

Waterfalls Hydropower Development: impacts to aesthetics generally and to "holy places" particularly

Visualization in Waterfalls Hydropower Aesthetics: Impact Assessment, Mitigation, and Post-facto Evaluation

1. Artworks, Industrialization, Methodologies and Venues

Since the dawn of the industrial revolution, the extraordinary kinetic energy of great volumes of water falling from great heights has always been irresistible to technological exploitation: originally for strictly mechanical devices, e.g., simple gristmills or sawmills; later on for much more elaborate belt-driven machinery installations. Such early energy uses needed, of course, to be in the immediate proximity of the waterfalls themselves. But by the 1870s, with the first relatively primitive hydroelectric turbines being installed at waterfalls, the end users of the new power plants were no longer compelled to be situated immediately nearby, as the electricity yielded could readily be "wheeled" long distances through distribution systems.

In terms of capital investment, waterfalls are especially attractive to hydropower developers: by emplacing a low barrage, say, of 10m in height, just upstream of the falls escarpment, and the flow thereby diverted to a pipe or tunnel downstream at the turbine headworks near the toe of the falls—or even far downstream from there—if the resultant gain in hydraulic head was 100m, the actual yield of power was equivalent to a dam 100m in elevation for the cost of erecting a structure only a tenth of that height. The only problem was that the waterfalls itself would be terminated as a consequence.

The engineering rule-of-thumb is that the design throughput capacity for a waterfall hydropower installation be equivalent to approximately twice the statistically-derived mean annual discharge (at the damsite) of the stream so harnessed. Temporally, this implies that the entire volume previously allowed to run freely over the falls can now be exploited into energy production about 90-95% of the time. Absent any requirement for an intentional aesthetic release regime—which necessarily comes at considerable opportunity cost for un-generated, un-wheeled, and un-marketed electricity—the waterfalls will be nonexistent nearly all the time.

It would be wildly uneconomic to install a facility massive enough to process the entire streamflow known to possibly occur that remaining 5% or 10% of the time. When installed throughput capacity is exceeded—and this will only rarely be so—the necessarily bypassed over-falls excess is almost always far less than the average pre-project discharge. The visual effect of this reduction, however, may or may not be aesthetically displeasing, depending upon the setting, the morphology of the escarpment, and the expectations of tourists or viewers—if indeed there were/are/will be any.

An early waterfall hydropower scheme at Snoqualmie Falls, in Washington State USA, has been in operation since 1898. It was first to replace the penstocks, turbines, and generators underground. In 1991 the operator, Puget Power and Light (PPL) had to re-license the facility, pursuant to requirements of the Federal Energy Regulatory Commission (FERC). Although since its inception the project had continuously diverted about 95% of the previous overfalls discharge through its turbines, it was still considered a natural wonder, and attracted more than a million tourists annually. The license renewal was opposed by environmentalists and by local Native Americans who regarded it as a despoiled sacred site. FERC required PPL's consultants to experiment with evaluating the visual quality at various levels of discharge, which could be completely controlled (within the existing throughput capacity), since the penstock gates were already in place and could be opened or closed at will. Comparative video and still imagery was presented, and FERC determined that the *de facto* aesthetic release regime was sufficient to maintain most of the natural beauty of the falls. Go to <http://vimeo.com/5530039> [source: PPL]

Evaluating and ameliorating visual impacts of waterfalls hydropower on holy sites

There is no sharp line between “natural patrimony” and “cultural heritage” and commonly, sites or objects of primarily natural provenance may come to be ascribed with religious significance. Great cataracts—and sometimes even modest-sized waterfalls—are often considered as holy places and frequently are the venues for erecting shrines and temples.

Under the original concept, the Upper Kotmale Hydroelectric Project (UKHP) in the tea country near Talawakelle, Sri Lanka was expected to terminate five waterfalls, at which at least two were located minor shrines and the third the setting of a highly revered—amongst the “Plantation Tamil” community—miracle temple. Initially, both the Japanese funders and the national project proponents were resistant to the concept of “aesthetic releases” which should have at least partially or intermittently conserved the beauty and spiritual character of waterfalls otherwise being sacrificed to energy development, but which would have necessarily entailed significant “opportunity costs”: i.e., foregone revenues for ungenerated and unsold power.

The controversy over UKHP, largely on the waterfalls issue, delayed its construction for fifteen years, but it was eventually approved and quite recently completed., and the project as implemented included consideration of aesthetics and cultural sensitivities. We will be presenting the original image archive produced in 1991 for the required environmental documentation, but also new interactive digital media from our December, 2013 post-facto evaluation of the UKHP's actual visual impacts.

While the loss of the waterfalls was regrettable, the task before us now is to convince the relevant authorities that such a sacrifice was necessary...\*

Funded by the Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) and thus tied to exclusively Japanese-sourced engineering and hardware, the Upper Kotmale Hydroelectric Project (UKHP)—in its original conceptualization, with c. 160 MW of installed generating capacity—was a staircased, intra-basin transfer scheme which entailed bypassing the previous discharge over five waterfalls: of which at least two approached world class.

The Project's primary impacts were on aesthetics and cultural properties, both natural and man-made. (Involuntary displacement and rehabilitation of businesses in the Project's footprint were within the brief of a separate Social Impact Assessment (SIA) consultancy.) For the mandatory environmental impact assessment (EIA), the two questions at the forefront were:

- How to determine and implement a plausible and visually-satisfactory aesthetic release regime acceptable to the Project's critics, and—given that the relatively pristine Upper Kotmale Basin venue had been promised, although never institutionalized, as the “forever-wild” mitigation region for the much larger irrigation and hydropower schemes comprising in aggregate the Accelerated Mahaweli Programme...
- Whether the Island's remaining waterfalls—irresistible, of course, to hydropower developers because of their attractive benefit/cost (B/C) aspects and engineering efficiencies—should in due course be similarly sacrificed, one by one, to water resource management (WRM); and by extension, who gets to make that decision in the larger national interest?

\* On arrival in Colombo the impact assessment consultants were so advised by a pre-Inspection Report white paper, “in light of the importance of energy to Sri Lanka's development objectives.” With boundless naïveté, it was assumed that this Prime Directive was addressed to the in-house engineers and economists: rather than the expected output of the environmental reporting.

Victoria Falls and Rapids sacrificed to Victoria Dam: (Accelerated Mahaweli Programme)

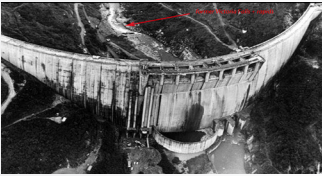
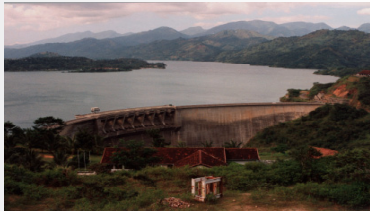
Mahaweli – Victoria Dam

In the 1980s, based on advice and studies by British engineers, the Victoria Dam was built. It is a concrete arch dam 122m high and 507m along its crest. It was opened by Mr Thatcher in 1985. This created the Victoria Reservoir which flooded the Mahaweli Ganga valley requiring the relocation of 80,000 villagers and the loss of fertile bottom valley land.

This was also a controversial scheme. Representations were made to the World Commission on Dams during their investigations during 1999/2000. The Commission concluded that no more schemes should be promoted that had the effects on the environment caused by Victoria: loss of Victoria Falls with too much of the water being taken for energy with no overflow resulting in the virtual disappearance of the river. (see

However the stored water is used for the generation by hydropower of 40% of Sri Lanka's total energy requirements. The water is then discharged downstream where it is fed to other reservoirs in the Mahaweli system for wider distribution in the north of Sri Lanka for treatment and potable use.

[source] [http://www.wcnt.org.uk/sites/default/files/migrated-reports/100\\_1.pdf](http://www.wcnt.org.uk/sites/default/files/migrated-reports/100_1.pdf)



An aesthetic release regime for St. Clair Falls: from outright rejection to eventual acceptance

In the early 1980s, the US Agency for International Development (USAID) conducted an in-country “capacity building” exercise in Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) methodologies and praxis for Sri Lankan agencies expected to soon be in the forefront of their adoption. In order to avoid potential controversy by selecting for the training research venue and critique no schemes likely to be actually implemented, the USAID team—in conjunction with their Lanka counterparts—chose the then-seemingly-hypothetical Upper Kotmale Hydroelectric Project (UKHP).

The engineering advantages of waterfalls hydropower projects were vetted in the 1950s Ceylon Power Planning Study, and indeed, two of the most favored prospective projects in that document were just above Victoria Falls on the mainstem Mahaweli, and just above St. Clair Falls on the Upper Kotmale. Both were foreseen as involving lengthy tunneling to maximize hydrostatic head at power stations erected at lower elevations far downstream, which would have devalued the previous channels. Victoria Dam was completed just before the EIA training, under the Accelerated Mahaweli Development Programme (AMDP) and whatever the virtues of the AMDP, it seemed clear that while environment hadn't figured heretofore in its planning and evaluation, EIA would certainly be seen coming into its own in Sri Lanka.

Since UKHP would require sacrificing two of the Island's most impressive and best-known waterfalls, St. Clairs and Devon—both of which were visible from the scenic Hutton Road and the Kandy-Badulla rail line—it was widely believed within the newly strengthened regulatory agencies within the NCQs, and the across much of general public that given the waterfalls issues at its heart, the UKHP was a pipe dream, and thus a perfectly harmless choice.

However—unaware or not of USAID's reasoning—JICA (and its consultants) and the Ceylon Electricity Board (the C.E.B., the national utility) were of a different view on the UKHP, with its technical and economic criteria determined as positive by their 1987 feasibility study, which in fact cited the regrettable loss of the waterfalls as the Project's major downside, but one expected to be manageable politically.

A discharge duration curve describes the percentage of time that a particular level of streamflow is reached or exceeded. Based on the hydrological data, the design throughput capacity of the Project—36.9 m<sup>3</sup>/second—would be expected to be reached or exceeded approximately 8% of the time. The other 92% would be that period when there would be no technical limitation on the Project operator's ability to divert all incoming streamflow through the tunnels and turbines. Under those conditions, the falls would be completely dried.

As the UKHP's design and siting came under detailed consideration, the CEB's main source of local expertise—the Central Engineering Consultancy Bureau (CECB)—was concerned over a previous project: constructing the roadway up Pidurutalagala mountain with fowessable but unmitigated aesthetic impacts. CECB staff were instrumental in trying to convince the Japanese and the CEB to prioritize such considerations in the UKHP. The various alternatives put forward by CECB, notably the Yoxford Option—which were admittedly sub-optimal from purely engineering and economic weighing, but which would have left St Clair's appearance essentially unchanged and have likely defanged potential opposition—were dismissed almost out of hand. The strongest legal challenge to the UKHP was exactly over “the inadequate consideration of lower-impact alternatives.”

St. Clair Falls middle drop, 1994 (above); St. Clair middle and lower drops, 2001 (above right)

Devon Falls, 2001 (above); 2013 (below)

"We are made to understand that Japan has threatened the Sri Lankan Government to stop all funding for Sri Lanka if we do not agree to implement the controversial Upper Kotmale Hydropower Project... We express our great dissatisfaction with the conduct of Japanese agencies in Sri Lanka..." Environmental Foundation Ltd. (2002)

"This Project which was to be launched in the 1980s, never saw the day of light due to political expediency and various other reasons and intimidation...until the bold decision [in April, 2005] to proceed for the construction...regardless of political pressure..." Media Center for National Development of Sri Lanka (2013)

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2a. Upper Kotmale Hydroelectric Project, Talawakelle, Sri Lanka: Environmental Reporting + Public Participation (1993-2002) + eBook

In development planning and project evaluation, two sharply contrasting implementation strategies may be applied to almost any engineering scheme likely to prove contentious on environmental or social grounds: The first could be called accommodationalist. Central to this approach is identifying—well in advance of design finalization—the source and the substance of opposition likely to arise against the proposed project; to determine whether such a critique appears valid, reasonable, and subject to negotiation; and then to devise mutually agreeable solutions, in a context of transparency and presumed good faith. Wherever such solutions cannot be found, a frank and candid analysis of the unresolvable issues should be prepared and then either incorporated directly into the EIA, or otherwise distributed appropriately.

Alternatively, the proponents may choose a confrontational approach: total or partial. Here, project critics are seen as the enemy and a military-style strategy is applied to achieve speedy, unconditional implementation, i.e., “victory.” Nothing is voluntarily supplied to potential opponents which may strengthen their tactical position or facilitate their intelligence-gathering; and project resources are specifically deployed to maximize momentum towards construction. That may prove an opportune game plan where decision-making is monopolized by a political or technocratic elite; where potential critics are socially marginalized; where ironclad financing is already secured; where the news media is certain to be antipathetic to project opponents; and where recourse to judicial or administrative means of obstruction is unavailable. If any of these conditions are absent, the confrontational mode of development planning risks backfiring: often very expensively—in terms of money, time, and institutional credibility.

THE ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS FROM THE NEWEST HYDROPOWER PROJECT IN THE LAO PDR

SWECO

President of the National Council of Ministers, Sri Lanka

The agenda of the Lao PDR government—which inherits zero domestic opposition to State planning—is to become the “Battery of Asia.” Protecting waterfalls is a non-issue.

Snoqualmie Falls, near Seattle, USA, was the site of the first underground hydroelectric station in North America: built in the late 19th century. In 1994, it was necessary to apply to FERC for a new operating license. The central conflict was the appropriate aesthetic discharge.

Upper Kotmale Hydroelectric Project, Talawakelle, Sri Lanka

Victoria Dam, Sri Lanka

St. Clair Falls, USA

Devon Falls, USA

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