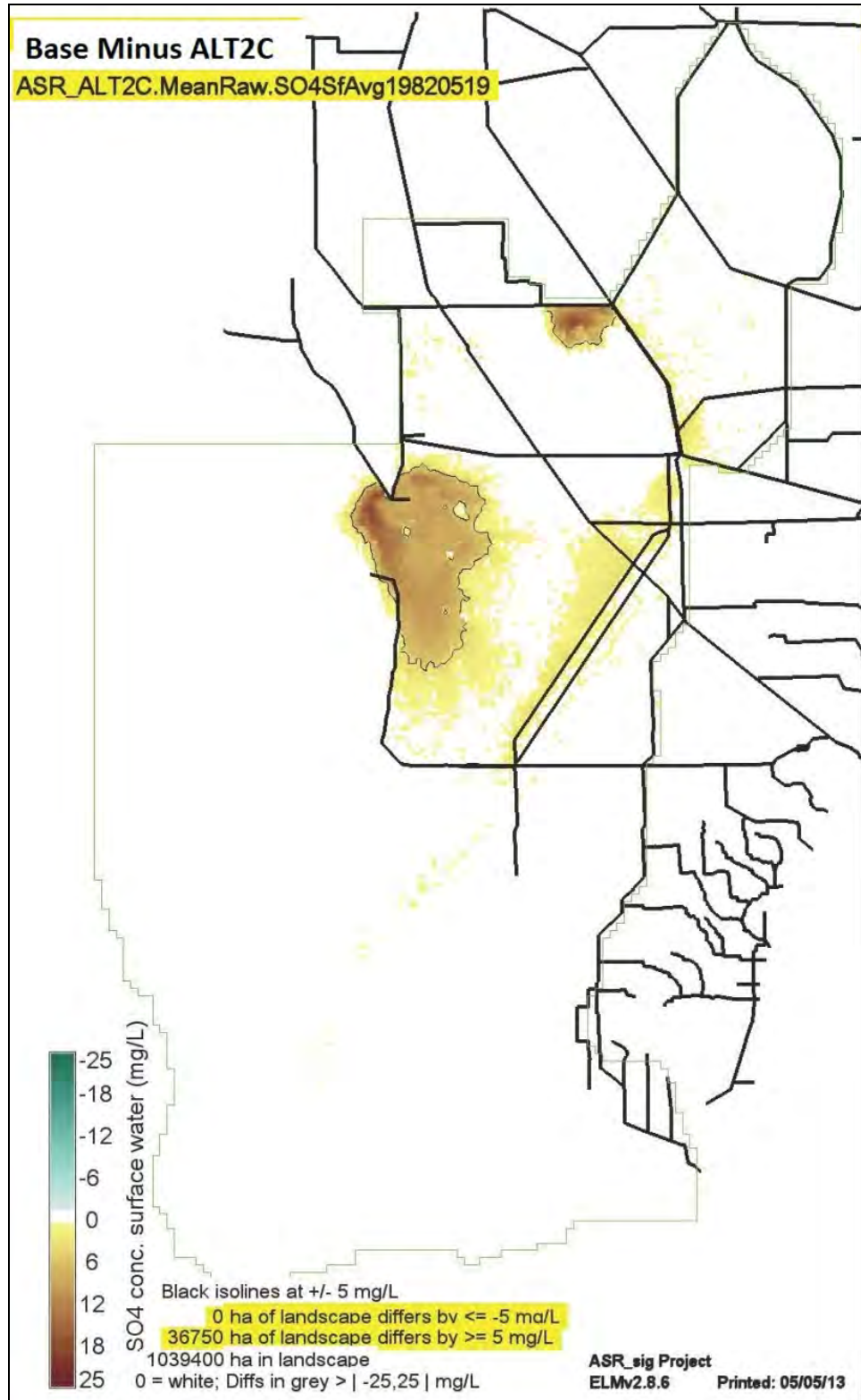


Figure 8-17 -- Predicted Impact of ALT2C on SO<sub>4</sub> Concentration in the Everglades Protection Area on 19 May 1982. Hectares (ha). Scale shows difference in SO<sub>4</sub> concentrations between base and with-project conditions.

1

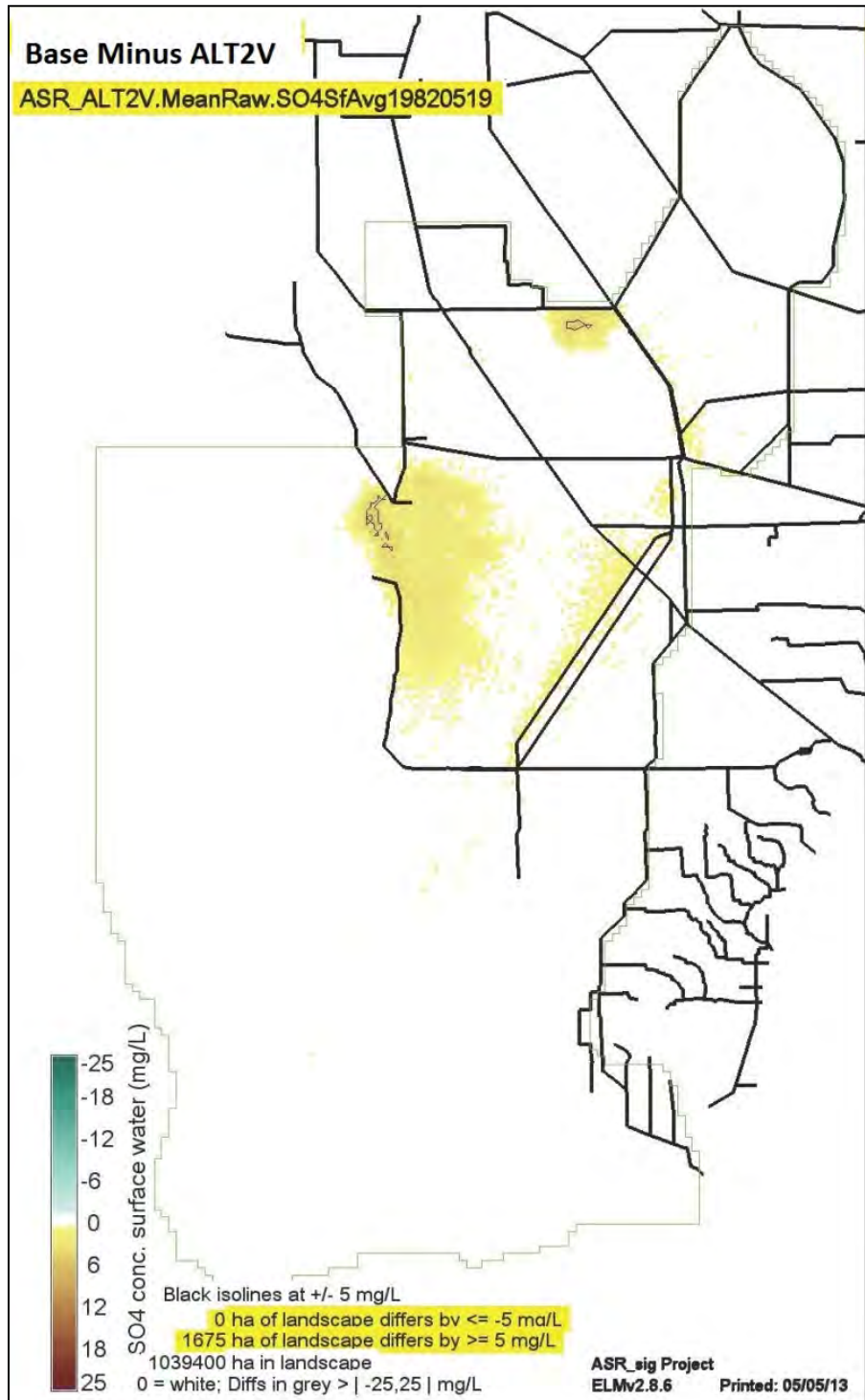


Figure 8-18 -- Predicted Impact of ALT2V on SO<sub>4</sub> Concentration in the Everglades Protection Area on 19 May 1982. Scale shows difference in SO<sub>4</sub> concentrations between base and with-project conditions.

2

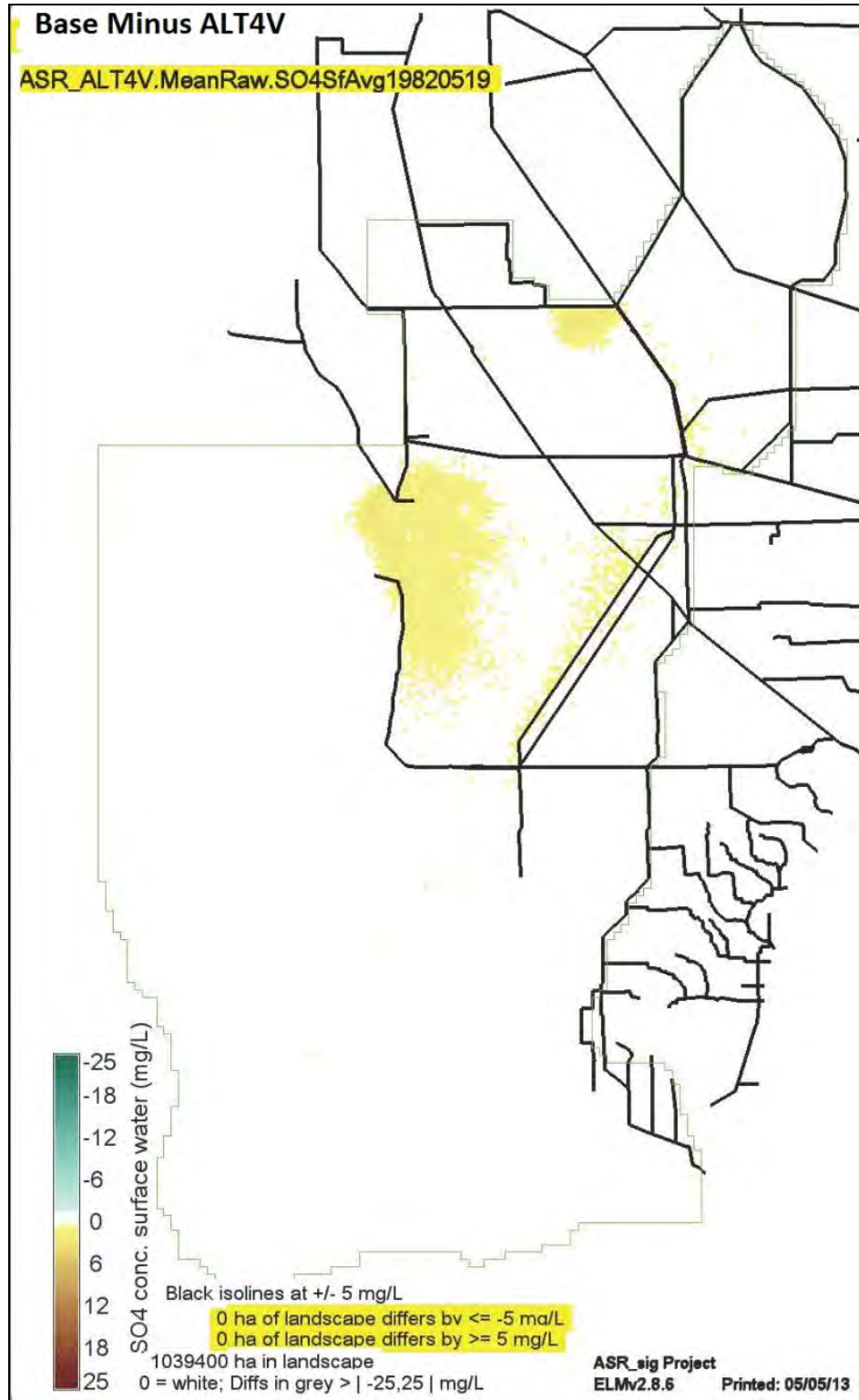


Figure 8-19 -- Predicted Impact of ALT4V on SO<sub>4</sub> Concentration in the Everglades Protection Area on 19 May 1982.

1

2

1 Proportionately, the potential increase in sulfate load from ASR operations to the Greater Everglades is  
2 less than that predicted for Lake Okeechobee because the Lake provides only one-third of the sulfate  
3 load to the Greater Everglades with the balance of the sulfate load coming from agricultural operations  
4 in the Everglades Agricultural Area and from atmospheric deposition. Although ASR sulfate loading is  
5 not predicted to be a dominant source of sulfate to the EPA overall and does not appear to significantly  
6 alter the total area of the EPA impacted, it may have ecosystem effects locally. For example, localized  
7 ASR sulfate loading near discharge points during certain time periods could produce critical tipping  
8 points with regard to stimulation/inhibition of methyl mercury production. Geochemical evolution of  
9 the soil-water system assumes that water column conditions, soil chemistry (i.e. DOC, pH, redox) and  
10 biological conditions (presence of mercury-methylating sulfate reducing bacteria) are suitable (Orem et  
11 al., 2011). The ELM-Sulfate model shows that ASR water entering the EPA does increase overall sulfate  
12 loading, but only during certain time periods and primarily in areas directly adjacent to stormwater  
13 treatment areas or canal discharge. When normalized to the baseline sulfate scenario, the impacts of  
14 ASR sulfate are minimal. This is primarily due to the dominance of EAA discharge with regard to sulfate  
15 loading to the ecosystem, and to dilution effects on the ASR discharge to the extensive EPA marshes.

16 Overall, the areas of changed methyl mercury risk attributable to the ASR operations are predicted to be  
17 minimal, and are located near major canal water release points in western WCA3, north-central WCA2,  
18 and northern Shark River Slough. Because the relationship between sulfate and methyl mercury  
19 production is nonlinear and hump shaped, the model generally predicts both regions of net increases  
20 and net decreases in methyl mercury risk in near proximity to each other. That is not to say, however,  
21 that sulfate releases from ASR or other canal water sources are not important, because in the absence  
22 of sustained sulfate loading to this ecosystem, methyl mercury levels in the EPA would be substantially  
23 reduced - once internal recycling of sediment sulfate pools subsided. Given the ELM-Sulfate modeling  
24 output, the risk of ASR sulfate related methylation effects is characterized as moderate for ALT2 and  
25 ALT3 while the risk for ALT4 and ALT4-S11 are characterized as low due to the reduced ASR flows for  
26 these alternatives.

## 27 8.5 Ecological Risk Assessment for the ASR Regional Study

28 The ERA evaluated potential beneficial or adverse effects of ASR implementation in the Lake  
29 Okeechobee Basin and downstream in the Greater Everglades, including assessment endpoints and  
30 ecosystem attributes that are most sensitive and highly valued. The risk assessment process used for  
31 this report followed USEPA guidance on ERA studies as illustrated in **Figure 8-19**. As part of an ERA, risk  
32 assessors evaluate goals and select assessment endpoints, prepare the conceptual model, and develop  
33 an analysis plan. During the analysis phase, assessors evaluate exposure to stressors and the  
34 relationship between stressor levels and ecological effects. During risk characterization, assessors  
35 estimate risk through integration of exposure and stressor-response information, describe risks by  
36 discussing lines of evidence and determining ecological adversity, and prepare a report. The ERA team  
37 which included representatives from the USACE, SFWMD, USFWS, FDEP, Florida Fish and Wildlife  
38 Conservation Commission (FFWCC), University of Florida, and Golder Associates (contractor to USACE

- 1 and SFWMD) created a study plan that included identification of stressors and receptors and  
 2 development of an ecotoxicology program and water quality and ecological monitoring.

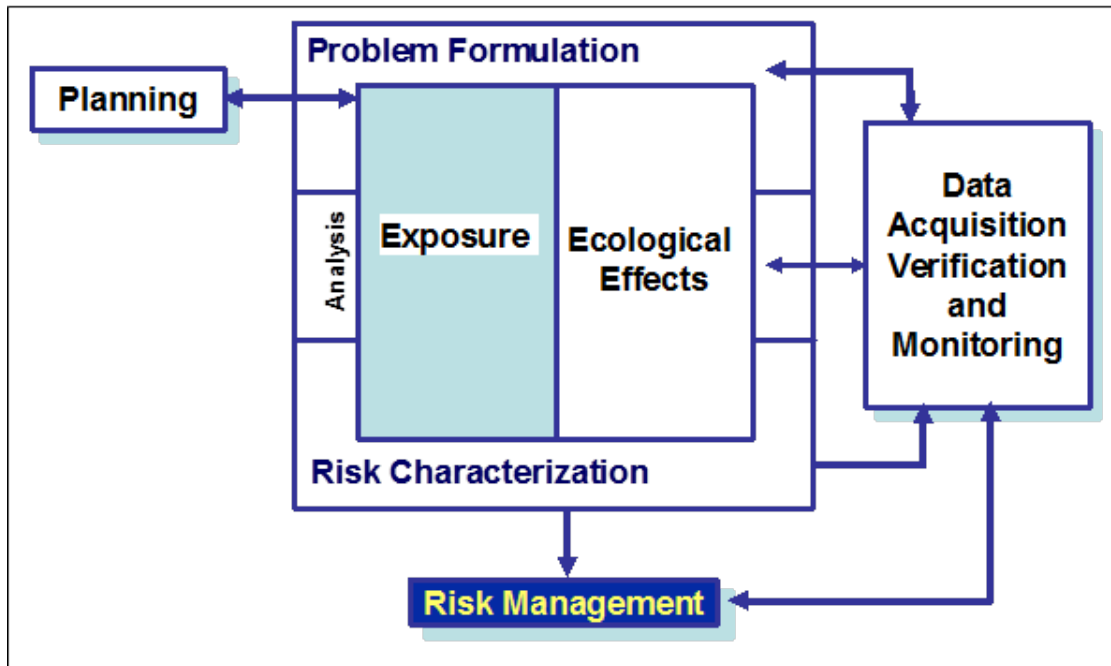


Figure 8-20 -- Ecological Risk Assessment Framework (USEPA, 1998).

- 3 The ERA team developed a list of stressors using their knowledge of south Florida freshwater and  
 4 estuarine habitats, surface water and groundwater quality, site-specific hydrogeology, and operational  
 5 water quality data collected at utility-owned ASR sites located in Florida. The preliminary water quality  
 6 stressors were organized into five groups:

- 7 • general water quality constituents
- 8 • nutrients
- 9 • dissolved solids
- 10 • metals
- 11 • radionuclides

- 12 The team also identified and evaluated physical stressors such as temperature effects and impingement  
 13 and entrainment of larval fish. Based on the ERA team's understanding of ASR stressors modes of  
 14 action, fate and effects in south Florida ecosystems, along with water quality, the following assessment  
 15 endpoints were selected:

- 16 • Reproducing populations of native fish
- 17 • Survival of fish and aquatic Invertebrates
- 18 • Periphyton and algae species diversity and abundance
- 19 • submerged aquatic vegetation (SAV) abundance
- 20 • Human health and wildlife protection



1 The links between the stressors and receptors were codified in the conceptual ecological model shown  
2 in **Figure 8-20**. A list of effect hypotheses was developed to characterize the risks associated with  
3 ecosystem receptor exposure to ASR recharge and recovery flows. Stressor response and risks were  
4 characterized in terms of high, moderate, low, and minimal using the following definitions:

- 5 • **High** – Short-term or long-term effects are probable and would result in substantially lower  
6 abundance, diversity, or health of receptor organisms. These effects could influence the  
7 decision about whether or not to proceed with an ASR implementation alternative in a given  
8 locality, regardless of any possible mitigation.
- 9 • **Moderate** – Short-term or long-term effects are possible and may result in substantially lower  
10 abundance, diversity, or health of receptor organisms. These effects are sufficiently important  
11 to consider mitigation if ASR is implemented in that locality.
- 12 • **Low** – Short-term or long-term effects are not expected that would result in substantially lower  
13 abundance, diversity, or health of receptor organisms. These effects probably would not require  
14 modification of ASR implementation beyond monitoring to validate the low risk  
15 characterization.
- 16 • **Minimal** – Short-term or long-term effects are most likely not measurable.

17 The uncertainty of the effects characterizations are defined as the following:

- 18 • **High** - The predicted risk is based upon limited information; therefore, additional information  
19 should be collected prior to implementation of ASR.
- 20 • **Moderate** - The predicted risk is based upon likely sufficient information, but should be  
21 validated further prior to implementation of ASR.
- 22 • **Low** - The predicted risk is based upon substantial information and likely does not need further  
23 verification.

## 24 8.6 ERA Risk Characterization

25 Risk characterization is the final phase of the ERA and it summarizes the predicted adverse ecological  
26 effects of regional ASR implementation as related to the assessment endpoints selected. Model  
27 simulation outputs and ecotoxicological study results for the Lake Okeechobee Basin were the basis for  
28 estimating the exposures to the near-field, mid-field, far-field, and far-far field receiving water bodies  
29 for the ASR scenarios evaluated in this ERA.

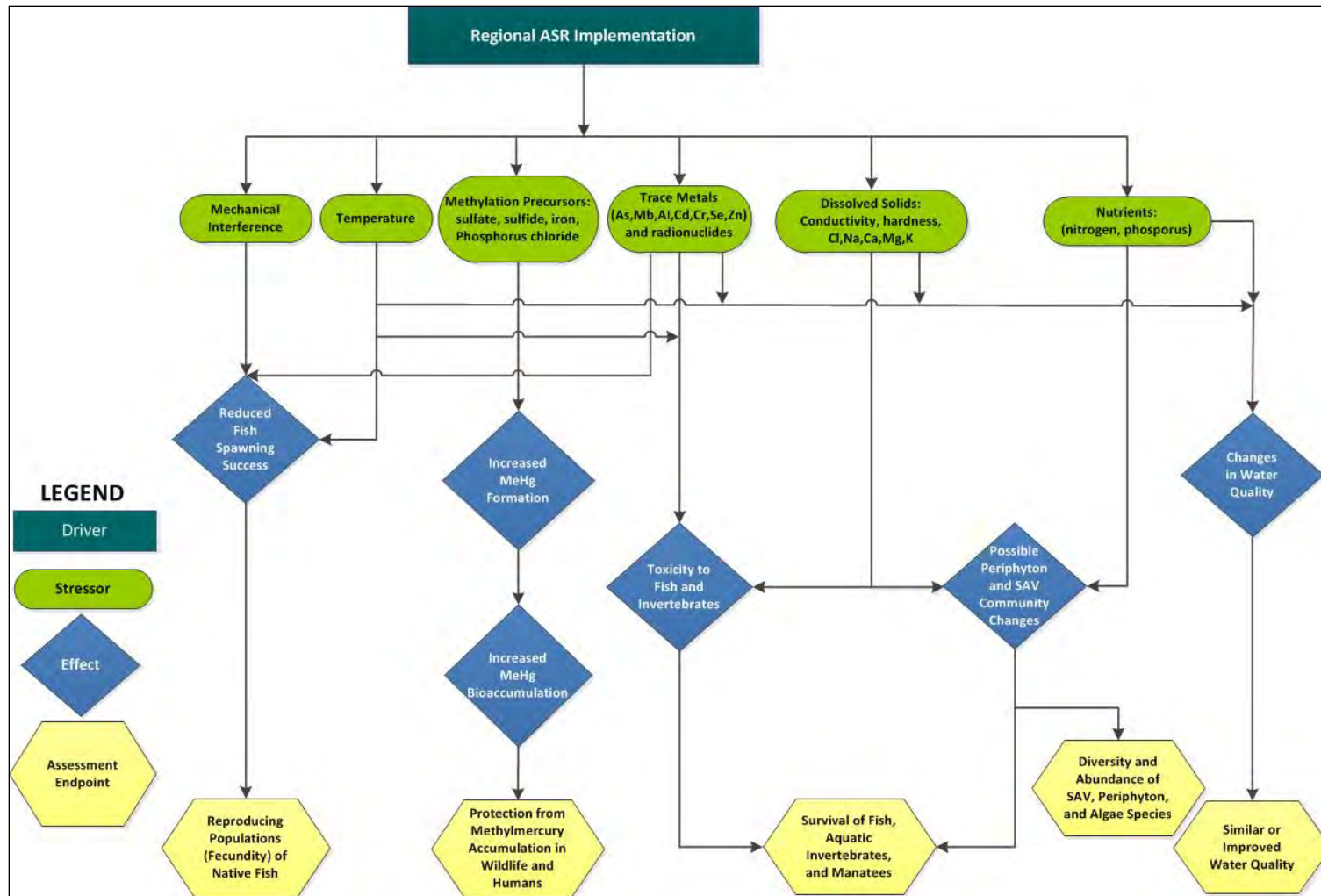


Figure 8-21-- ASR Regional Study ERA conceptual ecological model.

### 1 8.6.1 Near-Field Water Quality Risks (Single ASR Discharge)

2 The near-field receiving water body is defined as the waters within the probable mixing zone of a single  
3 ASR well discharge. **Table 8-2** summarizes the risks and benefits to the near-field environment from  
4 discharges from single ASRs. Water quality and toxicity data collected at KRASR and HASR sites indicate  
5 that arsenic, gross-alpha, and chronic toxicity are the most likely water quality effects that could be  
6 observed within the recovered water discharge mixing zone (Section 4, Appendix A). These parameters  
7 are discussed in detail below:

- 8 • **Arsenic** - The levels of arsenic discharged present a **minimal** risk of acute toxicity to aquatic  
9 species in the near-field receiving waters; but the initial cycles do present a **moderate** risk for  
10 arsenic bioaccumulation in biota in the near-field due initial higher concentrations.
- 11 • **Gross Alpha** - Gross-alpha measurements at KRASR showed an exceedance of the Class III  
12 standard of 15 picocuries/L with a single measurement of 18 picocuries/L (cycle test 3 at KRASR),  
13 though the average concentration was below 7 picocuries/L. Since no other exceedance of the  
14 gross alpha standard was observed at KRASR or HASR, the risk of exceeding the surface water  
15 standard for this parameter in the near-field is considered to be **moderate**. Bioconcentration  
16 studies using mussels were conducted during cycle tests 1 and 2, and they did not show any  
17 bioconcentration of radium gross-alpha in the mussel tissues. The risk of radium  
18 bioconcentrating from ASR recovered water discharges in aquatic biota is considered **minimal**.
- 19 • **Chronic Toxicity** - There appears to be a change in recovered water quality that occurs late in  
20 the cycles that results in a minor, but statistically significant, reduction in reproduction of *C.*  
21 *dubia*. Six out of 16 tests showed a reduction in reproduction of *C. dubia* during the later  
22 periods of cycling, therefore this observation is credible. This is a very sensitive test species and  
23 fecundity is also a sensitive endpoint. The tests that showed an effect on reproduction at full  
24 strength recovered water, also showed that a dilution less than or equal to 50 percent  
25 recovered water did not elicit this effect on reproduction. The only exception was the May 2011  
26 test (during cycle 3), that showed an IC<sub>25</sub> of 7.2 percent recovered water; meaning that  
27 reproduction was inhibited by 25 percent at 7.2 percent recovered water. The same set of May  
28 samples showed the only acute effect observed on *C. dubia*. Subsequent samples taken in June  
29 2011 did not replicate this chronic effect.

30 The source of the chronic toxicity is not known with certainty; it is possible that it could be related to  
31 elevated sulfide concentrations that occur during the later portion of a recovery event. Five out of the 6  
32 tests showed that this effect on reproduction was no longer observed at 50 percent dilution. The risk of  
33 chronic toxicity in the receiving water is expected to be **moderate**, of short duration and localized to the  
34 vicinity of the discharge.

35

| Risks to Near-Field Water Quality (Mixing Zone – Single ASR Discharge)                                     |                            |             |
|--|----------------------------|-------------|
| Consequence  | ALT2, ALT3, ALT4, ALT4-S11 | Uncertainty |
| Risk of violating Class I Surface Water Quality Standard for arsenic                                       | Moderate to low            | Moderate    |
| Risk of acute toxicity – Arsenic   | Minimal                    | Low         |
| Risk of bioconcentration – Arsenic   | Moderate                   | Low         |
| Risk of violating Class I/III Surface Water Quality Standard for gross alpha                               | Moderate                   | Low         |
| Risk of bioconcentration – Gross-alpha   | Minimal                    | Moderate    |
| Risk of violating other Class I/III Water Quality Standards  | Low                        | Low         |
| Risk of beneficial or detrimental impact to surface water quality due to reduced phosphorus concentrations | Low                        | Low         |
| Risk of ASR sulfate loads and concentrations adversely impacting mercury methylation / bioaccumulation     | Low                        | Low         |
| Risk of acute toxicity   | Minimal                    | Low         |
| Risk of chronic toxicity   | Moderate                   | Low         |
| Benefit to Near-Field Water Quality  |                            |             |
| Water Clarity  | High                       | Low         |

### 8.6.2 Mid-Field Water Quality Effects (Multiple ASRs in the Lower Kissimmee River)

The mid-field receiving water body is defined in this ERA as the waters immediately downstream of the ASR discharge mixing zone. The primary mid-field receiving water body evaluated in this ERA was the Kissimmee River, though the water quality risks presented here are generally applicable to other receiving water bodies immediately downstream of an ASR discharge site mixing zone. This discussion includes all the multiple ASR scenarios modeled. The mid-field risks are summarized in **Table 8-3**.

- Water Quality Parameters** - For the mid-field zone, the risk of violating water quality standards for arsenic, gross-alpha, and other Class I/III parameters was considered to be higher for the alternatives with greater recovered flow (ALT2 and ALT3) for the Kissimmee River since the mixing zones for these alternatives may include a significant portion of the total volume and area of the lower Kissimmee River Basin during low flow periods at the S-65E structure. With multiple ASR discharges in close proximity, the recovered water will not dilute as quickly as in the single ASR evaluation; however, after several cycles, the concentration of arsenic in the recovered water would decrease and this risk would be low.
- Acute and Chronic Toxicity** - The risk of observing acute toxicity in the receiving water mid-field is characterized as **minimal**, since this risk was minimal at the point of discharge. The risk of

1 observing chronic toxicity in the mid-field is considered **moderate to low** since at times the  
2 complete receiving water canal may be comprised primarily by ASR recovered waters under  
3 some of the scenarios evaluated.

- 4 • **Sulfate** - The risk in the Kissimmee River that elevated sulfate loading originating from the ASRs  
5 will increase in the mid-field zone is **high** for those alternatives such as ALT2 and ALT3 that  
6 discharge large quantities of ASR flow into the Kissimmee River. It is plausible for ALT2 and ALT3  
7 that the increased concentration of sulfate in the mid-field zone during ASR recovery events  
8 could alter the dynamics of mercury methylation in the river. The risk is low for ALT4 and ALT4S-  
9 11, due to lower recovery volumes.

10 Given the complexity of the mercury cycle in the environment, it is difficult to conclude with any  
11 certainty the risk that additional sulfate could present on mercury methylation and subsequent  
12 bioaccumulation of mercury by aquatic biota in the mid-field zone. Given that Pool E shares many of  
13 the same physical and chemical attributes of Lake Okeechobee, the impact of ASR-related sulfate on  
14 mercury methylation in this portion of the lower Kissimmee River would likely be similar to that  
15 predicted for Lake Okeechobee. For Lake Okeechobee ASR sulfate is not expected to impact  
16 mercury methylation dynamics.

- 17 • **Water Hardness** - Based on recovered water having about three times the concentration of  
18 hardness (200 mg/L) as the receiving water (60 mg/L), the risk of increased hardness in the mid-  
19 field is estimated to be **high** for ALT2 and ALT3, **moderate** for ALT4, and **low** for ALT4-S11 based  
20 on the relative volume of recovered ASR water for each of these alternatives. All water quality  
21 impacts in the mid-field zone associated with ASR are coincident with recovery events and are  
22 unlikely to persist after recovery ceases. Discharges of greater concentrations of hardness from  
23 deeper ASR wells completed in the APPZ is likely to be limited by the need to cease ASR recovery  
24 once on-site continuous measurement of specific conductivity exceeds 1,275  $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$ .
- 25 • **Color and Turbidity** - For the mid-field zones modeled in the Kissimmee River, the potential for  
26 improved water clarity during recovery and discharge is assumed to be **high** for ALT2 and  
27 **moderate** for ALT3. Increased water clarity carries with it the risk of triggering cyanobacterial  
28 blooms, particularly under the nutrient-enriched conditions of the receiving waters and  
29 especially if the zone of clarity extends beyond the edge of the nearshore zone that typically is  
30 colonized by SAV. ALT4 and ALT4-S11 are not likely to show improved water clarity (over the  
31 background receiving waters) because of significantly less ASR recovered flows in these  
32 scenarios.

### 33 8.6.3 Far-Field Water Quality Effects (Lake Okeechobee)

34 The far-field receiving water body is defined in this ERA as the waters immediately downstream of  
35 the mid-field receiving water body. The transition between the mid-field and far-field water bodies  
36 is located where additional mixing and dilution occurs as a result of other water flows or available  
37 storage. The only far-field receiving water body evaluated in this ERA is Lake Okeechobee.

| Risk to Mid-Field Water Quality (Multiple ASR Wells in the Lower Kissimmee River) |          |          |         |          |             |
|---|----------|----------|---------|----------|-------------|
| Consequence   | ALT2     | ALT3     | ALT4    | ALT4S-11 | Uncertainty |
| Risk of violating Class I Water Quality Standard for arsenic                      | Moderate | Moderate | Low     | Low      | Low         |
| Risk of violating Class I/III Water Quality Standards for gross alpha             | Moderate | Moderate | Low     | Low      | Low         |
| Risk of violating other Class I/III Water Quality Standards                       | Moderate | Moderate | Low     | Low      | Low         |
| Risk that sulfate load and concentration adversely impact mercury methylation     | Moderate | Moderate | Low     | Low      | Moderate    |
| Risk of ecologically significant increased hardness load                          | High     | Moderate | Low     | Low      | Low         |
| Risk of acute toxicity  | Minimal  | Minimal  | Minimal | Minimal  | Low         |
| Risk of chronic toxicity  | Moderate | Moderate | Low     | Low      | Low         |
| Benefit to Mid-Field Water Quality  |          |          |         |          |             |
| Potential for increased water clarity (reduced color and turbidity)               | High     | Moderate | Low     | Low      | Low         |

1 The most important predicted water quality changes for Lake Okeechobee were:

- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- The potential for reduced total phosphorus loading
  - The potential for improved water clarity
  - The discharge of ASR-related sulfate
  - Ecologically significant increase in Lake water hardness

6 **Table 8-4** summarizes the risks and benefits to Lake Okeechobee water quality from ASR recovered  
7 water discharges.

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- **Total Phosphorus** - A mass balance assessment and the results from the LOEM model were evaluated to assess these potential water quality changes. The storage and discharge of ASR flows within the Lake Okeechobee basin will reduce total phosphorus loading to the Lake by an average of 30 mTons/yr for ALT2, ALT4, and ALT4-S11. ALT3 would provide a reduction of an average of 19 mTons/yr of total phosphorus. The reduction in lake phosphorus load due to ASR operations is an important **benefit** of CERP ASR in this basin given it represents 7 to 10 percent of the current annual Lake phosphorus load and as such, assists potential attainment of the annual TMDL load for the Lake of 130 mTons/yr.
  - **Color and Turbidity** - Discharge of ASR recovered water into Lake Okeechobee has a **low** probability of significantly improving water clarity regardless of ASR alternative due to mixing with a much larger volume of Lake water and because turbidity caused by wind and wave tends to control water clarity within the Lake.

- 1       • **Sulfate** - Simulation results indicate that mean Lake sulfate concentrations will increase from  
2       the long-term background of 30 mg/L to 50 mg/L, 34 mg/L, and 31 mg/L, for scenarios ALT2C,  
3       ALT2V, and ALT4V, respectively. Based on the ALT4V results that show minimal changes, no  
4       change in the long-term average sulfate concentration would be expected from ALT4-S11 given  
5       its reduced recovered water volume discharged to the Lake. The additional sulfate loading for  
6       any of these alternatives is expected to have **minimal** impacts on methyl mercury production in  
7       Lake Okeechobee if the relationship between sulfate and methyl mercury is similar to that  
8       observed in the WCAs and ENP. Factors that reduce the risk of increasing methylation in the  
9       lake include: non-organic lake sediments, elevated sulfate concentrations above methylation  
10      inhibition concentrations, minimal evidence of microbial sulfate reduction, and absence of  
11      thermal stratification in the lake.
- 12      • **Water Hardness** - Lake Okeechobee water hardness would be impacted by several of the ASR  
13      implementation alternatives. Lake hardness is normally in the 110 to 140 mg/L as CaCO<sub>3</sub> range  
14      with a standard deviation of 25 mg/L. Using the simplified mass balance approach, the  
15      extended ASR recovery event in 1982, would increase hardness load by 70 percent for ALT2, 35  
16      percent for ALT3 and ALT4, and 15 percent for ALT4-S11. If the increase in load is conservatively  
17      equated as an equivalent increase in concentration, ALT2 would result in a maximum hardness  
18      concentration of more than 200 mg/L as CaCO<sub>3</sub> while ALT3/ALT4 would result in a maximum  
19      concentration around 160 mg/L as CaCO<sub>3</sub>. Based on the LOEM simulation results for chloride  
20      and sulfate, it is likely that increased lake hardness associated with ASR would be temporary and  
21      hardness concentrations would revert to baseline conditions within 6 to 12 months of the end of  
22      a recovery event. With reduced ASR discharges, the risk of adverse ecological impacts from  
23      ALT4-S11 related hardness is considered to be low though there is a moderate level of  
24      uncertainty with this estimate.

Table 8-4 -- Risks and Benefits to Far-Field Water Quality from Recovered Water Discharges into Lake Okeechobee.

| Risk to Far-Field Water Quality (Lake Okeechobee)                                       |          |          |          |          |             |
|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|-------------|
| Consequence   | ALT2     | ALT3     | ALT4     | ALT4S-11 | Uncertainty |
| Risk of increasing Lake sulfate concentrations  | High     | Moderate | Low      | Minimal  | Moderate    |
| Risk that increased Lake sulfate concentrations result in increased mercury methylation | Low      | Low      | Low      | Lowest   | Moderate    |
| Risk of ecologically significant increased hardness load                                | High     | Moderate | Moderate | Low      | Moderate    |
| Benefits to Far-Field Water Quality (Lake Okeechobee)                                   |          |          |          |          |             |
| Potential for Decreased Total Phosphorus Loading  | Moderate | Low      | Moderate | Moderate | Moderate    |
| Potential for Increased Water Clarity (reduced color and turbidity)                     | Low      | Low      | Low      | Minimal  | Low         |

25

#### 1 8.6.4 Far, Far-Field Water Quality Effects (Greater Everglades)

2 The far far-field receiving water body is defined in the ERA as the waters immediately downstream of  
3 the Lake Okeechobee. The transition between the far-field and far far-field water bodies is located  
4 where additional mixing and dilution occurs as a result of other water flows or available storage. The  
5 only far far-field receiving water body evaluated in the ERA is the Greater Everglades.

6 The most important risks to water quality for the Greater Everglades are the increase in sulfate load  
7 attributed to ASR discharges and the risk of significant increases in water hardness. **Table 8-5**  
8 summarizes the risks and benefits to the Greater Everglades from ASR recovered water discharges.

- 9 • **Sulfate** - Proportionately, the potential increase in sulfate load from ASR operations to the  
10 Greater Everglades is less than that predicted for Lake Okeechobee because the Lake provides  
11 only one-third of the sulfate load to the Greater Everglades with the balance of the sulfate load  
12 coming from agricultural operations in the Everglades Agricultural Area and from atmospheric  
13 deposition. The impact of ASR related sulfate discharges into the Greater Everglades is primarily  
14 expected to be a change in the locations where water column sulfate is within the “goldilocks”  
15 concentration range that optimizes mercury methylation chemistry.

16 Overall, the areas of changed methyl mercury risk attributable to the ASR operations are predicted to be  
17 minimal, and are located near major canal water release points in western WCA3, north-central WCA2,  
18 and northern Shark River Slough. Because the relationship between sulfate and methyl mercury  
19 production is nonlinear and hump shaped, the model generally predicts both regions of net increases  
20 and net decreases in methyl mercury risk in near proximity to each other. That is not to say, however,  
21 that sulfate releases from ASR or other canal water sources are not important, because in the absence  
22 of sustained sulfate loading to this ecosystem, methyl mercury levels in the EPA would be substantially  
23 reduced - once internal recycling of sediment sulfate pools subsided. Given the ELM-Sulfate modeling  
24 output, the risk of ASR sulfate related methylation effects is characterized as moderate for ALT2 and  
25 ALT3 while the risk for ALT4 and ALT4-S11 are characterized as low due to the reduced ASR flows for  
26 these alternatives.

- 27 • **Water Hardness** - Given that the Greater Everglades was historically a soft water system, the  
28 discharge of hard water into this region could result in risk to aquatic plant communities.  
29 Loxahatchee National Wildlife Refuge (WCA-1) is considered to be a soft water system so  
30 intermittent discharges of ASR related hardness would present a moderate risk to aquatic plant  
31 communities particularly for ALT2 and ALT3. Interior portions of WCA-2, WCA-3, and ENP are  
32 still considered to be soft water systems during average hydrologic conditions though during  
33 droughts the surface water tends to become more mineralized. Current discharges of hard  
34 water from the EAA likely affects the aquatic plants in these areas particularly near canals. ASR  
35 related hardness would result in additional affects; however, given the intermittent nature of  
36 the ASR flows and the fact that hardness concentrations would remain within the present range  
37 of EAA hardness concentrations measured at the inflow to STA 3/4 (360 mg/L ± 70 mg/L), the  
38 increase in risk is estimated to be low particularly for ALT4 and ALT4-S11.



| Risk to Far-Far Field Water Quality (Greater Everglades) |          |          |      |          |             |
|--|----------|----------|------|----------|-------------|
| Consequence  | ALT2     | ALT3     | ALT4 | ALT4S-11 | Uncertainty |
| Risk that sulfate load and concentrations increase       | Moderate | Moderate | Low  | Minimal  | Moderate    |
| Risk of increased mercury methylation                    | Low      | Low      | Low  | Minimal  | Moderate    |
| Risk of ecologically significant increased hardness load | Moderate | Moderate | Low  | Low      | Moderate    |

1

## 2 8.6.5 Risks and Benefits of ASR Recovered Water Discharges to Aquatic Species and 3 Communities

### 4 8.6.5.1 Algal Communities and Submerged Aquatic Vegetation in Lake Okeechobee

5 In-situ periphytometers were installed at three positions in the Kissimmee River at locations relative to  
6 the point of discharge (POD) at KRASR: upstream, at the cascade aerator, and downstream. The data  
7 collection objective was to quantify the effects of recovered water on in-stream periphyton  
8 communities. Because data were limited, comparisons of periphyton community diversity and  
9 abundance among locations could not be made for each operating phase (recharge, storage, and  
10 recovery). However, when the data were pooled there were no statistically significant differences in the  
11 community structure among the upstream, ASR discharge, or downstream locations. Periphyton  
12 communities may not readily reflect the effects of surface water-quality changes. However, if the  
13 quality of ASR recovered water influences periphyton community composition, it should have been  
14 evident from differences in diversity when upstream and downstream samples were compared. In  
15 addition, there was no indication of a shift to toxin-producing, cyanobacteria-dominated phytoplankton  
16 communities when baseline data are compared with recovery phase data. Given the low nutrient  
17 concentrations in the recovered water, the risk of a shift to cyanobacteria-dominated phytoplankton  
18 communities is low. In the nearshore region of the Lake Okeechobee, both the phytoplankton and  
19 periphyton communities have been dominated by diatom taxa since fall 2003 (phytoplankton) and  
20 summer 2002 (periphyton), so at least some overlap in community structure between the  
21 phytoplankton and periphyton communities has been documented, at least through fall 2012.

22 The LOEM model was used to predict the potential for changes to Lake Okeechobee SAV biomass and  
23 coverage (**Table 8-6**). These LOEM predictions are largely based upon ASR-related changes to lake stage  
24 conditions.

25 While ASR discharges might increase water column transmissivity (light penetration), this typically  
26 translates into increased photosynthesis and does not necessarily translate into more abundant SAV.  
27 Increased frequency of cyanobacterial blooms or an expansion of emergent aquatic vegetation also are  
28 likely outcomes depending on the precursor community, duration of clear conditions, nutrient levels, for  
29 example.

| Effect on Algal Communities and SAV in Lake Okeechobee |          |               |          |          |             |
|--|----------|---------------|----------|----------|-------------|
| Benefit  | ALT2     | ALT3          | ALT4     | ALT4S-11 | Uncertainty |
| Shift in Algal Communities                             | Low      | Low           | Low      | Minimal  | Moderate    |
| Increase in SAV Biomass                                | Low      | Not Simulated | Low      | Minimal  | Moderate    |
| Increase in SAV Coverage                               | Moderate | Not Simulated | Moderate | Low      | Moderate    |

- 1 8.6.5.2 Kissimmee River and Lake Okeechobee
- 2 **Table 8-7** summarizes the potential risks and benefits to aquatic biota from ASR implementation in the
- 3 Lake Okeechobee Basin. This information is presented by assessment endpoint and attributes. The
- 4 detailed basis for this table is found in the ERA report (**Appendix F**).

5

| Kissimmee River and Lake Okeechobee   |          |          |          |          |             |  |
|---|----------|----------|----------|----------|-------------|--|
| Consequence/Benefit   | ALT2     | ALT3     | ALT4     | ALT4S-11 | Uncertainty | Actions to reduce risks to receptors   |
| Risk of effects to fishery by inadequate aeration of ASR discharge  | Minimal  | Minimal  | Minimal  | Minimal  | Low         |  |
| Risk of fishery being affected by inadequate de-gassing (H <sub>2</sub> S, NH <sub>3</sub> ) of ASR discharge   | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low         | Cascade aerator needs to be redesigned to degas sulfide better                               |
| Risk of chronic or acute toxicity to fishery or aquatic life from ASR discharges (except for mercury)           | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low         |  |
| Risk of ASR discharge plume size covering entire river width during low river flows (30 cfs)                    | High     | High     | High     | Low      | Moderate    | Better plume measurements over varying conditions and modeling of long-term discharge events |
| Risk of ASR discharge plume length exceeding 800 meters during low river flows (30 cfs)                         | High     | High     | Moderate | Low      | Moderate    | Better plume measurements or modeling  |
| Risk of sub-lethal adverse effects from increased alkalinity and hardness                                       | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low         |  |
| Risk of effects from increased alkalinity and hardness  | Moderate | Moderate | Low      | Low      | Low         |  |
| Risk of any fishkill from loss of dissolved oxygen refugia (gamefish, minnows)                                  | High     | Moderate | Low      | Low      | Low         | Could use operations control to reduce abrupt termination of recovery flow                   |
| Risk of any fishkill from loss of dissolved oxygen refugia (bowfin, gar)  | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low      | Moderate    | Could use operations control to reduce abrupt termination of recovery flow                   |
| Risk (>15 percent of years) with a predicted fishkill from loss of dissolved oxygen refugia (gamefish, minnows) | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low      | Moderate    |  |

**Table 8-7 -- Potential Risks and Benefits to Aquatic Biota from ASR Implementation in the Lake Okeechobee Basin, continued.**

| Consequence/Benefit  | ALT2     | ALT3     | ALT4     | ALT4S-11 | Uncertainty | Actions to reduce risks to receptors  |
|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|-------------|---|
| Risk to fishery via water temperature modifying timing of fish spawning at least once (cold water spawners) <sup>1</sup>   | High     | Moderate | Low      | Low      | Moderate    |   |
| Risk to fishery via water temperature modifying timing of fish spawning (moderate temperature water spawners) <sup>2</sup> | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low      | Moderate    |   |
| Risk to fishery via water temperature modifying timing of fish spawning (warm water spawners) <sup>3</sup>                 | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low         |   |
| Risk that temperature modification of spawning will have measurable effects (cold water spawners) <sup>1</sup>             | Moderate | Moderate | Low      | Low      | Moderate    |   |
| Risk that temperature modification of spawning will have measurable effects (brook silverside or other annual species)     | Moderate | Moderate | Low      | Low      | Moderate    | Determine the rate of migration of silversides into the river   |
| Risk of larval fish impingement or entrainment during ASR recharge (non-catfish species)                                   | High     | Moderate | High     | High     | Moderate    |   |
| Risk of larval fish impingement or entrainment during ASR recharge (catfish species)                                       | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low         |   |
| Risk that larval fish impingement or entrainment will affect fishery (non-catfish species)                                 | Moderate | Moderate | Moderate | Moderate | High        | Increased collection of impingement and entrainment data  |
| Risk of adverse effects to fish or aquatic life from sedimentation from ASR discharges                                     | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low         |   |
| Risk of adverse effects to fish or aquatic life from color or turbidity from ASR discharges                                | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low         |   |
| Risk of adverse effects from ASR discharges on manatees from loss of temperature refugia                                   | Minimal  | Minimal  | Minimal  | Minimal  | Low         | Could use operations control to reduce abrupt termination of recovery flow  |
| Risk of adverse effects from ASR discharges on benthic invertebrates   | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low         |   |
| Risk of not detecting future ASR effects due to poor benthic community   | Moderate | Moderate | Moderate | Moderate | Low         |   |
| Risk of invertebrate impingement or entrainment during ASR recharge  | High     | High     | High     | High     | Low         |   |
| Risk of invertebrate impingement or entrainment resulting in measurable biological effect                                  | Moderate | Low      | Moderate | Moderate | High        |   |
| Risk of adverse effects of ASR discharges on Lake Okeechobee Fishery and invertebrate community                            | Low      | Low      | Low      | Low      | Moderate    | Sampling water quality parameters under higher ASR discharge conditions in areas of Lake Okee, closer to the confluence of the Kiss. R. |

<sup>1</sup> Species includes black crappie, redear sunfish, redbfin and chain pickerels, brook silverside, and pirate perch

<sup>2</sup> Species includes redbreast sunfish, threadfin and gizzard shads, swamp darter, pygmy sunfishes, and chain pickerel

<sup>3</sup> Species includes bluegills, bluespotted sunfish, catfish (all 5 species), killifish, and taillight and golden shiners

## 1 8.7 ERA Discussion and Summary

2 The ERA focused primarily on ecological and water quality impacts associated with CERP ASR in the Lake  
3 Okeechobee Basin. The risks posed by CERP ASR in the Caloosahatchee, C-51, North Palm Beach, and  
4 Site 1 basins were not explicitly addressed in the report. However, given the similarities between the  
5 Lake Okeechobee basin and these basins, the risks characterized for the Lake Okeechobee basin serve as  
6 reasonable estimates for these basins. The ERA and the Regional ASR Simulation Modeling report  
7 (summarized in **Chapter 7**) indicate that CERP ASR is not feasible at the scale contemplated at least for  
8 the Lake Okeechobee Basin. While the hydrogeologic modeling did show that CERP ASR recharge  
9 quantities can be achieved through the use of wells completed into all aquifers of the FAS including the  
10 APPZ and BZ), the recovery volumes contemplated in CERP are not achievable within the hydrogeologic  
11 constraints imposed by the Martin and St. Lucie County artesian pressure protection rules that require  
12 the maintenance of artesian conditions in the FAS. If mitigation actions are undertaken, none of the ASR  
13 alternatives assessed in the ERA would likely result in large-scale irreversible ecological harm. That said,  
14 the ALT4 and ALT4-S11 scenarios pose the least risk to fisheries in the Kissimmee River and Lake  
15 Okeechobee as well as the least risk of increased methylation within the Greater Everglades.

16 The cause of intermittent chronic toxicity measured at the KRASR facility during the recovery phases was  
17 not determined in the ERA. Given the incidence of chronic toxicity, the FDEP may require that any  
18 future CERP ASR facility be located where sufficient dilution water is available for a mixing zone. The  
19 dilution volume specified in the KRASR NPDES permit was 3.9 times the ASR discharge volume.  
20 Assuming that future CERP ASR facilities would need the same dilution volume, a five-well cluster ASR  
21 system would have to be located where a minimum of 150 cfs is continuously available during recovery  
22 events. The requirement for dilution water may be problematic since this flow quantity would have to  
23 be available during droughts and the dry season. It is likely that Kissimmee River Basin and perhaps the  
24 C-43 and C-44 basins could support dilution flow requirements; however, several of the sub-basins  
25 around Lake Okeechobee such as Nubbin Slough, Taylor Creek, C-40, and C-41 may not be capable of  
26 supplying this water during the dry season or during droughts.

27 From an ecological and water quality perspective, water managers should continue to consider CERP  
28 ASR as a viable technology to achieve the ecological and water supply objectives of Everglades  
29 Restoration. Given that the findings of the ERA are presented with an acknowledgement of uncertainty  
30 in the risk characterizations, implementation of the CERP ASR should be incremental and geographically  
31 disperse until the uncertainties identified here are resolved.

32 The fact that the most feasible alternative (ALT4-S11) with regard to hydrogeologic conditions is also the  
33 alternative that would result in the least toxicological and water quality harm is re-assuring. However,  
34 this alternative fails to improve water supply and lake ecosystem performance metrics due the greatly  
35 reduced volume of water recovered from ASR storage. The Corps and SFWMD should undertake a  
36 revision of the CERP plan to determine what changes are necessary to CERP in light of reduced ASR  
37 performance. Implementation of incremental CERP ASR facilities need not wait for this update.

38

## 1      9      **Synthesis of Technical Responses to ASR Issues and CROGEE Recommendations**

2      As mentioned in **Section 1.3**, the final report from the ASR Issue Team (1999) recommended further  
3      study of seven issues to reduce uncertainty in regional ASR implementation:

- 4                      1. Characterization of the quality and variability of source waters that could be  
5                                      pumped into the ASR wells.
- 6                      2. Characterization of regional hydrogeology of the Floridan aquifer system.
- 7                      3. Analysis of critical pressure for rock fracturing.
- 8                      4. Analysis of local and regional changes in groundwater flow patterns.
- 9                      5. Analysis of water-quality changes during storage in the aquifer.
- 10                     6. Potential effects of ASR on mercury bioaccumulation for ecosystem restoration  
11                                      projects.
- 12                     7. Relationships among ASR storage interval properties, recovery rates and recharge  
13                                      volume.

14      In addition to these seven “original” issues, the CROGEE had several recommendations resulting from  
15      their review of the PMPs for the ASR pilot projects (NRC, 2001) and the ASR Regional Study (NRC, 2002).  
16      This section organizes the findings from this project into responses to each one of the original seven  
17      issues and subsequent CROGEE recommendations and includes a discussion of the limitations of the  
18      findings.

### 19      9.1      **ASR Issue Team Recommendations**

20      Each of the following was identified as a major issue in ASR Issue Team (1999).

#### 21      9.1.1      **Characterize the Quality and Variability of Source Waters that Could Be Pumped** 22                      **into the ASR Wells**

23      Baseline source (surface) water quality characterization took place for a three-year period at both  
24      KRASR and HASR systems prior to their construction and operation. Specifically, two projects were  
25      completed (PBS&J, 2003; Tetra Tech, 2005a) to provide information supporting design of the  
26      disinfection systems, and to characterize adjacent waterways for surface water and sediment quality  
27      prior to exposure to ASR recovered water. These studies defined source water quality using major and  
28      trace inorganic constituents, priority pollutants, water quality parameters (pH, temp, specific  
29      conductance, color, turbidity), organic compounds (pesticides, herbicides, volatile and semi-volatile  
30      organics, total and dissolved organic carbon) and selected radionuclides. Wet season and dry season  
31      trends in selected constituents also were analyzed statistically. An extensive database of information  
32      was accumulated during this effort, which is now archived on the SFWMD database DBHYDRO. Basic  
33      source water characteristics were interpreted in the CERP ASR Pilot Project Technical Data Report  
34      (USACE and SFWMD, 2013). More detailed trends for selected constituents were described in **Chapter 5**  
35      of this report. Essentially, the source water at both sites is fresh and oxic, but is characterized by high

1 and variable concentrations of organic carbon, iron, carbonate alkalinity, and nutrients, typical of most  
2 surface waters in south Florida.

3 Highly colored source water will reduce effectiveness of UV disinfection systems, and can contribute to  
4 reduced performance of filter systems. Highly colored water also provides a source of organic carbon,  
5 which stimulates microbiological activity in the ASR well bore and can lead to clogging (USACE and  
6 SFWMD, 2013). Addition of oxic, organic carbon-rich water into the carbon-limited FAS will stimulate  
7 native microorganisms, and can alter groundwater geochemical reactions (**Chapters 5 and 6**).

8 Average color values were consistently greatest at KRASR, particularly during the wet season when  
9 compared to trends at all other existing and proposed ASR systems. Color values exhibit a saw-toothed  
10 trend, with higher values during the wet season, and lower values during the dry season and following  
11 the 2007-2008 drought. Color values in excess of 50 PCU can challenge the effectiveness of UV  
12 disinfection, resulting in detectable coliforms at the ASR wellhead during recharge. There were two  
13 instances (over 4 years of operation) where color values were greater than 400 PCU at KRASR, resulting  
14 in ASR system shutdown. These instances are rare, but highly colored source water will require more  
15 robust disinfection systems at ASR systems located north and west of Lake Okeechobee.

16 Turbidity generally is not an issue at any of the existing or proposed ASR system locations except for  
17 Port Mayaca (PMASR). Maximum source water turbidity values are below the 29 NTU regulatory  
18 threshold at all systems except PMASR, where values as high as 386 NTU were measured during the  
19 period of record (2000-2014). Suspension of flocs on the eastern side of Lake Okeechobee, and mixing  
20 between turbid water of the St. Lucie Canal and Lake Okeechobee near PMASR contribute to high  
21 turbidity values. ASR systems located along the eastern shore of Lake Okeechobee or the St. Lucie Canal  
22 will require robust filtration systems to prevent clogging of the well bore due to the presence of  
23 suspended solids.

24 Iron-rich source water can affect ASR system operations and also can influence geochemical reactions in  
25 the aquifer. Iron can precipitate from oxic source water to clog an ASR well, and also can stimulate iron-  
26 reducing bacteria to form biofilms throughout the ASR system. Iron concentrations are below SDWA  
27 secondary criterion (300 µg/L) at southern ASR system locations (CRASR and HASR). Source water iron  
28 concentrations exceed the SDWA criterion at northern ASR system locations (KRASR and PMASR), such  
29 that WQCEs will be required when these source waters are recharged. The greatest iron concentrations  
30 measured throughout Lake Okeechobee and tributaries occur at PMASR, where iron probably is  
31 associated with organic-rich suspended material.

32 Carbonate alkalinity in source water does not affect ASR system operations, because concentrations are  
33 too low overall to cause scaling. Carbonate alkalinity values are lowest in northern Lake Okeechobee  
34 and the Kissimmee River, where surface sediments consist primarily of quartz sands and silts. Farther  
35 south, limestone becomes a dominant component of surface sediments, resulting in higher carbonate  
36 alkalinity concentrations in surface water. Low carbonate alkalinity values in source water will increase  
37 calcium carbonate dissolution in the ASR storage zone, as summarized in **Section 5.7**.

### 1 9.1.2 Characterize the Regional Hydrogeology of the Floridan Aquifer System

2 A hydrogeologic literature compilation and database – including lithology, stratigraphy, geophysics,  
3 hydrostratigraphy, and geotechnical testing information - was assembled for use by the project team,  
4 and the scientific community at large (**Chapter 3**). With the assistance of the USGS, a preliminary  
5 regional hydrogeologic framework was published (Reese and Richardson, 2008), which provided a  
6 comprehensive view of the hydrostratigraphy and hydraulic properties of the FAS. Definition of the  
7 preliminary hydrogeologic framework proceeded in tandem with development of the initial (coarse grid)  
8 and final (fine grid) groundwater flow models to simulate various configurations of ASR, as discussed in  
9 the response to Item 4 below.

10 The preliminary hydrogeologic framework identified several areas, both geographic and conceptual,  
11 where significant gaps in understanding of the FAS existed. The projects' subsequent field data  
12 collection and analysis program focused on filling those gaps -- through the construction of test  
13 exploratory wells, geophysical log analysis, core analysis, aquifer tests, seismic surveys, and expansion of  
14 water quality and level monitoring networks, tomography, and lineament analysis. Additional  
15 hydrogeologic data and interpretations defined after publication of the preliminary hydrogeologic  
16 framework were summarized in a successor publication (Reese, 2014). Here, a more detailed  
17 hydrogeologic synthesis was presented for the FAS beneath Lake Okeechobee.

18 Among the more significant findings from the hydrogeologic framework reports is the regional  
19 delineation of the APPZ, which may represent a significant storage zone for future ASR development.  
20 Additionally, the subsurface structure of the FAS and overlying units beneath Lake Okeechobee was  
21 delineated through the use of marine seismic data, which also revealed the presence of zones of  
22 displacement indicating the presence of faults and karst collapse structures within the limestone  
23 formations.

24 This focus area resulted in significant advances in the understanding of the FAS in the region. Due to  
25 funding and schedule limitations, however, we did not complete all of the field tasks, or analyses  
26 envisioned in the PMP. This left insufficient data, for example, to fully realize the potential of the  
27 sequence stratigraphic or borehole fracture analyses that were proposed in the ASR Regional Study, but  
28 foundations were laid for that work that others could build on in the future. Among the few tasks that  
29 were not completed were the performance of dynamic tracer tests at the ASR pilot systems and other  
30 multi-well systems. These tests were intended to have provided quantitative data on the effect of  
31 anisotropy within the FAS, which would have greatly benefited the groundwater modeling effort and the  
32 understanding of the effect of storage and recoverability at operational ASR systems. It is hoped that  
33 this work will continue if and when CERP ASR is implemented.

34 It is recognized that the regional hydrogeology of the FAS can never be fully characterized. Every new  
35 well that is drilled into the aquifer presents new data that adds to our body of understanding. As a case  
36 in point, the exploratory well at the CRASR pilot system encountered an unconsolidated, sandy zone of  
37 the Lower Hawthorn Group (Arcadia Formation) that prohibited the construction of a large capacity ASR  
38 system at Berry Groves (CRASR). While these conditions have been encountered elsewhere in south

1 Florida, the currently available forensic geological or geophysical methods that are available to workers  
2 do not provide the precision to predict these conditions prior to constructing capital-intensive  
3 exploratory wells at sites considered for ASR implementation. While it is not possible to eliminate  
4 hydrogeologic uncertainty in development of CERP ASR, this project has provided the data and tools  
5 necessary to provide an objective assessment of that uncertainty.

### 6 9.1.3 Analysis of Critical Pressures for Rock Fracturing

7 ASR system operation can increase or decrease aquifer pressure, with the potential to induce rock  
8 fracturing during recharge and subsidence during recovery. In support of the ASR Regional Study, an  
9 initial desktop evaluation was completed to estimate the potential for hydraulically induced fracturing of  
10 the FAS rock matrix and subsidence due to consolidation of the Hawthorn Group (Brown et al., 2005).  
11 Geibel and Brown (2012) expanded the original work of Brown et al. (2005) to determine the critical  
12 threshold of water pressure that marks the onset of hydraulically induced fracturing of the UFA rock  
13 matrix and the overlying Hawthorn Group sediments at the proposed CERP ASR systems. A geotechnical  
14 evaluation was conducted for seven potential ASR sites: Caloosahatchee River, Moore Haven, Kissimmee  
15 River, Port Mayaca, Hillsboro, Seminole-Brighton, and Paradise Run.

#### 16 9.1.3.1 Desktop Study Results

17 The results of the desktop evaluation (**Section 4.2**) indicate that only a few of the categories of pressure-  
18 induced changes examined have the potential to constrain ASR development in south Florida. First,  
19 practical limitations involving basic pump availability, pipe pressure limitations, and electricity demand  
20 will constrain the total allowable head (or pressure) at each ASR wellhead. Second, pressure-induced  
21 change limitations outlined here will slightly constrain ASR operations.

22 For ASR wells located north of Lake Okeechobee, it is recommended that the average hydraulic head of  
23 well clusters be limited to a maximum of 183-ft NGVD29 (80 psi) or less. This threshold exceeds the  
24 typical ASR wellhead pressures observed during the recharge phase of cycle testing at KRASR. Maximum  
25 ASR wellhead pressures observed during recharge were approximately 60 psi during cycle test 1, and  
26 decreased to approximately 25 psi during cycle test 4 (USACE and SFWMD, 2013). The maximum ASR  
27 wellhead pressure allowed by the Underground Injection Control (UIC) permit is 66 psi at this location.

28 For ASR wells located east or south of Lake Okeechobee, it is recommended that the average hydraulic  
29 head of well clusters be limited to a maximum of 225 ft NGVD29 (97.5 psi pressure) or less. Analysis of  
30 allowable thresholds south of Lake Okeechobee suggest permissible hydraulic head up to 275 ft  
31 NGVD29. However, under this scenario, pressures greater than 100 psi would be generated and would  
32 require specialized well casing and piping materials to be installed at significantly higher cost. Maximum  
33 ASR wellhead pressures observed during the recharge phases at HASR also were less than 66 psi (USACE  
34 and SFWMD, 2013).



### 1 9.1.3.2 Geotechnical Analysis of Rock Fracturing Potential

2 Geotechnical laboratory rock strength tests were performed on representative cores obtained from  
3 storage zone lithologies at potential ASR systems in south Florida (**Section 4.3**). Three primary failure  
4 methods (shear, tensile, and microfracture) were evaluated as mechanisms of hydraulically induced  
5 fracturing. The mechanical properties and in-situ stresses on representative rock samples from the  
6 Lower Hawthorn Group (Arcadia Formation), Ocala Limestone, and Avon Park Formation were measured  
7 or calculated.

8 UFA rock matrix mechanical properties and in-situ stresses were characterized to determine the  
9 pressure (P) values that would induce hydraulic fracturing at the top of the UFA. Shear method results  
10 indicate that an extremely high P in the UFA is required to initiate fracturing by shear failure. Tensile  
11 method results indicate that a relatively moderate P is required to initiate fracturing by tensile splitting  
12 of the well borehole wall. Microfracture method results indicate that a moderately low P is required to  
13 initiate fracturing. It is unlikely that extremely high P values will be achieved during ASR operation;  
14 therefore, hydraulic fracturing due to shear failure is not a concern. However, moderate P values can  
15 potentially be achieved, initiating hydraulic fracturing due to tensile splitting of the well borehole wall.  
16 More likely, moderately low P values causing microfracture initiation may be achieved within maximum  
17 ASR operational limits. Two additional hydraulically induced fracturing check methods were applied and  
18 produced results consistent with the tensile and microfracture primary methods, providing for increased  
19 assurance of the predictive P values that may induce fracturing.

20 The moderately low pressure threshold for initiation of microfracturing ranges between 95 and 166 psi  
21 without a 10 percent factor of safety. With a 10 percent factor of safety, the P threshold for initiation of  
22 microfracturing ranges between 85 and 149 psi. For comparison, casing pressure tests to evaluate  
23 integrity of the ASR well generally are run at 100 psi, and the maximum ASR wellhead pressure defined  
24 in HASR and KRASR UIC permits is two-thirds of the casing pressure test (66 psi).

25 Hydraulically induced fracturing can be initiated at and propagate from the well borehole wall for all  
26 three fracture mechanisms, while the ability to initiate and propagate hydraulic fracturing away from  
27 the borehole wall and within the FAS can be achieved only by shear failure and microfracture  
28 development. Hydraulically induced fracturing is not a concern at any P below the critical threshold  
29 level during typical ASR operation. If the critical water pressure threshold is met for the top of the FAS,  
30 fracturing is more likely to occur there rather than in deeper portions of the FAS, as increasing  
31 overburden stress with depth will largely negate fracture-inducing stresses. If hydraulically induced  
32 fracturing of the FAS rock matrix is initiated, it will likely be vertically oriented. However, orientation  
33 and propagation may be influenced by anisotropy, planar inhomogeneities, or alignment of the principal  
34 stresses in the FAS. The potential for hydraulically induced fracturing of the Hawthorn Group, due to  
35 vertically upward propagating fractures initiated in the FAS, is very unlikely. Fractures initiated in the  
36 FAS would be arrested at or re-directed along the discontinuity formed by the interface of the FAS and  
37 Hawthorn Group. If the fracture were able to propagate through the discontinuity and into the  
38 Hawthorn Group sediments, the softer nature of these lithologies would dissipate stress and arrest its  
39 propagation.

## 1 9.1.4 Analysis of Local and Regional Changes in Groundwater Flow Patterns

2 One of the primary goals of the ASR Regional Study was to develop a peninsula-wide groundwater  
3 model from Orlando to Key West for investigation of regional hydraulic impacts of the CERP ASR system,  
4 and a collection of smaller, local-scale models for examination of local hydraulic and water quality  
5 effects (**Chapter 7**). The models were developed in support of CERP to characterize impacts of the  
6 proposed 333 ASR wells in southern Florida. The modeling project was developed in phases to provide  
7 opportunities for testing hypotheses and methods before application to the final model. Each phase  
8 was reviewed independently by the PDT and the Interagency Modeling Center (IMC), and comments  
9 were incorporated into final documents.

### 10 9.1.4.1 Groundwater Flow Model Development, Calibration, and D13R Simulations

11 The project began with a search and compilation of available models and literature (**Section 7.7.3.1**).  
12 This step provided valuable information and background and offered recommendations on  
13 implementation details. The literature search was followed by a bench-scale study (**Section 7.7.3.2**),  
14 which evaluated several modeling codes and recommended the use of SEAWAT and WASH123D.

15 The Phase I models (**Section 7.7.3.3**) were coarsely refined and did not include all of the data used in  
16 later versions. Most notably, the pumping data was not yet available at the time of Phase I model  
17 development. This model provided information on where best to set boundaries and what types of  
18 parameter values might be most useful. The Phase I models were unable to accurately reproduce either  
19 the salinity or the heads in the southern part of the model. This difficulty led to additional research and  
20 study to determine the cause, and to recommend options for improvement in the Phase II model.

21 The Phase II models [RASRSM] (**Section 7.3.4**) were much more finely gridded and included all of the  
22 available data, including regional pumping. These models were very closely calibrated to all of the  
23 available head data. Extensive sensitivity analyses looked at possible variability in the results. These  
24 models were subjected to the greatest degree of review and scrutiny both during the modeling process  
25 and after completion of the report. This review process was meant to ensure that the result was both  
26 accurate and defensible.

27 The calibration of the RASRSM model was broadened to include the D13R scenario with ASR pumping  
28 rates and schedules drawn from SFWMM-D13R (**Section 7.7.5**). Changes to the ASR well distribution  
29 were made to meet PDT-developed performance measures, including the pressure that well pumps  
30 would be required to overcome and the effect of the ASR system on the APPA in St. Lucie and Martin  
31 Counties. The final results showed that it is unlikely that the UFA will sustain the pumping requirements  
32 of 333 ASR wells as defined in the CERP. The model demonstrated that pump pressure requirements  
33 and protection of the APPA can be met with approximately 94 (5 mgd) ASR wells in the UFA, 37 (5 mgd)  
34 ASR wells in the APPZ and 101 (10 mgd) recharge wells in the BZ if recovery at sites near the APPA is  
35 significantly reduced. Recovery efficiency was assumed to be 70 percent in most of the UFA wells, 30  
36 percent in most of the APPZ wells, and 0 percent in the BZ wells.

1 The suggested arrangement of these wells (Scenario 11) is indicated in **Table 7-3**. Although full recharge  
2 potential will be available, a significant reduction in the recovery volumes will limit the effectiveness of  
3 the system. The model also indicates that this arrangement of wells will result in significant head  
4 impacts over a large area of the Floridan peninsula.

5 Scenario 11 includes a large number of wells open to the BZ where recovery efficiency was assumed to  
6 be 0 percent. Due to the cost of drilling to such great depth, it is unlikely that so many BZ wells could be  
7 constructed. Scenario 12 was developed to simulate a more likely scenario including only the UFA and  
8 APPZ wells. The comparison of these results to the performance measures is only slightly different from  
9 Scenario 11 but it involves a significant reduction in storage capacity for the system.

10 A Monte Carlo analysis (**Section 7.7.5.5**) of the results of Scenario 11 was used to estimate the  
11 uncertainty in the results. The analysis showed that some additional reduction in the number of wells or  
12 the extraction rates may be necessary at a few sites due to uncertainty in the pump pressure estimates.  
13 The sites most likely to require a small reduction in ASR wells are Lakeside Ranch, Kissimmee  
14 River/Paradise Run and Hillsboro (Site 1). Uncertainty in the APPA results was minimal, so it is unlikely  
15 that any further reduction will be necessary for the protection of artesian conditions in St. Lucie or  
16 Martin Counties. It is recommended that these proposed ASR system sites and well numbers be closely  
17 analyzed through pilot studies at the proposed ASR sites with local scale models to predict the local  
18 effects of the ASR well system.

#### 19 9.1.4.2 Limitations on Model Simulations

20 Models, by nature, are only simplified simulations of reality. The models developed to evaluate CERP  
21 ASR, like all models, have limitations. The impact of these limitations on the results was mitigated by  
22 extensive calibration, sensitivity analyses, and the use of a large dataset. The datasets used for  
23 calibration were sufficient to develop models that provide a reasonable representation of the complex  
24 density-dependent groundwater flow system in the study area. The model was reviewed by the IMC at  
25 several points during the modeling process. Many of the IMC comments led to additional scrutiny of  
26 results or further data analyses to check the validity of assumptions. Overall, the extensive calibration,  
27 parameter evaluation through sensitivity analysis, and thorough review resulted in a useful and  
28 defensible model for purposes defined above.

29 However, all models have inherent uncertainty due to the assumptions made in their development.  
30 Consequently, the limitations of models should be clearly understood so that the results are only used  
31 for the intended purposes. The following is a list of limitations of the CERP ASR models:

- 32 • Pumping data were difficult to obtain with accuracy and often had to be estimated. Pumping is  
33 a very important sink to the groundwater system in south Florida.
- 34 • Storage space and computational time constraints led to the use of month-long stress periods in  
35 the regional calibration model, 10-day stress periods in the regional D13R scenarios, and varying  
36 stress period lengths (2-31 days) in the local scale models. These stress period sizes preclude

- 1 the use of more detailed input data for pumping and boundary conditions and constrain the  
2 precision on the results.
- 3 • The adjustment of the D13R pumping schedule to the 10-day stress periods resulted in a loss of  
4 some short-duration high pumping rates when data were averaged over 10 days. The total  
5 volume of water recharged or recovered was preserved, but this adjustment may have  
6 eliminated short-duration high pumping stresses in some model pumping cycles. Since the  
7 D13R simulations were run for 13 years, these stresses were likely to be evaluated in other  
8 pumping cycles when the high pumping rates were more prolonged.
  - 9 • Salinity data were sparse, especially in the deeper layers, and data were not collected  
10 simultaneously at multiple locations. These data were crucial for calculations of density, which  
11 impacts flow conditions in a density-dependent model such as this.
  - 12 • Temperature data were sparse, especially in the deeper layers and data were combined from a  
13 long time period. These data were important for calculations of density, which impacts flow  
14 conditions in a density-dependent model such as this.
  - 15 • All sides of the model were given specified head boundary conditions. On the eastern side,  
16 these heads corresponded to known sea level data. On the other sides of the model, the  
17 specified heads were developed by interpolating available head data obtained at wells near the  
18 boundary. This simplification relies on the assumption that the CERP ASR pumping will not  
19 impact heads at the boundaries. Additional analysis after completion of the model showed that  
20 there was a significant impact but that it was not likely to affect the performance measure  
21 outcomes.
  - 22 • The surficial aquifer was not modeled discretely with recharge entering at the surface, but was  
23 applied as a specified head boundary condition interpolated from available head data. This  
24 allowed the model to calculate the flux volumes entering the model through the surface. This  
25 simplification relies on the assumption that the CERP ASR pumping will not impact heads in the  
26 surficial aquifer.
  - 27 • Spatial discretization was necessarily coarse for the regional model. Cells varied from 2,000 ft to  
28 10,000 ft on a side. This made it impossible to examine near-well effects of pumping or water  
29 quality changes. This limitation was addressed in part by using the local-scale models to look at  
30 near-field effects. These smaller models had cell sizes varying from 100-ft to just over 500-ft on  
31 a side.
  - 32 • Although extensive geologic data were used to develop the layering and hydraulic parameters  
33 for each aquifer and confining unit, simplifications were necessary for development of the  
34 model. Also, data becomes significantly sparser with depth. The thickness of the Boulder Zone  
35 (BZ), for example, was set at a uniform 500-ft, though in reality, it may be larger or smaller at  
36 different areas of the model.
  - 37 • Transport parameters were very difficult to estimate because of the lack of long-term salinity  
38 data at any location. The short time period of the calibration models also made the estimation  
39 of these values more complicated. This limitation was resolved through the use of sensitivity  
40 analyses on the calibration model and a Monte Carlo analysis on the production runs including  
41 the CERP ASR system. Some additional calibration of these values was done with the local scale

- 1 models, but generally, the dataset was not sufficient for detailed calibration of transport  
2 parameters.
- 3 • The conversion of the calibration model to the D13R scenario involved significant interpolation,  
4 extrapolation and assumptions to adjust sources/sinks and boundary conditions to the new time  
5 period, for which far less data was available.
  - 6 • The calculation of performance measures on the D13R scenarios involved numerous  
7 assumptions. The estimation of required pump pressures ignored head-loss in the pipes, pumps  
8 and treatment systems and skin effects at the well. The use of the Theim and Merritt equations  
9 assumed homogeneous, isotropic conditions in an infinite aquifer of uniform thickness.
  - 10 • Data collection glitches contributed to significant periods of missing or unexplained data at the  
11 Hillsboro ASR well during the three cycle tests completed there. This made calibration of the  
12 Hillsboro local-scale model transport parameters impossible and allowed for only a limited  
13 calibration of flow parameters.
  - 14 • Placement of monitor wells at Hillsboro in a straight line made assessment of anisotropy  
15 impossible.
  - 16 • Additional investigation of the geology at Kissimmee was beneficial to the calibration of the  
17 Kissimmee local-scale model, but it was difficult to broaden this data beyond the exact location  
18 of the ASR well and the monitoring wells.

19 Although it is important to be cognizant of these limitations when modeling a groundwater system,  
20 these particular models were built with large amounts of data and were subjected to intensive  
21 calibration and sensitivity analyses. Assumptions were carefully weighed and analyzed with the  
22 available data. These models have been reviewed at several points by numerous knowledgeable,  
23 experienced, and credentialed experts in groundwater modeling and the Floridan Aquifer System.  
24 Consequently, there is a reasonable level of confidence in the conclusions drawn from this modeling  
25 study.

### 26 9.1.5 Analysis of Water Quality Changes During Storage in the Aquifer

27 Water quality changes that occur during ASR cycle testing were among the most significant concerns by  
28 stakeholders. CROGEE placed evaluation of water quality changes as a high priority as well. For these  
29 reasons, an intensive water quality sampling and analysis program was initiated to fulfill the following  
30 objectives:

- 31 • To characterize the native groundwater quality of potential storage zones in the UFA and APPZ  
32 prior to the onset of cycle testing
- 33 • To quantify geochemical reactions that result from recharge of source waters into the UFA and  
34 APPZ using geochemical modeling methods
- 35 • To evaluate water quality changes during storage and recovery for regulatory compliance

36 During the early stages of the ASR Regional Study (2005-2006), the SDWA regulatory criterion for arsenic  
37 in groundwater decreased from 50 µg/L to 10 µg/L. Many municipal (potable water) ASR systems in

1 Florida were now showing arsenic concentrations that exceeded that standard in the aquifer and also in  
2 recovered water. This development increased stakeholder concerns about the ASR Regional Study,  
3 particularly given the scale of ASR implementation in the CERP.

#### 4 9.1.5.1 Initial Desktop Data Compilation and Geochemical Modeling Studies

5 During the development of the ASR Regional Study (2001-2007), there were approximately 70 ASR  
6 systems in Florida that were cycle testing under a construction (versus operating) permit. Most of these  
7 systems were located at existing drinking water treatment plants in coastal areas of Palm Beach and  
8 Broward Counties on the Atlantic Coast, the Tampa Bay region, and in coastal Lee and Collier Counties  
9 along the Gulf Coast. Early efforts to evaluate water quality changes during cycle testing consisted of  
10 compiling existing water quality data from cycle testing at representative ASR systems, and developing  
11 geochemical models to predict and quantify geochemical reactions that could occur during cycle testing.  
12 Results of this initial data gathering effort were summarized in Mirecki (2004), and preliminary  
13 geochemical models were reported in Mirecki (2006).

14 Water quality data are compiled at existing municipal ASR systems primarily for regulatory compliance  
15 purposes rather than geochemical modeling. Most datasets obtained from municipal ASR systems were  
16 insufficient for a detailed geochemical modeling analysis. However, a few important trends were  
17 defined from these initial studies:

- 18 • Dissolved oxygen concentrations in recharge water decline rapidly (with a half-life of  
19 approximately one day) during storage.
- 20 • Increasing dissolved sulfide concentrations suggests that sulfate reducing redox conditions  
21 prevail in the UFA storage zone.
- 22 • Gross alpha and radium isotope activities can exceed SDWA criteria in native UFA groundwater  
23 samples from Lee and Collier Counties. Storage zones in this area can include phosphate-rich  
24 lithologies of the lower Hawthorn Group (Arcadia Formation). Consequently, native  
25 groundwater shows elevated isotopic activities. Recovered water activities increase due to  
26 mixing with native groundwater.
- 27 • Arsenic exceedances (greater than 10 µg/L) were detected at a few ASR systems. However,  
28 samples analyzed prior to 2005 (when the SDWA criterion lowered) may have been reported as  
29 “false negatives”. That is, the sample was interpreted as a “non-detect” using detection levels  
30 of 50 µg/L.
- 31 • Mixing between fresh recharge water and mostly brackish native groundwater differs among  
32 ASR systems. Where recharge water is transported as a plug (North Reservoir ASR system), the  
33 result is a sigmoid-shaped breakthrough curves at the distal monitor well and chloride trends  
34 that follow a conservative mixing line. Where recharge water transport is affected by hydraulic  
35 factors, breakthrough curves are less evident at the distal monitor well, and chloride  
36 concentrations deviate from conservative mixing lines (Olga ASR system). After the initial cycle,  
37 it becomes more difficult to define mixing models especially if there is not 100 percent recovery  
38 during the earlier cycle.

- 1       • Inverse geochemical models suggest dissolution of calcium carbonate and gypsum, reductive  
2       dissolution of pyrite, precipitation of iron oxyhydroxide, and hydrogen sulfide evolution at the  
3       representative ASR systems (Olga, North Reservoir, and Eastern Hillsboro).

#### 4    **9.1.5.2 Native Groundwater Quality Characterization in the FAS**

5    The SFWMD maintains the Regional Floridan Aquifer Groundwater (RFGW) network, which consists of  
6    70 sites monitoring 95 discrete zones within the Floridan aquifer system (UFA and APPZ; **Section 3.3**).  
7    Sampling for the CERP native groundwater quality characterization task was coordinated to augment the  
8    existing SFWMD RFGW sampling program. Groundwater quality samples were obtained from all wells,  
9    although the frequency of sampling differs based on programmatic needs. Regional trends in  
10   groundwater quality characteristics for selected inorganic constituents (chloride, sulfate, calcium,  
11   carbonate alkalinity, pH, TDS) were depicted in **Section 5.5**. The freshest UFA groundwaters are found  
12   in the Kissimmee Valley, along the northwest-southeast trending axis of south central Florida, north of  
13   Lake Okeechobee. ASR systems in this area (Paradise Run, KRASR, L-63 Taylor Slough) would be  
14   expected to show greatest percent recoveries, as losses due to mixing with brackish native groundwater  
15   are minimal.

16   Nearly all UFA wells north of Lake Okeechobee, the Caloosahatchee River, and the St. Lucie Canal show  
17   native groundwater TDS concentrations below 3,000 mg/L. Drinking water regulations are most  
18   stringent in these waters because minimal treatment is required for their use as a drinking water source.  
19   Nearly all UFA groundwaters show TDS concentrations below the 10,000 mg/L UIC regulatory threshold,  
20   so the UFA is defined as a USDW. However, groundwaters having TDS concentrations between 3,000  
21   mg/L and 10,000 mg/L are less cost-effective for use as a drinking water source due to higher pre-  
22   treatment costs.

23   Nearly all APPZ wells north of Lake Okeechobee in the Kissimmee River valley show relatively fresh  
24   native groundwater TDS concentrations (less than 3,000 mg/L). The APPZ generally becomes more  
25   brackish towards the coasts, with concentrations similar to that of the UFA (except at HASR, where the  
26   APPZ is actually fresher than the UFA). Highest TDS concentrations in the APPZ are measured in wells of  
27   the Caloosahatchee River valley and south of Lake Okeechobee.

#### 28   **9.1.5.3 Water Quality Changes During ASR Cycle Testing**

29   Deleterious water quality changes due to geochemical reactions between oxic, organic carbon- and iron-  
30   rich source water and aquifer material were among the most significant water quality issues to be  
31   addressed by the ASR Regional Study. Water quality trends during ASR cycle testing are best  
32   characterized by results obtained for the CERP ASR Pilot Projects (USACE and SFWMD, 2013), primarily  
33   at KRASR. Many of these geochemical reactions are facilitated by native or possibly introduced  
34   microorganisms, which will be discussed below. The major water quality changes interpreted from cycle  
35   testing results at KRASR are:

- 1       • Arsenic is mobilized during recharge in the UFA due to oxidation of pyrite in limestone aquifer  
2 material by dissolved oxygen in source water. However, the redox condition of the aquifer  
3 quickly evolves from an oxic condition (during recharge) back to native sulfate-reducing  
4 conditions (during storage and recovery). Arsenic subsequently co-precipitates with iron sulfide  
5 as the aquifer returns to reducing conditions. As a result, arsenic concentrations in recovered  
6 water are less than the SDWA criterion of 10 µg/L.
- 7       • The pattern of arsenic mobilization and subsequent sequestration is unique among Florida ASR  
8 systems. This is because most ASR systems recharge drinking water, which is oxic and depleted  
9 in iron and organic carbon. Without these two constituents, microorganisms in the aquifer are  
10 not stimulated (without organic carbon), and iron sulfide precipitation will not occur (in the  
11 absence of iron). CERP ASR systems are more likely to show the pattern shown at KRASR  
12 because source waters and aquifer conditions are similar (**Section 5.8**).
- 13       • Phosphorus concentrations decline during ASR cycle tests. Total phosphorus concentrations in  
14 Kissimmee River source water ranged between 4 µg/L (the detection limit) and 250 µg/L. Total  
15 phosphorus concentrations in recovered water were below 20 µg/L, through four cycle tests.  
16 The mechanism controlling the decline in phosphorus concentrations has not been confirmed,  
17 but could result from microbiological uptake or precipitation of calcium phosphate (USACE and  
18 SFWMD, 2013).
- 19       • Molybdenum is mobilized during ASR cycle testing, likely by pyrite oxidation during recharge.  
20 Once released, molybdenum remains as a complex in solution, unlike arsenic. Molybdenum  
21 concentrations ranged between 5 and 500 µg/L, with highest values measured during the first  
22 cycle test. Molybdenum concentrations in the aquifer declined during subsequent cycle tests.  
23 There is no state or Federal SDWA criterion for molybdenum. The World Health Organization  
24 maximum guideline for drinking water is 70 µg/L (USACE and SFWMD, 2013).

25 A large water quality dataset was compiled at KRASR, consisting of weekly to monthly sampling of  
26 surface and groundwater samples from the ASR well and up to 4 monitor wells. A smaller water quality  
27 dataset focused on regulatory compliance was compiled at HASR. Geochemical reactions and water-  
28 quality changes observed at these ASR systems differ from those observed at potable water ASR  
29 systems, primarily due to introduction of organic-carbon and iron-rich surface water into the sulfate-  
30 reducing (or sub-oxic) UFA. Because some reactions are beneficial (e.g. arsenic control), it is important  
31 to determine how representative these results are, and whether they can be extrapolated for regional  
32 ASR implementation.

33 Similar water-quality changes and geochemical reactions can be expected when source water  
34 composition and the geochemical environment of the aquifer are similar to those at Kissimmee River  
35 and Hillsboro Canal. Of the four locations considered (Kissimmee, Caloosahatchee, Hillsboro, and Port  
36 Mayaca), Caloosahatchee River surface water shows significantly lower organic carbon and iron  
37 concentrations, but this may be the result of too few samples. Other locations are characterized by  
38 large datasets, and show ranges in concentrations that overlap statistically. Lower organic carbon and



1 iron concentrations in the Caloosahatchee River source water may limit or slow the rate of arsenic  
2 control in the UFA storage zone in this area.

3 A large dataset was developed to characterize groundwater quality in the FAS, particularly in the UFA  
4 **(Section 5.5)**. The redox environment of the aquifer is the primary factor that limits arsenic mobility.  
5 Sulfate-reducing conditions (or sub-oxic conditions with hydrogen sulfide present) in the native aquifer  
6 (and the evolution of sulfate-reducing conditions during storage) strongly suggests that arsenic will re-  
7 precipitate in a solid sulfide mineral when storage durations are greater than one or two months. Sub-  
8 oxic or sulfate-reducing conditions were observed throughout the confined portion of the UFA in the  
9 interior of south Florida. Coastal locations may be influenced by saltwater intrusion in the Floridan,  
10 particularly in Miami-Dade and Broward Counties. It is not clear whether ASR systems that store water  
11 in the APPZ will show similar trends.

12 Predictions of the extent of mixing between recharge and native groundwater, and of percent recovery  
13 at other proposed ASR systems in the region cannot be quantified directly from results at the CERP ASR  
14 systems. Percent recovery is determined by the permeability of the storage zone, and also TDS or  
15 chloride concentrations of the native groundwater. The CERP ASR systems do represent end-members  
16 for the ranges of native groundwater TDS and chloride. The maximum percent recovery determined at  
17 these systems during cycle testing was 100 percent (low TDS native groundwater), and 42 percent (high  
18 TDS native groundwater), which brackets the range of conditions to be expected for storage in the UFA  
19 of south Florida.

#### 20 9.1.5.4 Limitations of these Findings

21 Due to funding and schedule limitations, not all of the tasks or analyses envisioned in the original PMPs  
22 and work plans were completed, but foundations were laid so that others could build on in the future.  
23 Tasks that were not completed included construction of pilot projects at Moorehaven, Port Mayaca, and  
24 within the Caloosahatchee River basin. These projects would have significantly enhanced our  
25 understanding of geochemical reactions taking place within ASR systems completed in a broader variety  
26 of lithologic and ambient water quality environments with the FAS.

#### 27 9.1.6 Potential Effects of ASR on Mercury Bioaccumulation for Ecosystem Restoration 28 Projects

29 During the early planning phases of the ASR Regional Study, it was hypothesized that two processes  
30 could occur during ASR cycle testing to increase methyl mercury concentrations in surface waters of the  
31 greater Everglades. First, recharging source water with elevated mercury concentrations into a sulfate-  
32 reducing aquifer could promote in-situ mercury methylation in the UFA, so that recovered water would  
33 be a new, additional source of methyl mercury to the environment. Second, discharge of recovered  
34 water with sulfate concentrations greater than those typical of south Florida surface water could  
35 enhance mercury methylation where it already occurs, in Everglades wetland sediments. The first

1 process was addressed by Krabbenhoft et al. (2007; **Section 2.3**). The second process was addressed in  
2 the Ecological Risk Assessment (**Chapter 8**).

### 3 9.1.6.1 Mercury Methylation Potential in the FAS

4 An initial investigation was conducted by the USGS to determine the potential for in-situ mercury  
5 methylation using a combination of field sampling and controlled bench-scale experiments (Krabbenhoft  
6 et al., 2007). The field sampling survey gathered groundwater samples from the SAS and UFA to  
7 quantify background concentrations of mercury and methyl mercury, and to define any spatial trends of  
8 these concentrations in the aquifers. Laboratory experiments incubated mercury isotope-spiked Lake  
9 Okeechobee surface water in the presence of UFA core material (CRASR) under both oxic and anoxic  
10 conditions. The presence of different mercury isotopes as elemental mercury and methyl mercury  
11 would serve as a tracer of the mercury methylation process in various incubation trials.

12 Results of field sampling shows that concentrations of total mercury and methyl mercury in both the  
13 UFA and SAS are very low, (mean values 0.41 ng/L and less than 0.07 ng/L, respectively) and exhibit no  
14 apparent spatial trends in either aquifer. These concentrations are significantly less than those in south  
15 Florida surface waters. Discharge of native UFA or SAS groundwater will not increase the mercury load  
16 in surface water.

17 Results of the incubation experiments shows that mercury and methyl mercury concentrations declined  
18 during the experimental procedure, most likely due to sorption onto aquifer material. There was no  
19 evidence of transformation of isotopically labeled mercury to methyl mercury, even under sulfate  
20 reducing conditions for the 16-week duration of the experiment. These bench-scale experiments  
21 suggest that the potential for mercury methylation under sulfate-conditions in the UFA is minimal.

### 22 9.1.6.2 Mercury and Methyl Mercury Trends during ASR Cycle Tests

23 Mercury and methyl mercury concentrations were measured throughout the ASR cycle testing program,  
24 particularly at KRASR (USACE and SFWMD, 2013). At KRASR, there were statistically significant  
25 reductions in mercury and methyl mercury concentrations when recharge water and the recovered  
26 water concentrations are compared. These data confirmed the findings of Krabbenhoft et al. (2007).  
27 The controlling mechanism for the decline has not yet been identified, but reduction could result from  
28 1) dilution, 2) sorption to aquifer lithology, 3) co-precipitation as a solid sulfide. At HASR, there was no  
29 significant difference in mercury and methyl mercury concentrations between recharge and recovered  
30 water. However, this system was subjected to fewer cycles, with lower recharge and recovery volumes,  
31 therefore decreasing the time that reactions might have occurred, and the number of data points  
32 collected. The mechanisms that govern mobilization and sequestration of Hg must be further studied  
33 before results from the current test wells can be extrapolated to other locations with any degree of  
34 certainty.

### 1 9.1.7 Relationships Among ASR Storage Interval Properties, Recovery Rates, and 2 Recharge Volume

3 This seventh, and last, issue identified by the ASR Issue Team is by far the broadest and most  
4 comprehensive of their report. The discussion of this issue details 10 'further investigations needed.' To  
5 confirm the efficacy of ASR as it pertains to aquifer hydraulic and hydrogeologic conditions. Some of  
6 these investigations (develop storage zone testing protocol, develop a cycle testing protocol, and  
7 develop techniques to address operational problems) are operational in nature, and were considered in  
8 the planning phase for each CERP ASR system. Cycle testing objectives, and groundwater and surface  
9 water sampling plans also were developed by the PDT, and were documented in USACE and SFWMD  
10 (2013) for both CERP ASR systems. Because both systems were designed to operate at 5 MGD pumping  
11 capacity, it was not possible to determine relationships between pumping rate and recovery efficiency  
12 beyond the observations at the CERP ASR pilot systems without compromising other project objectives.  
13 However, hydrogeologic, design, and operational factors that control ASR system performance at other  
14 south Florida ASR systems was discussed by Reese and Alvarez-Zarikian (2006).

15 One of the major project goals of the ASR Regional Study was to characterize hydrogeologic properties  
16 of permeable storage zones in the FAS, as they pertain to ASR feasibility. This effort has been  
17 documented extensively in **Chapters 3** and **7** of this report. Development of the regional hydrogeologic  
18 framework (**Chapter 3**) for the FAS in south Florida is a major contribution, not only for ASR feasibility  
19 but also for the hydrogeologic community of south Florida. The Regional ASR groundwater flow and  
20 transport model (**Chapter 7**) provides a detailed numerical analysis of ASR feasibility on a regional scale.

21 Confined aquifers are the best storage zone for ASR systems, because upward migration and leakage are  
22 restricted. If the upper or lower confining units lose integrity, the result is a loss of recharge water,  
23 reduced recovery, or inter-aquifer mixing. The material strength of the overlying confining unit was  
24 characterized throughout south Florida, with the conclusion that typical pressures encountered during  
25 ASR operations are unlikely to fracture the overlying confining unit. Pressure measurements in a well  
26 screened in the overlying confining unit at KRASR showed no pressure changes related to recharge or  
27 recovery. Leakage through the underlying confining unit, and mixing between the UFA and APPZ was  
28 not observed at either CERP ASR system. This confining unit (MCU1) generally is interpreted as leaky,  
29 but no evidence of mixing was observed at KRASR, where a dual-zone well is open to both the UFA and  
30 APPZ. Hydrologic parameter estimates for the MCU1 are not well characterized. Additional data for the  
31 MC1 and MC2 will be required at ASR systems where both the UFA and APPZ will serve as storage zones.

32 Water quality changes at the ASR wellhead (and at distal locations throughout the KRASR wellfield) were  
33 characterized in a robust, extensive groundwater quality dataset obtained over four cycles. These and  
34 supplemental surface water quality data were incorporated into subsequent modeling efforts conducted  
35 for an ecological risk assessment.

36 The ASR Issue Team's suggestion to "Characterize the typical time variability of recovery water demands  
37 for urban, agricultural and ecosystem needs" is beyond the scope of the ASR Regional Study. As part of

1 their water-supply planning efforts, the SFWMD develops a water supply plan for each major basin.  
2 These studies evaluate current usage, and predict future demands on water supply. ASR is considered in  
3 this evaluation, and ASR also is a component of several Alternative Water Supply Development projects  
4 defined in the plan. Additional water supply planning for ecosystem restoration goals is defined in the  
5 Comprehensive Everglades Planning Process (CEPP), which is an update to the CERP. ASR is not  
6 considered as a water management strategy at present in the CEPP.

7 The Issue Team's request to "Conduct full-scale demonstration testing of several large diameter ASR  
8 wells constructed in the upper interval at 5 to 10 sites..." was the driving force for the CERP ASR pilot  
9 system design, construction, and operation as described in USACE and SFWMD (2013). As mentioned in  
10 several places in this report, the PDT hoped to perform cycle tests at 3 to 5 sites, but resource  
11 constraints limited ASR system construction to two locations. If ASR is again viewed as a substantial part  
12 of Everglades restoration, additional sites for cycle testing should be considered.

13 Data collected from operation of the ASR pilot projects, new exploratory wells, and aquifer tests, as well  
14 as information acquired from operational ASR systems throughout South Florida have provided a  
15 comprehensive understanding of the variability of conditions that might affect CERP ASR performance.  
16 The KRASR and HASR pilot systems were some of the very first ASR systems built within the "interior" of  
17 south Florida. Prior to that time, most existing ASR systems had been built by utilities within urban  
18 areas along the coasts. Both pilot projects successfully demonstrated that high capacity (5 MGD)  
19 recharge and recovery ASR wells, completed in the upper portion of the FAS can be successfully  
20 operated within the interior of the state. Both CERP ASR systems were completed in transmissive  
21 limestone intervals, with open holes (without the need of well screens). The use of long open intervals  
22 (several hundred feet) is standard in most Florida ASR systems. However, the ASR Regional Study and  
23 other efforts by the SFWMD and USGS resulted in some significant advances in our understanding of the  
24 Floridan Aquifer System, particularly in regions with sparse data. These advances include, but are not  
25 limited to, the definition of preferential flow zones within the UFA and the APPZ, both of which  
26 represent potential storage zones. More cost-effective ASR wells could be constructed to focus on  
27 preferential flow zones and shorter open intervals without reducing well capacity.

28 There were substantial differences between the salinity of the native ground waters at the pilot ASR  
29 locations, which had a bearing on the percent recovery exhibited at each system. With regard to native  
30 groundwater quality, the two pilots could be considered as two end members. Native water within the  
31 storage zone at KRASR is relatively fresh (TDS less than 800 mg/L) whereas at HASR, native water within  
32 the storage interval was brackish (TDS of approximately 5,000 mg/L). The fresher native water at KRASR  
33 enabled 100 percent recovery by volume, whereas the brackish water at the HASR necessitated the  
34 termination of recovery of only 20 to 40 percent of the recharge water volume. Further improvement of  
35 percent recovery at the HASR is anticipated with further cycle testing and recharge of larger surface  
36 water volumes.

37 During extended periods of recharge, both KRASR and HASR systems experienced plugging of the  
38 storage zone due to the buildup of biological films or fine grained solids. Borehole plugging is a

1 relatively common occurrence at ASR systems across the state, and is often controlled by periodic back-  
2 flushing of the wells, to lift out the solids. Both ASR systems responded positively to acidization  
3 processes (conducted between cycles) to improve recharge capacity.

4 Both pilot systems were designed with recovery pumps installed within the ASR wells, to provide  
5 consistent recovery rates of 5 MGD. However, the UFA at both locations exhibited an ambient positive  
6 piezometric head of approximately 12 to 20 psi. In the future, some analysis should be considered to  
7 allow the ASR wells to recover naturally, solely using the artesian pressure of the formation. This might  
8 have the benefit of reducing capital and maintenance costs of the ASR systems and decreasing energy  
9 consumption.

#### 10 9.1.7.1 Limitations of These Findings

11 During construction of several of the exploratory wells, it became evident that the deeper, “middle”  
12 portion of the FAS contained strata that were available for ASR storage, including the APPZ. A pilot ASR  
13 system was not built to include a storage zone within this zone. Consequently, the potential use of  
14 superposed aquifers for storage at a single ASR system could not be evaluated.

15 Additionally, among the tasks that were not completed included the dynamic tracer tests at the pilot  
16 system locations and other multi-well systems. Tracer tests would have provided data on the effect of  
17 anisotropy within the FAS, which would have benefited the groundwater modeling effort and our  
18 understanding of the effect of storage and recoverability at operational ASR systems.

### 19 9.2 Responses to NRC (2001) Recommendations

20 The NRC (2001) report was the stimulus for creation of the ASR Regional Study. In this report, CROGEE  
21 identified three areas that needed more detail in order to reduce uncertainty of such a large, expansive  
22 proposed ASR program. These areas are: 1) regional science issues; 2) water quality issues; 3) local  
23 performance/feasibility issues. The following sections respond to CROGEE concerns.

#### 24 9.2.1 Regional Science Issues

25 These issues that focus on the scale of ASR implementation across south Florida.

##### 26 9.2.1.1 Compile a List of Available Data and Data Needs for Regional Assessment

27 Data compilation and identification of data gaps was initiated as one of the initial studies of the ASR  
28 Regional Study. A large database of available ASR literature was completed (**Section 2.1**), which  
29 complemented a more focused literature review supporting development of the ASR Regional  
30 Groundwater flow model (CH2M Hill, 2005). Identification of hydrogeology and groundwater quality  
31 data gaps in the FAS was addressed continually throughout the project. The ASR Regional Study was  
32 coordinated with the SFWMD Regional Floridan Ground Water (RFGW) monitoring program, so that  
33 ongoing well construction, hydrologic testing, and water quality sampling data could be incorporated

1 into the regional hydrogeologic framework (Reese and Richardson, 2008; Reese, 2014). All data and  
2 deliverables were added continually to the SFWMD DBHYDRO database for public distribution.

### 3 9.2.1.2 Develop a Regional Scale Groundwater Model in Parallel with Initial Data Compilation 4 and Identification of Data Gaps

5 The ASR Regional groundwater flow model is a major deliverable of the ASR Regional Study (**Chapter 7;**  
6 **Section 9.1.4.1**), and was initiated concurrently with data compilation supporting development of the  
7 regional hydrogeologic framework (**Section 3.1, Section 9.1.2**). The groundwater model was developed  
8 in phases in coordination with the hydrogeology effort. The development, calibration, and sensitivity  
9 analysis of the model, and resultant simulations are discussed extensively in **Chapter 7** and summarized  
10 in **Section 9.1.4.1**.

### 11 9.2.1.3 Drill Exploratory Wells in Key Areas, Including Core Sampling, Geophysical Logging, 12 Hydraulic Testing and Water Quality Sampling

13 With the assistance of the USGS, a preliminary regional hydrogeologic literature database and  
14 framework was assembled (Reese and Richardson, 2008). That task provided a comprehensive view of  
15 the general understanding of the hydrostratigraphy and hydraulic properties of the FAS at the beginning  
16 of the ASR Regional Study project. It also identified several areas, both geographic and conceptual,  
17 which constituted significant gaps in that understanding. In response to this evaluation, a drilling and  
18 testing program was developed that ultimately resulted in the construction of five new exploratory test  
19 wells, installation of a continuous corehole, performance of a sequence stratigraphic analysis, expansion  
20 of the RFGW monitoring network, and initiation of a quarterly FAS water sampling program. The data  
21 collected from these tasks were integrated with geophysical evaluations to create a final hydrogeologic  
22 framework, which was subsequently integrated into the final groundwater model simulations. All data  
23 are archived on the SFWMD database DBHYDRO.

### 24 9.2.1.4 Conduct Seismic Reflection Surveys to Constrain the Three-Dimensional Geometry and 25 Continuity of Hydrostratigraphic Units

26 New seismic reflection data was collected across Lake Okeechobee, and existing seismic lines were  
27 evaluated in an effort to fill in areas where well data were not available. Seismic reflection data were  
28 integrated into the final hydrogeologic framework (Reese, 2014). Seismic survey data beneath Lake  
29 Okeechobee (**Section 3.7**) show that the three major permeable zones within the FAS (UFA, APPZ and  
30 uppermost permeable zone of the LF) are laterally continuous, although lateral hydraulic connectivity  
31 within any single permeable zone across the lake has not been established.

1    **9.2.1.5 Use of the Regional Model in Conjunction with other Regional Data Sets to Develop a**  
2            **Rational, Multi-Objective Approach to ASR Facility Siting During Final Design of the**  
3            **Regional ASR Systems**

4    This recommendation is prospective, in that the tools developed during the ASR Regional Study would  
5    be applied to the phased roll-out of ASR in the CERP. This recommendation will be applied should that  
6    occur in the future. A preliminary siting study was completed early in the ASR Regional Study (**Section**  
7    **2.4**; Brown et al., 2005). Only surface criteria (e.g. real estate availability, source water proximity) were  
8    utilized in this effort. The state of knowledge of FAS hydrology and hydrogeology has advanced during  
9    the ASR Regional Study, so it is anticipated that FAS aquifer characteristics and hydrostratigraphy will be  
10   included as criteria for ASR site selection.

11   **9.2.2 Water Quality Issues**

12   These recommendations address the potential effects of recharge water on the geochemical  
13   environment of the FAS, and of recovered water on Lake Okeechobee and the greater Everglades  
14   ecosystem.

15   **9.2.2.1 Conduct Laboratory and Field Bioassays and Ecotoxicological Studies to Determine**  
16            **Appropriate Recovered Water Standards for Downstream Receptors**

17   Ecotoxicological and bioconcentration studies to characterize baseline conditions were initiated prior to  
18   cycle testing at the proposed and constructed ASR pilot systems. These studies evaluated the toxicity of  
19   source water prior to storage in the aquifer, and were then repeated using recovered water during cycle  
20   tests 1 and 2 at KRASR. Types of tests include standard toxicological tests required for NPDES permits  
21   (e.g. 7-day static renewal survival and reproduction tests using *Ceriodaphnia dubia*), and supplemental  
22   tests using organisms that were important receptors in Lake Okeechobee or the Greater Everglades (e.g.  
23   96-hour frog embryo teratogenesis assay, 96-hour chronic growth test with green algae *Selenastrum*  
24   *capricornutum*). The data compilation and limited interpretation of these tests is found in USACE and  
25   SFWMD (2013). Incorporation of these results into an ecological risk assessment is found in **Chapter 8**  
26   and also **Appendix F**.

27   Bioconcentration studies were conducted using bluegill fish and freshwater mollusks as test organisms  
28   at KRASR. A unique mobile flow-through bioconcentration laboratory was stationed at KRASR, and  
29   bioconcentration experiments were conducted using Kissimmee River source water for baseline, a 50:50  
30   mix of source water and cycle test 1 recovered water, and 100 percent cycle test 1 recovered water. An  
31   in situ study of bioaccumulation was also conducted KRASR by placing caged mussels in the proximity of  
32   the discharge outfall. Analytes of concern for bioaccumulation are trace metals (Al, Sb, As, Cd, Cr, Mo,  
33   Ni, Se, Zn) mercury and methyl mercury, and radium isotopes. The data compilation and limited  
34   interpretation of these tests is found in USACE and SFWMD (2013). Incorporation of these results into  
35   an ecological risk assessment is found in **Chapter 8**.

1 Periphyton is an important component of the South Florida ecosystem. To evaluate potential effects of  
2 recovered water on periphyton diversity and abundance, the periphyton communities were cultured the  
3 in Kissimmee River upstream and downstream of KRASR. Periphytometers were deployed prior to cycle  
4 testing, and again during cycle test 1 recovery phase. Although loss of periphytometers reduced the  
5 statistical significance of pre- and post-cycle test effects, this experiment yielded basic diversity data  
6 documenting in-stream conditions at this particular site. The data compilation and limited  
7 interpretation of these tests is found in USACE and SFWMD (2013). Incorporation of these results into  
8 an ecological risk assessment is found in **Chapter 8**.

9 In advance of ASR system construction, surface water ecosystems adjacent to the five proposed CERP  
10 ASR systems were characterized (Tetra Tech, 2007). This study provided a baseline (pre-operational)  
11 data summary of surface water and sediment quality, macroinvertebrate and fish communities, and  
12 mercury concentrations in fish. Vegetation community diversity was interpreted at each site using the  
13 Floristic Quality Index to identify disturbed versus pristine habitat conditions. In-stream conditions at  
14 KRASR were determined after the completion of four cycle tests, although a using a different  
15 methodology (Amec, 2013). Incorporation of these results into an ecological risk assessment is found in  
16 **Chapter 8**.

#### 17 9.2.2.2 Characterize Organic Carbon in the Source Water and Studies to Anticipate the Effects of 18 Biogeochemical Processes in the Subsurface

19 As cycle testing proceeded at the ASR pilot systems, it became increasingly clear that the TOC and DOC  
20 constituents in source (surface) water were important drivers of subsurface biogeochemical reactions.  
21 TOC and DOC concentrations were measured weekly and monthly during all phases of cycle tests at  
22 KRASR, and these data are presented in USACE and SFMWD (2013). Concentrations of TOC and DOC  
23 declined during each cycle test, most likely due to sorption to aquifer material and microbe-mediated  
24 redox reactions in the UFA. More detailed studies of microbe-mediated geochemical reactions were  
25 completed by Lisle (2014) and Harvey et al. (2014).

26 Lisle (2014) characterized DOC in native UFA and APPZ groundwaters, as part of a larger effort to define  
27 microbe diversity in the FAS (**Chapter 6**). Microbes couple electron donor (oxidation of organic carbon)  
28 and electron acceptor (reduction of nitrate, ferric iron, or sulfate, for example) reactions to obtain  
29 energy, and these coupled reactions are specific to microbial families. As part of this study, Lisle (2014)  
30 quantified carbon utilization and biomass production in microbe communities isolated from six UFA and  
31 APPZ wells that were near the CERP ASR systems. The Lisle (2014) study is the most detailed  
32 characterization of native microbe diversity of the FAS to date.

33 In a related study, Harvey et al. (2014) reported characteristics of DOC fractions in Lake Okeechobee  
34 surface water samples, and the effect that these DOC fractions would have on transport of *E. coli*  
35 introduced into the FAS during ASR cycle testing. Although the transport tests were inconclusive,  
36 characterization of the DOC fractions of Lake Okeechobee surface water will be useful for other  
37 subsurface microbe studies.



### 1 9.2.2.3 Laboratory Studies to Evaluate Dissolution Kinetics and Redox Processes that Could 2 Release Ions, Arsenic, Heavy Metals, Radionuclides and Other Constituents from the 3 Aquifer Matrix

4 Development of the ASR Regional Study coincided with the recognition that geochemical reactions  
5 between recharged water and aquifer material can result in the release of metals and other species  
6 during ASR cycle testing. The ASR Regional Study PDT investigated several approaches to determine, in  
7 advance of ASR system construction, how to identify those storage zone lithologies that were most likely  
8 to adversely affect groundwater quality during cycle testing. Fischler and Arthur (2014) at the Florida  
9 Geological Survey (FGS) completed a detailed study to characterize mineralogy and chemical  
10 composition of representative samples in cores from the lower Hawthorn Group confining unit, and in  
11 the core samples from the Ocala Limestone, Suwannee Limestone, and Avon Park Formation at existing  
12 and proposed CERP ASR systems.

13 Whole rock analyses of 14 samples from three representative cores (PBF-15 at L-8; MW-10 at KRASR;  
14 and L-1028 in Lee County) were characterized using scanning electron microscopy, back-scattered  
15 electron imaging, electron probe microanalysis and reflected light microscopy methods (**section 5.8.1**).  
16 The results confirmed the frequent occurrence of pyrite in all UFA and APPZ storage zone lithologies.  
17 This mineral serves as a source for arsenic, antimony, and possibly molybdenum. Although marine  
18 limestones of the Ocala, Suwannee, and Avon Park Formations may have interstitial pyrite, arsenic  
19 mobility will be greatest where pyrite occurs in the permeable zones within each formation.

20 The FGS maintained an active program to evaluate water-rock interactions during ASR cycle testing,  
21 which was performed concurrently with the ASR Regional Study. These efforts included bench-top  
22 sequential extraction experiments conducted under reducing conditions (Arthur et al., 2007) in addition  
23 to field studies. In the bench-top experiments, representative rock samples from the lower Hawthorn  
24 Group confining unit, the Ocala Limestone, Suwannee Limestone, and Avon Park Formation at the  
25 proposed CERP ASR pilot systems (CRASR, PMASR, KRASR, HASR, MHASR, L-2) were reacted with either  
26 source water or native groundwater in sealed reaction vessels in which a reducing geochemical  
27 environment was maintained. The objective of these leaching experiments is to quantify the phases  
28 that were the most significant source of metals and uranium in aquifer material under simulated ASR  
29 cycle test conditions. A detailed mineralogical and whole rock geochemical characterization was part of  
30 this effort.

31 The sequential extraction experiments of Arthur et al. (2007) confirm that organic sulfide-rich fractions  
32 of lower Hawthorn Group and FAS limestones account for the greatest proportional release of most  
33 trace metals. Uranium was extracted most readily from sulfide phases, but concentrations were  
34 greatest in the lower Hawthorn Group samples compared to the limestone samples.

### 35 9.2.3 Local Performance/Feasibility Issues

36 Many of these issues are addressed by cycle testing at the CERP ASR systems, and are reported in USACE  
37 and SFWMD (2013). However, the following concern was identified in NRC (2001).

### 1 9.2.3.1 Include Studies to Understand Mixing of Recharge Water with Saline Groundwater

2 Mixing models were developed using chloride as a conservative tracer using existing data at several  
3 municipal ASR systems (Mirecki, 2006) and also during cycle tests at KRASR (Mirecki et al., 2012). Mixing  
4 models and chloride concentration trends are useful for evaluating breakthrough of recharge water in  
5 monitor wells, particularly when the chloride composition contrast is great between native and recharge  
6 water.

7 Sigmoid-shaped breakthrough curves suggest that water travels as a plug through the aquifer away from  
8 the ASR well (**Section 5.7**). This is most likely when the storage zone contains discrete permeable zones  
9 that are intersected by monitor wells having a short open interval (to eliminate borehole mixing from  
10 many permeable zones. This pattern is clearly shown at KRASR as recharge water flows along a  
11 preferential flow zone between the ASR well and the 1,100-ft storage zone monitor well (Mirecki et al.,  
12 2012). Reese and Alvarez-Zarikian (2007) have identified this preferential flow zone at the top of the  
13 UFA as a regional feature that could influence subsurface transport at other interior south Florida ASR  
14 systems. In contrast, non-sigmoidal breakthrough curves observed at other ASR systems (Mirecki, 2006)  
15 may result from mixing of several flow zones within the large open interval of a monitoring well  
16 borehole.

## 17 9.3 Responses to NRC (2002) Recommendations

18 The NRC (2002) report summarizes their review of the ASR Regional Study PMP. In this report, CROGEE  
19 identified several tasks that should be expanded and further defined. The following sections respond to  
20 CROGEE concerns.

### 21 9.3.1 Increase the Number of Monitor Wells and Conduct Extended Recharge and 22 Storage Durations at Each Site to Ascertain the Vertical and Lateral Hetero- 23 geneity of the Sites and to Understand Hydraulic and Biogeochemical Processes

24 The cycle testing program at both CERP ASR pilot systems increased in duration and volume recharged  
25 with each successive cycle. At KRASR, the final cycle test consisted of a six-month recharge period  
26 followed by one year of storage, and was one of the largest volume single ASR well cycle tests ever  
27 conducted in Florida. Between cycle tests 2 and 3, two additional monitor wells were constructed at  
28 KRASR, to evaluate transport of recharge water and water-quality changes over a larger radius from the  
29 ASR well. Results of cycle testing at CERP ASR pilot systems are discussed in USACE and SFWMD (2013).

### 30 9.3.2 Increase Emphasis on Potential Geochemical Reactions via Expanded 31 Monitoring Programs During Cycle Testing

32 Although only two of the original five proposed CERP ASR systems were constructed and operated, a  
33 primary focus of cycle testing at KRASR and HASR was to evaluate water-quality changes during cycle  
34 testing. The primary focus at KRASR was to characterize geochemical changes in the storage zone  
35 throughout the cycle testing program. An intensive sampling program consisted of weekly, biweekly, or

1 monthly sampling of all wells for major and trace inorganic constituents, nitrogen and phosphorus  
2 nutrients, selected radionuclides, stable isotopes (cycle test 1 only), mercury and methyl mercury, and  
3 microorganisms. The focus at HASR was to determine regulatory compliance during cycle testing.  
4 Results are discussed fully in USACE and SFMWD (2013) and Mirecki et al. (2012).

### 5 **9.3.3 Increase Emphasis on Community-Level and System-Wide Ecological Effects**

6 The Ecological Risk Assessment included an assessment of the impact of ASR on fisheries in the Lake  
7 Okeechobee basin as well as an evaluation of potential changes to SAV communities in the Kissimmee  
8 River and Lake Okeechobee, as detailed in **Chapter 8** and **Appendix E**.

### 9 **9.3.4 Extend Duration of Bioassay Testing and Monitoring to Allow for Assessment of** 10 **Long-Term Ecological Effects**

11 Extended duration bioassay testing and monitoring was implemented to the extent practicable given the  
12 suite of standardized ecotoxicological tests selected for the project and the timing of recovery events at  
13 the pilot facilities (USACE and SFMWD, 2013). The ecological risk assessment team investigated the  
14 potential for site-specific in-situ testing using customized microcosms at the KRASR facility. Given the  
15 timing and duration of cycle testing events, the variability of the different ecosystems that might be  
16 exposed to ASR discharges, and cost considerations, the team determined that standardized eco-  
17 toxicological testing would be the best way to evaluate short-term ecological effects because of their  
18 reproducibility and general acceptance within the scientific community.

19 During the 6-month recovery events at KRASR, multiple sampling events were scheduled to collect  
20 recovered water and test for toxicity using standard 24 hour and 96 hour tests. Bioaccumulation testing  
21 was done using 28-day exposure periods and periphytometers were deployed for 30-day stretches  
22 during recovery. In the Ecological Risk Assessment, the evaluation of long-term ecological effects relies  
23 upon the interpretation of the shorter-duration eco-toxicological testing performed at KRASR and HASR  
24 and the projection of downstream water quality conditions as affected by ASR discharges. The ERA  
25 determined that the 200 well ASR scenario (ALT2) could potentially result in long-term ecological effects  
26 particularly in the Kissimmee River associated with fisheries while the lesser ASR implementation  
27 scenarios would be less likely to result in long-term ecological change particularly in the downstream  
28 water bodies such as Lake Okeechobee and the Greater Everglades.

### 29 **9.3.5 Emphasis on Ecosystem Modeling Within the Everglades, to Study the Effects of** 30 **High Ionic Strength Recovered Water on Community Composition**

31 The Lake Okeechobee Environmental Model (LOEM) discussed in **Chapter 8** and **Appendix E** was used to  
32 predict the concentrations of chloride and sulfate within Lake as a result of CERP ASR operations.  
33 Under worst case assumptions, this modeling showed that chloride and sulfate concentrations for the  
34 full 200 well ASR installation in the Lake Okeechobee Basin would result in a temporary (<12 months)  
35 doubling of chloride and sulfate concentrations in the lake. While community composition could be

1 affected by such increases in chloride and sulfate within the Lake, the 200 ASR well scenario in the Lake  
2 Okeechobee basin was ultimately considered not feasible for hydrogeologic reasons. For this reason,  
3 the ERA did not include ecosystem modeling of the 200-well scenario. Under less intensive ASR  
4 implementation scenarios, such as the 100-well scenario and the reduced recovered water volume  
5 scenarios, the increase in sulfate and chloride concentrations within the lake generally resulted in  
6 maximum chloride and sulfate concentrations that were within the existing range of concentrations or  
7 not substantially higher than the baseline maximum concentrations. Given limited increase in chloride  
8 and sulfate for the less intensive ASR implementation scenarios, the ERA team determined that the  
9 effects of recovered water on community composition would be limited for these alternatives (ALT3,  
10 ALT4, ALT4-S11). Similarly, the effect of recovered water on community composition within the Greater  
11 Everglades was considered to be minimal for the lesser ASR implementation scenarios because of the  
12 dilution of ASR flows by EAA runoff.

### 13 9.3.6 Expanded Ecological Evaluation of Water Recovered from ASR Systems.

14 The CROGEE recommended, “ecotoxicological studies, including long-term bioassays, be conducted at  
15 the field scale to evaluate the ecological impacts of water-quality changes” caused by the use of ASR  
16 technologies in south Florida. During 2004, the SFWMD initiated studies to evaluate ecotoxicological  
17 test methods. This work began with screening studies that utilized synthetic recovered water to  
18 evaluate toxicological tests that would be useful during actual pilot ASR cycle testing. The preliminary  
19 toxicological screening studies identified a set of toxicological tests, bioaccumulation tests, tetragenetic  
20 tests, stream condition analysis, in-situ exposure tests that were utilized at the KRASR and HASR  
21 facilities during cycle testing. In general, the testing results indicated no acute toxicity of the recovered  
22 water, some limited and sporadic chronic toxicity during the later phase of recovery at the KRASR  
23 facility, and limited potential for bioaccumulation of metals by mussels located adjacent to the ASR  
24 discharge outfalls. These tests and the results are fully discussed in **Appendix F** (Ecological Risk  
25 Assessment Report.)

26

## 10 Future Directions for CERP ASR

In CERP, the proposed construction of 333 ASR wells represents the greatest proportion of new storage (a 75 percent volume increase; NRC, 2005) added to the south Florida water management system. The project implementation reports of CERP, and its successor CEPP, both contain a component called “Adaptive Management and Monitoring”. The focus of an adaptive management and monitoring plan is to encourage efficiencies by incorporating the results of project monitoring to enhance restoration benefits, reduce cost, inform project design, and improve project performance (NRC, 2014).

In the context of the ASR implementation, adaptive management and monitoring consists of feedback between the monitoring results and conclusions developed at the CERP ASR pilot systems (USACE and SFWMD, 2013) with the hydrogeological framework development, groundwater and solute transport modeling, and ecosystem effects evaluation presented in this report. The CERP ASR pilot system results showed that individual ASR systems could be operated successfully with good (although not perfect) regulatory compliance in interior locations of Florida. This study evaluates scenarios where similar systems would be constructed, and predicts potential hydrologic, hydrogeologic, and ecologic changes and effects.

Further development of ASR technology for CERP and CEPP, presumably with a reduced number of ASR systems, would not be constructed as a single effort. Instead, these systems could be developed step-wise, in concert with other water management systems designed and constructed for water supply and ecosystem restoration purposes. This chapter provides a vision of “the next phase” of CERP ASR implementation. It is comprised of projects and studies that should be considered for funding, sequencing and scheduling, that builds on the findings contained within this report. In total, this proposed program describes construction and testing of ASR facilities in locations that have been considered for ASR previously. If completely implemented, the program would result in construction of a total of 70 MGD of ASR recharge capacity at nine localities within south Florida.

### 10.1 Expansion of the Existing Pilot Facilities at HASR and KRASR

These projects would continue cycle testing at the HASR system, in order to increase the volume of freshwater in the storage zone to improve percent recovery. The KRASR system would be expanded with an additional recharge well to increase storage capacity at this location.

#### 10.1.1 Additional Cycle Testing at the Hillsboro ASR System

The three test cycles conducted to date at the HASR system indicated that percent recovery improved from approximately 20 percent to 40 percent. Although these results were encouraging, further testing is warranted to determine the ultimate recovery capacity of this system. At least a series of three additional test cycles should be conducted on the system, with the intent of increasing the recharge and storage volumes and durations, to develop a large freshwater zone around the ASR well. A proposed cycle plan should be considered, such as:

- 1 **Cycle Test 4:** Recharge – 60 days; Storage – 30 days; Recovery – 30 days  
2 **Cycle Test 5:** Recharge – 90 days; Storage – 60 days; Recovery – 60 days  
3 **Cycle Test 6:** Recharge – 120 days; Storage – 90 days; Recovery – 60 days

4 Depending on the results of the cycle testing at the Hillsboro facility, future consideration should be  
5 given to construction of a second ASR well, to continue to evaluate the potential of full-scale (30 wells)  
6 ASR integration into the Site 1 impoundment, as envisioned in the Restudy (USACE and SFWMD, 1999).

7 The project (cycle testing) duration will be 2 years, starting in 2015. Activities include permitting,  
8 operation and maintenance support, system maintenance and repair (as needed), monitoring and  
9 project reporting.

### 10 10.1.2 Expansion of the Kissimmee River ASR System

11 The KRASR system has successfully demonstrated that ASR systems can be built in the upper FAS  
12 adjacent to Lake Okeechobee, with high capacities and percent recovery. A mechanism for arsenic  
13 control during cycle testing was defined at this site, along with phosphorus reduction. This early success  
14 should be augmented with construction of a second ASR well on the property, completed within the  
15 APPZ to determine the recharge, storage and recovery capacities, and percent recovery of that unit and  
16 continuation of studies of nutrient reduction via ASR. Construction of an ASR well in the APPZ will  
17 expand the total recharge capacity of the Kissimmee facility to 10 MGD.

18 The project duration is approximately 5 years, starting in 2015. Activities include permitting, design,  
19 well construction, facility modification, cycle testing (2 year duration), operation and maintenance,  
20 monitoring and reporting.

### 21 10.2 Construction at Previously Planned CERP ASR Pilot Systems

22 Only two of five proposed CERP ASR systems were constructed to date. The other three systems – Port  
23 Mayaca, Moorehaven, and Caloosahatchee River – remain either in the conceptual or final design phase.  
24 If constructed, these ASR systems would fulfill their original intent, and could augment newer water  
25 storage structures such as STAs, dispersed lands storage, and reservoirs.

#### 26 10.2.1 Port Mayaca Pilot ASR System

27 Currently, two wells have been constructed at this facility – a large diameter exploratory well (EXPM-1)  
28 and a dual-zone monitoring well (MF-37). The PPDR for this facility proposed construction of a multi-  
29 well (three) ASR well, 15 MGD system, utilizing media filtration coupled with a UV disinfection treatment  
30 process. Final plans and specifications already exist for the ASR surface facility, although the filtration  
31 system should be re-evaluated to benefit from newer technologies. The existing large diameter well can  
32 serve as the first of three ASR wells planned for this pilot system. This system will provide data on well  
33 interference, aquifer anisotropy, and expected percent recovery of multi-well ASR facilities in proximity

1 to Lake Okeechobee. In addition, an ASR system at this location would provide some reduction in flows  
2 to the St. Lucie estuary during periods of high-volume releases from Lake Okeechobee.

3 The project duration is approximately 6 years, starting in 2016. Project activities include permitting,  
4 design evaluation, well construction, surface facility construction, cycle testing (2 year duration),  
5 operation and maintenance, monitoring and reporting.

### 6 **10.2.2 Moorehaven ASR Pilot System**

7 The exploratory well (GLF-6) constructed at the Moorehaven pilot site has indicated that favorable  
8 zones for ASR existed in both the upper and middle FAS. The PPDR for this facility proposed  
9 construction of a one-well ASR facility, utilizing magnetized ion exchange (MIEX) treatment process for  
10 DOC removal, coupled with chloramine disinfection. This 5 MGD system will test a treatment (filtration  
11 and disinfection) process that was not used at either the Kissimmee or the Hillsboro pilot systems.

12 The project duration is approximately 6 years, starting in 2016. Project activities include permitting,  
13 design, well construction, surface facility construction, cycle testing (2 year duration), operation and  
14 maintenance, monitoring and reporting.

### 15 **10.2.3 Caloosahatchee River ASR Pilot System**

16 The exploratory well at the Berry Groves property indicated that conditions within UFA were not  
17 favorable for high-capacity ASR. As a result, the Caloosahatchee River ASR pilot project was deferred  
18 until such time as another site was identified within the basin that might accommodate ASR. Within the  
19 past few years, the SFWMD has partnered with Lee County to initiate a new water treatment project  
20 along the Caloosahatchee River, at the Boma property. The SFWMD is developing a pilot STA designed  
21 to remove nitrogen from the river water. If the STA pilot feature proves successful and a larger-scale  
22 STA facility is built on this land, then an FAS exploratory well could potentially be constructed at the  
23 property, with the possibility of constructing a 5 MGD pilot ASR system at the same location.  
24 Implementation of the ASR pilot will hinge on the results of the pilot STA testing.

25 The project duration is approximately 5 years, starting in 2017. Project activities include permitting,  
26 design, well construction, surface facility construction, cycle testing (2 year duration), operation and  
27 maintenance, monitoring and reporting.

## 28 **10.3 Construction at Sites for CERP ASR Consideration**

29 CERP ASR implementation would follow an adaptive management paradigm, in that additional systems  
30 would be constructed sequentially in basins having the greatest need for storage, and as resources  
31 become available. The following projects could be developed to fulfill the vision for ASR storage  
32 presented in the Restudy.

### 10.3.1 L-8 and C-51 Basin

The Restudy included the conceptual construction of up to 44 ASR wells within the combined L-8 and C-51 Canal basin areas. The exploratory well (PBF-15) constructed adjacent to the L-8 flow equalization basin (FEB) in 2008 indicated that transmissive intervals within the FAS were present between the depths of 900 to 1,575 feet bls. The exploratory well is now completed as a tri-zone monitor well, which should be integrated into a 5 MGD pilot ASR system at that location. The ASR system could be used to store “excess” water that would otherwise not be captured during times when the FEB is filled to capacity. Phosphorus reduction would also be an asset at this location because Lake Okeechobee surface water is conveyed to this location along the L-8 canal.

A component of ASR also should be considered to augment storage in the L-8 basin as part of the Loxahatchee River Watershed Restoration project. The proposed plan captures approximately 15,000 acre-ft of storage in an in-ground reservoir located at the Mecca Farms tract. Additional storage is required in this basin, which could be provided by ASR at the reservoir location.

Project duration is approximately 6 years, starting in 2017. Project activities include permitting, design, well construction, surface facility construction, cycle testing (2 year duration), operation and maintenance, monitoring and reporting.

### 10.3.2 Central Palm Beach County

The Restudy included the conceptual construction of up to 25 ASR wells within the central Palm Beach County agricultural area. These wells would be associated with a reservoir for the purpose of providing supplemental water supply by capturing water currently discharged to the Lake Worth Lagoon. When the location of the reservoir feature is determined, an exploratory well should be constructed at the project site, to characterize the FAS. To date, the closest ASR well system to this area is located 10 miles to the east, at the City of Boynton Beach, which has operated successfully for over a decade. If the results from the exploratory well are successful, then a 5 MGD pilot system should be constructed to evaluate the potential of ASR technology in this area.

Project duration is approximately 6 years, starting in 2017. Project activities include permitting, design, well construction, surface facility construction, cycle testing (2 year duration), operation and maintenance, monitoring and reporting.

### 10.3.3 Taylor Creek (L-63N) Canal ASR System

The L-63N Canal ASR system was constructed and tested by the SFWMD in the mid-1980's and has since been inactive. This ASR system is completed in the APPZ portion of the FAS, which exhibits unusually high transmissivity at this location. As a result, this ASR well has a recharge capacity of nearly 10 MGD. The components for this ASR system are still operational, and can be reactivated with minimal cost. Currently, a UIC construction permit has been issued by the FDEP and a petition for an aquifer



1 exemption is pending with the USEPA. The aquifer exemption will allow this ASR system to be tested  
 2 without a disinfection process, which would allow for further analysis of the fate of microorganisms in  
 3 aquifers. Recent correspondence with the USEPA has indicated that a previous aquifer exemption  
 4 issued for this project is still in effect, and that the system can be operated so long as it maintains  
 5 compliance with the conditions of that document. The source water at this system contains high  
 6 concentrations of phosphorus, which also will allow for the further evaluation of nutrient reduction  
 7 processes that may be active in the subsurface. Project duration is approximately 3 years, starting in  
 8 2015. Project activities include permitting, design, well construction, surface facility rehabilitation, cycle  
 9 testing (2 year duration), operation and maintenance, monitoring and reporting.

#### 10 10.3.4 Construction of a Multi-Well ASR System at Paradise Run

11 The exploratory well at Paradise Run indicated favorable conditions in the upper FAS and the APPZ for a  
 12 stacked, multi-well ASR system. The proximity of this site to the highly successful KRASR system would  
 13 suggest that this site ought to have similar results. A conceptual design evaluation was completed for  
 14 this project in 2009, and included construction of a 10-well ASR system, wetland treatment process, a  
 15 siphon to connect Pool E (above the S-65E water control structure) with the former Kissimmee River  
 16 floodplain for environmental restoration, as shown in **Figure 10-1**. The first phase of this project should  
 17 be construction and testing of a two-well, 10 MGD pilot system, to evaluate the wetland treatment  
 18 process, followed by expansion up to a 50 MGD system, if deemed successful. It is possible that this  
 19 facility could be operated remotely from the KRASR facility by telemetry.

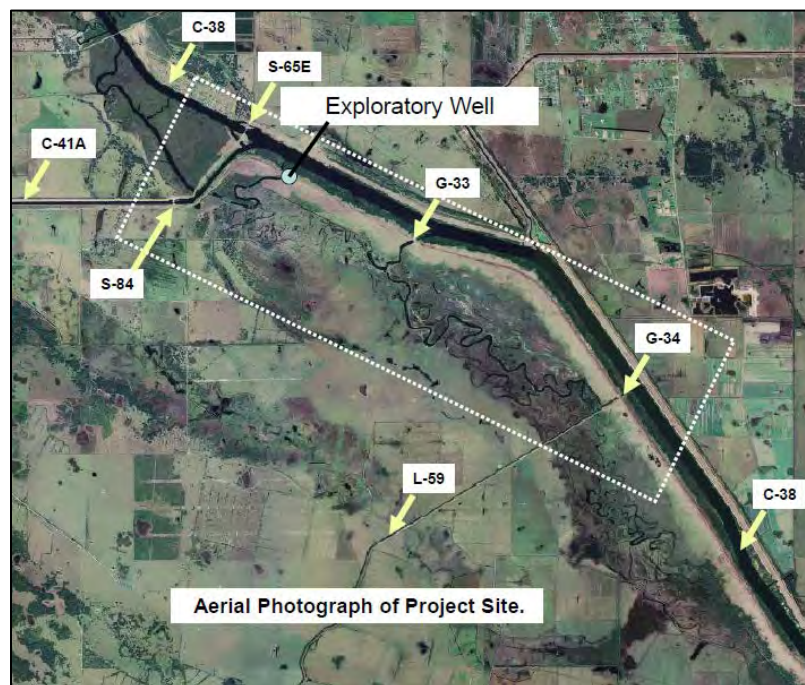


Figure 10-1 – Aerial photograph showing location of the Paradise Run exploratory well and project location (square), and canals and tributaries to the Kissimmee River (C-38).

1 Project duration is approximately 7 years, starting in 2016. Project activities include permitting, design,  
2 well construction, surface facility construction, cycle testing (2 year duration), operation and  
3 maintenance, monitoring and reporting.

#### 4 **10.4 Additional Recommended Technical Studies and Novel ASR Applications**

5 Projects discussed in the following subsections describe technical studies that would improve ASR  
6 compliance, or optimize ASR operations.

##### 7 **10.4.1 Processes to Reduce Nutrients (P and N) Through ASR**

8 Managing elevated phosphorus concentrations in surface waters that flow into Lake Okeechobee and  
9 the water conservation areas is one of the greatest challenges to successful ecosystem restoration.  
10 Phosphorus loading and subsequent eutrophication of in Lake Okeechobee during the last few decades  
11 has degraded water quality, reduced the extent of submerged aquatic vegetation, and has caused 5  
12 fisheries to decline in abundance. In 2005, FDEP issued a final rule defining a numeric criterion for  
13 phosphorus in Class III surface waters of the Everglades Protection Area (F.S.62-302.540). The  
14 Everglades Protection Area includes the water conservation areas, Loxahatchee National Wildlife  
15 Refuge, and Everglades National Park. This numeric criterion is 10 µg/L, calculated as an annual  
16 geometric mean across all stations. Reduction of phosphorus concentration usually is achieved using  
17 stormwater treatment areas and use of best management practices. However, results of ASR cycle  
18 testing show significant reduction of phosphorus concentration, with recovered water usually in  
19 compliance with the numeric criterion.

20 The processes that are controlling the reduction of P during storage within the FAS are at this time,  
21 poorly understood, although are probably a combination of dilution, microbiological uptake, mineral  
22 precipitation, and sorption within the aquifer matrix. Additional studies to understand the mechanics  
23 and interplay of these processes should be undertaken, so that the long-term effectiveness of ASR in  
24 nutrient removal can be included in planning evaluations.

##### 25 **10.4.2 Continuing Sequence Stratigraphy and Core Analysis**

26 The USGS work on the ROMP 29A well discussed in **Section 3.6.1** indicated that a sequence stratigraphic  
27 approach could lead to improved correlation of flow zones within the FAS. This analysis should be  
28 applied to additional wells throughout the south Florida area, to improve our understanding of regional  
29 transmissivity patterns, which could aid in siting future ASR system with high recovery efficiencies.

##### 30 **10.4.3 Integration of Seismic Data from Broward County**

31 At the time of this writing, Broward County is conducting an extensive marine seismic reconnaissance of  
32 the major canals throughout the county. This data collection should result in new insights to the local  
33 structure and stratigraphy of the FAS, which should assist in siting new ASR wells based on favorable  
34 hydrogeologic conditions.

#### 1 10.4.4 Continuing Evaluation of the Fate of Microorganisms in Aquifers

2 The microbiological characterization work described in **Chapter 6** has resulted in a greater  
3 understanding of the response of microorganisms to deep subsurface conditions. Additional studies  
4 should be undertaken at operational ASR systems to determine appropriate disinfection and monitoring  
5 strategies to protect underground sources of drinking water, while recognizing that biological processes  
6 remain active in the subsurface.

#### 7 10.4.5 The ASR Contingency Study

8 The storage and supply functions provided by ASR were critical components of the plan originally  
9 envisioned by CERP. However, uncertainties associated with its proposed regional scale led to a public  
10 perception that there might have been an over-reliance on ASR to maintain substantial storage for  
11 ecosystem restoration and other water needs of south Florida. As a result, it was recommended that a  
12 “contingency plan” be developed, which would identify options to replace the water storage and supply  
13 management functions that would have been provided by ASR components. Investigating a worst case  
14 scenario for ASR (no ASR) and/or a reduced scale ASR scenario, and formulating contingency plans to  
15 realize CERP performance, will give interested persons a gauge of what revisions to CERP may be  
16 necessary or are possible under these conditions, and what the impacts and costs of such revisions could  
17 be, pending more definitive answers from the CERP ASR pilot projects and Regional Study. Potential  
18 alternative features to replace or supplement ASR could include desalination plants, deep injection  
19 wells, increasing the capacity and number of surface storage reservoirs, and increasing Lake  
20 Okeechobee water levels. This study should include limited options analysis, assessment of the storage  
21 tradeoffs, and evaluation of all storage components in and around Lake Okeechobee.

#### 22 10.4.6 Alternative ASR Implementation and Siting Concepts

23 The projects and programs listed below represent alternative uses for ASR. Some applications can  
24 involve recharge of source water with little to no recovery, at least in the short-term. Other applications  
25 include ASR to augment other water management strategies.

##### 26 10.4.6.1 Compliance with the Leah Schad Memorial Ocean Outfall Program

27 In 2008, the Florida Legislature enacted an ocean outfall statute (Leah Schad Memorial Ocean Outfall  
28 Program; Subsection 403.086(9), F.S.) requiring the elimination of the use of six ocean outfalls in  
29 southeastern Florida as the primary means for disposal of treated domestic wastewater. In addition, the  
30 affected wastewater utilities have to reuse at least 60 percent of the outfall flows by 2025. The  
31 objectives of this statute were to reduce nutrient loadings to the environment and to achieve the more  
32 efficient use of water for water supply needs. This statute became effective on July 1, 2008.

1 The 2008 Leah Schad Memorial Ocean Outfall Program applies to each of the facilities/utilities that have  
2 permits to discharge through an ocean outfall. All of the wastewater/reuse facilities utilizing ocean  
3 outfalls are located in the LEC Planning Area. The facilities are as follows:

- 4 • South Central Regional Water Reclamation Facility (Delray Beach and Boynton Beach)
- 5 • Boca Raton Water Reclamation Facility
- 6 • Broward County North Regional Water Reclamation Facility
- 7 • Hollywood Southern Regional Water Reclamation Facility
- 8 • Miami-Dade North District Wastewater Treatment Plant
- 9 • Miami-Dade Central District Wastewater Treatment Plant

10 Each of the utilities using ocean outfalls submitted an annual report on July 1, 2013 to FDEP on the  
11 implementation of the ocean outfall statute. The utilities continue to implement and plan for these  
12 changes. At least two of the utilities have proposed recharging a portion of their reclaimed water into  
13 the FAS, and may integrate ASR into their reclaimed water storage and supply system. Reclaimed water  
14 is highly treated, disinfected wastewater. Reclaimed water can be recharged into the FAS where the  
15 TDS concentrations exceed 10,000 mg/L. If native FAS TDS concentrations are below 10,000 mg/L,  
16 reclaimed water must be treated to drinking water standards prior to recharge.

#### 17 **10.4.6.2 Climate Change and Sea Level Rise**

18 Long-term data show increasing worldwide temperatures and a corresponding sea level rise. For  
19 planning purposes, SFWMD is estimating a sea level rise of 5 to 20 inches in south Florida by 2060. The  
20 anticipated rise in sea level may change the hydrodynamics of the coastal estuaries, change the location  
21 and shape of the freshwater-seawater interface, and increase the intrusion of salt water into coastal  
22 aquifers. Analysis is needed to identify the potential impact of sea level rise on utility wellfields and  
23 other users at risk of saltwater intrusion within SFWMD. ASR should be considered as a strategy to  
24 improve wellfield recharge, hydraulic barrier creation, and as a wet-weather flood control disposal  
25 alternative when surface structures and canals cannot otherwise operate against higher ocean levels.

#### 26 **10.4.6.3 STA/FEB Drought Insulation**

27 During future prolonged droughts, water levels in surface reservoirs, impoundments, and FEBs are low  
28 or empty, and Lake Okeechobee water level drops below the point at which water can flow by gravity to  
29 the south. Delivery of sufficient water volumes to the Everglades STAs becomes difficult. If the  
30 submerged aquatic vegetation (SAV) cells dry out, the vegetation dies and the future treatment  
31 capability of the STA is greatly diminished. Construction of ASR wells within the STAs could hydrate the  
32 SAV cells in a controlled manner, which would ensure that the STAs would be capable of treating  
33 stormwater runoff normally at the onset of the wet season. An additional benefit of having ASR wells  
34 installed within the internal footprint of the STA is that “institutional controls” would be available, thus  
35 facilitating the permitting process should arsenic mobilization be an issue.

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