Fifth & Final Progress Report of a 12-month Long-Term Preconstruction Bat Monitoring Study, and Bat Impact Assessment

For the proposed Phezukomoya Wind Power (Pty) Ltd WEF

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Independence:

Animalia Zoological & Ecological Consultation (Pty) Ltd has no connection with the developer. Animalia Zoological & Ecological Consultation (Pty) Ltd is not a legal or financial subsidiary of the developer; remuneration for services by the developer in relation to this proposal is not linked to approval by decision-making authorities responsible for permitting this proposal and the consultancy has no interest in secondary or downstream developments as a result of the authorization of this project.

Applicable Legislation:

Legislation dealing with biodiversity applies to bats and includes the following:

NATIONAL ENVIRONMENTAL MANAGEMENT: BIODIVERSITY ACT, 2004 (ACT 10 OF 2004; Especially sections 2, 56 & 97)

The act calls for the management and conservation of all biological diversity within South Africa. Bats constitute an important component of South African biodiversity and therefore all species receive additional attention to those listed as Threatened or Protected.

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Figure 2: Overview of the passive monitoring systems on the Phezukomoya Wind Power (Pty) Ltd.

1 OVERVIEW OF THE PROPOSED DEVELOPMENT

The proposed 315MW Phezukomoya WEF would consist of the following infrastructural components:

- Up to 63 wind turbines with a generation capacity between 3 5MW and a rotor diameter of up to 150m, a hub height of up to 150m and blade length of up to 75m;
- Foundations and hardstands associated with the wind turbines;
- Internal access roads of between 8 m (during operation) and 14m (during construction) wide to each turbine;
- \bullet Two 10 000m² on-site switching stations
- Medium voltage underground electrical cables will be laid to transmit electricity generated by the wind turbines to the on-site switching station or substation;
- Overhead medium voltage cables between turbine rows where necessary;
- An on-site substation and OMS area (180 000 $m²$) to facilitate stepping up the voltage from medium to high voltage (132kV) to enable the connection of the WEF to proposed Umsobomvu WEF 132/400kV Substation, from which the generated power will be fed into the national grid;
- Two medium voltage overhead powerlines (approximately 3km and 5.6km in length) connecting the on-site switching stations with the on-site medium voltage/132kV substation;
- An approximately 16 km 132kV voltage overhead power line from the on-site substation to the proposed 132/400kV Umsobomvu Substation where the electricity will be transferred to the national grid;
- A 90 000m² area for batching plant, temporary laydown area and construction compound;
- Temporary infrastructure including a site camp; and a laydown area approximately 7500m² in extent, per turbine.

The total size of the development site is 15 271 hectares. The footprint of the proposed development is estimated to be less than 1% of this area.

2 OBJECTIVES AND TERMS OF REFERENCE FOR PRECONSTRUCTION STUDY

- Study bat species assemblage and abundance on the site.
- Study temporal distribution of bat activity across the night as well as the four seasons of the year in order to detect peaks and troughs in activity.
- Determine whether weather variables (wind, temperature, humidity and barometric pressure) influence bat activity.
- Determine the weather range in which bats are mostly active.
- Develop long-term baseline data for use during operational monitoring.
- Identify which turbines need to have special attention with regards to bat monitoring during the operational phase and identify if any turbines occur in sensitive areas and need to be shifted into less sensitive areas or removed from the layout.
- Detail the types of mitigation measures that are possible if bat mortality rates are found to be unacceptable, including the potential times/circumstances which may result in high mortality rates.
- The sensitivity of the site and its associated infrastructure to bats.
- A discussion of anticipated cumulative impacts.
- An assessment of impacts and risks of the project to bats.

3 INTRODUCTION

This is the fifth and final progress report, and impact assessment for a twelve-month bat monitoring study at the proposed Phezukomoya Wind Power (Pty) Ltd WEF near Noupoort, Northern Cape.

Three factors need to be present for most South African bats to be prevalent in an area: availability of roosting space, food (insects/arthropods or fruit), and accessible open water sources. The importance of these factors can vary greatly between bat species, their respective behaviour and ecology. Nevertheless, bat activity, abundance and diversity are likely to be higher in areas supporting all three above-mentioned factors.

The site was evaluated in terms of the amount of surface rock (possible roosting space), topography (influencing surface rock in most cases), vegetation (possible roosting spaces and foraging sites), climate (can influence insect numbers and availability of fruit), and presence of surface water (influences insects and acts as a source of drinking water) to identify bat species that may be impacted by wind turbines. This evaluation is done chiefly by studying the geographic literature of each site, available satellite imagery and observations during site visits. Species probability of occurrence, based on the above-mentioned factors, is estimated for the site and the surrounding larger area (see Section 4.2).

General bat diversity, abundance and activity are determined by the use of bat detectors. A bat detector is a device capable of detecting and recording the ultrasonic echolocation calls of bats which may then be analysed with the use of computer software. A real time expansion type bat detector records bat echolocation in its true ultrasonic state which is then effectively slowed down 10 times during data analysis. Thus the bat calls become audible to the human ear, but still retain all of the harmonics and characteristics of the call from which bat species with characteristic echolocation calls can be identified. Although this type of bat detection equipment is advanced technology, it is not necessarily possible to identify all bat species by just their echolocation calls. Recordings may be affected by the weather conditions (i.e. humidity) and openness of the terrain (bats may adjust call frequencies). The range of detecting a bat is also dependent on the volume of the bat call. Nevertheless, it is a very accurate method of recording bat activity.

3.1 The Bats of South Africa

Bats form the Order Chiroptera and are the second largest group of mammals after rodents (Rodentia). They are the only mammals to have developed true powered flight and have undergone various skeletal changes to accommodate this. The forelimbs are elongated, whereas the hind limbs are compact and light, thereby reducing the total body weight. This unique wing profile allows for the manipulation of wing camber and shape, facilitating functions such as agility and manoeuvrability. This adaption surpasses the static design of the bird wings in function and enables bats to utilize a wide variety of food sources, including, but not limited to, a large diversity of insects (Neuweiler 2000). Species-based facial features may differ considerably as a result of differing life histories – particularly as a result of the various foraging and echolocation strategies evident among bats. Most South African bats are insectivorous and are capable of consuming vast quantities of insects on a nightly basis (Taylor 2000, Tuttle and Hensley 2001) however, they have also been found to feed on amphibians, fruit, nectar and other invertebrates (e.g. spiders and scorpions). As a result, insectivorous bats are the predominant predators of nocturnal flying insects in South Africa and contribute greatly to the suppression of these numbers. Their prey also includes agricultural pests such as moths and vectors for diseases such as mosquitoes (Rautenbach 1982, Taylor 2000).

Urban development and agricultural practices have contributed to the deterioration of bat populations on a global scale. Public participation and funding of bat conservation are often hindered by negative public perceptions and unawareness of the ecological and economic value of bats. Some species choose to roost in domestic residences, causing disturbance and thereby decreasing any esteem that bats may have established. Other species may occur in large communities in buildings, posing as a potential health hazard to residents in addition to their nuisance value. Unfortunately, the negative association with bats obscures their importance as an essential component of ecological systems and their value as natural pest control agents, which actually serves as an advantage to humans.

Many bat species roost in large communities and congregate in small areas. Therefore, any major disturbances within and around the roosting areas may adversely impact individuals of different communities within the same population (Hester and Grenier 2005). Secondly, nativity rates of bats are much lower than those of most other small mammals. This is because, for the most part, only one or two pups are born per female per annum. Moreover, according to O'Shea *et al*. (2003), bats may live for up to 30 yearsthereby limiting the number of pups born due to this increased life expectancy. Under natural circumstances, a population's numbers may accumulate over long periods of time. This is due to the longevity and the relatively low predation of bats when compared to other small mammals. However, in contrast the relatively low reproduction rates of bats results in populations having a low recovery rate from mass mortalities and major roost disturbances.

3.2 Bats and Wind Turbines

Although most bats are highly capable of advanced navigation through the use of echolocation and excellent sight, they are still at risk of physical impact with the blades of wind turbines. The carcasses of bats have been found in close proximity to wind turbines and, in a case study conducted by Johnson *et al*. (2003), were found to be directly related to collisions. The incident of bat fatalities for migrating species has been found to be directly related to turbine height, increasing exponentially with altitude, as this disrupts the migratory flight paths (Howe *et al*. 2002, Barclay *et al*. 2007). Although the number of fatalities of migrating species increased with turbine height, this correlation was not found for increased rotor sweep (Howe *et al*. 2002, Barclay *et al*. 2007). In the USA it was hypothesized that migrating bats may navigate without the use of echolocation, rather using vision as their main sense for long distance orientation (Johnson *et al*. 2003, Barclay *et al*. 2007). Despite the high incidence of deaths caused by direct impact with the blades, numerous bat fatalities have been found to be caused by barotrauma (Baerwald *et al*. 2008). This is a condition where low air pressure found around the moving blades of wind turbines, causes the lungs of a bat to collapse, resulting in fatal internal haemorrhaging (Kunz *et al*. 2007). Baerwald *et al*. (2008) found that 90% of bat fatalities around wind turbines involved internal haemorrhaging consistent with barotrauma. A study conducted by Arnett (2005) during migrations recorded a total of 398 and 262 bat fatalities in two surveys at the Mountaineer Wind Energy Centre in Tucker County, West Virginia and at the Meyersdale Wind Energy Centre in Somerset County, Pennsylvania, respectively. These surveys took place during a 6-week study period from 31 July 2004 to 13 September 2004. In some studies, such as that taken in Kewaunee County (Howe *et al.* 2002), bat fatalities were found to exceed bird fatalities by up to three-fold.

Although bats are predominately found roosting and foraging in areas near trees, rocky outcrops, human dwellings and water; in conditions where valleys are foggy, warmer air is drawn to hilltops through thermal inversion which may result in increased concentrations of insects and consequently bats at hilltops, where wind turbines are often placed (Kunz *et al*. 2007). Some studies (e.g. Horn *et al*. 2008) suggest that bats may be attracted to the large turbine structure to investigate perceived potential roosting spaces or that swarms of insects may get trapped in low pressure air pockets around the turbine, also encouraging the presence of bats. The presence of lights on wind turbines have also been identified as possible causes for increased bat fatalities for non-cave roosting species. This is thought to be due to increased insect densities that are attracted to the lights and subsequently encourage foraging activity of bats (Johnson *et al*. 2003). Clearings around wind turbines, in previously forested areas, may also improve conditions for insects, thereby attracting bats to the area and the swishing sound of the turbine blades has been proposed as possible sources of disorientation for bats(Kunz *et al*. 2007). Electromagnetic fields generated by the turbine may also affect bats which are sensitive to magnetic fields (Kunz *et al*. 2007). It could also be hypothesized, from personal observations that the echolocation capabilities of bats are designed to locate smaller insect prey or avoid stationary objects, and may not be primarily focused on the detection of unnatural objects moving sideways across the flight path.

Whatever the reason for bat fatalities in relation to wind turbines, it is clear that this is a grave ecological problem which requires attention. During a study by Arnett *et al*. (2009), 10 turbines monitored over a period of 3 months showed 124 bat fatalities in South-central Pennsylvania (America), which can cumulatively have a catastrophic long term effect on bat populations if this rate of fatality continues. Most bat species only reproduce once a year, bearing one young per female, therefore their numbers are slow to recover from mass mortalities. It is very difficult to assess the true number of bat deaths in relation to wind turbines, due to carcasses being removed from sites through scavenging, the rate of which differs from site to site as a result of habitat type, species of scavenger and their numbers (Howe *et al*. 2002, Johnson *et al*. 2003). Mitigation measures are being researched and experimented with globally, but are still only effective on a small scale. An exception is the implementation of curtailment processes, where the turbine cut-in speed is raised to a higher wind speed. This relies on the principle that the prey of bats will not be found in areas of strong winds and more energy is required for the bats to fly under these conditions. It is thought, that by the implementation of such a measure, bats in the area are not likely to experience as great an impact as when the turbine blades move slowly in low wind speeds. However, this measure is currently not effective enough to translate the impact of wind turbines on bats to a category of low concern.

4 METHODOLOGY

All methodologies for the preconstruction study were initiated and designed according to the "South African good practice guidelines for surveying bats in wind farm developments (2014, Sowler & Stoffberg)", but also complies with all requirements of the 2016 version of "South African Good Practice Guidelines for Surveying Bats at Wind Energy Facility Developments - Pre-construction: 4th Edition (Sowler, et al.). Bat activity was monitored using active and passive bat monitoring techniques. Active monitoring was done through site visits, with transects made throughout the site with a vehicle-mounted bat detector. Passive detection was completed with the mounting of passive bat monitoring systems placed on four monitoring masts on site. Specifically, three short 10m masts and one meteorological mast (**Figure 2**).

The monitoring systems consisted of SM2BAT+ time expansion bat detectors that were powered by 12V, 18Ah, sealed lead acid batteries and 20W solar panels which provided recharging power to the batteries. Each system also had an 8-amp low voltage protection regulator and SM3PWR step down transformer. Four SD memory cards, class 10 speed, with a capacity of 32GB each were utilized within each SM2BAT+ detector; this was to ensure substantial memory space with high quality recordings even under conditions of multiple false wind triggers.

One weatherproof ultrasound microphone was mounted at a height of 10 meters on the short masts, while two microphones were mounted at 10m and 50m on the meteorological mast. These microphones were then connected to the SM2BAT+ bat detectors.

Each detector was set to operate in continuous trigger mode from dusk each evening until dawn (times were correlated with latitude and longitude). Trigger mode is the setting for a bat detector in which any frequency which exceeds 16 kHz and -18dB will trigger the detector to record for the duration of the sound and 500ms after the sound has ceased, this latter period is known as a trigger window. All signals were recorded in WAC0 lossless compression format. The table below summarizes the above-mentioned equipment setup.

4.1 Site Visit Information

All site visits were conducted following the same methodology as mentioned above, over the course of the 12-month preconstruction monitoring period.

During the second site visit, the passive data of the bat activity was downloaded from each monitoring system. The data was analysed by classifying (as near to species level as possible) and counting positive bat passes detected by the passive systems. A bat pass is defined as a sequence of ≥1 echolocation calls where the duration of each pulse is ≥2ms (one echolocation call can consist of numerous pulses). A new bat pass will be identified by a >500ms period between pulses. These bat passes have been summed into 10 minute intervals which was used to calculate nocturnal distribution patterns over time and provide a means of determining bat activity per 10-minute period. Only nocturnal, dusk and dawn values of environmental parameters from the weather data were used, as this is the only time bats are active. Times of sunset and sunrise will be adjusted with the time of year.

The bat activity was correlated with the environmental parameters; wind speed and air temperature to identify optimal foraging conditions and periods of high bat activity at the end of the study.

4.2 Assumptions and Limitations

- Distribution maps of South African bat species still require further refinement such that the bat species proposed to occur on the site (that were not detected) are assumed accurate. If a species has a distribution marginal to the site it was assumed to occur in the area. The literature based table of species probability of occurrence may include a higher number of bat species than actually present.
- The migratory paths of bats are largely unknown, thus limiting the ability to determine if the wind farm will have a large scale effect on migratory species. Attempts to overcome this limitation, however, will be made during this long-term sensitivity assessment.
- The satellite imagery partly used to develop the sensitivity map may be slightly imprecise due to land changes occurring since the imagery was taken.
- Species identification with the use of bat detection and echolocation is less accurate when compared to morphological identification, nevertheless it is a very certain and accurate indication of bat activity and their presence with no harmful effects on bats being surveyed.
- It is not possible to determine actual individual bat numbers from acoustic bat activity data, whether gathered with transects or the passive monitoring systems. However, bat passes per night are internationally used and recognized as a comparative unit for indicating levels of bat activity in an area as well as a measure of relative abundance.
- Spatial distribution of bats over the study area cannot be accurately determined by means of transects, although the passive systems can provide comparative data for different areas of the site. Transects may still possibly uncover high activity in areas where it is not necessarily expected and thereby increase insight into the site.
- Exact foraging distances from bat roosts or exact commuting pathways cannot be determined by the current methodology. Radio telemetry tracking of tagged bats is required to provide such information if needed.
- Costly radar technology is required to provide more quantitative data on actual bat numbers as well as spatial distribution of multiple bats.

4.3 Assessment Methodology

The assessment methodology will be in accordance with the recent revised 2014 EIA regulations. The significance of environmental impacts is a function of the environmental aspects that are present and to be impacted on, the probability of an impact occurring and the consequence of such an impact occurring before and after implementation of proposed mitigation measures.

a) Extent (spatial scale):

Ranking criteria

b) Duration:

Ranking criteria

c) Intensity (severity):

d) Probability of occurrence:

Ranking criteria

e) Status of the impact:

Describe whether the impact is positive, negative or neutral for each parameter. The ranking criteria are described in negative terms. Where positive impacts are identified, use the opposite, positive descriptions for criteria.

Based on a synthesis of the information contained in (a) to (e) above, the specialist will be required to assess the significance of potential impacts in terms of the following criteria:

f) Significance: (Duration X Extent X Intensity)

Positive impacts would be ranked in the same way as negative impacts, but result in high, medium or low positive consequence.

g) Degree of confidence in predictions:

State the degree of confidence in the predictions, based on the availability of information and specialist knowledge.

5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Land Use, Vegetation, Climate and Topography

The Besemkaree Koppies Shrubland vegetation unit forms part of the Grassland biome (**Figure 3**

[Figure 1](#page-5-0)). This vegetation unit occurs at altitudes between 1120 m – 1680 m and consists of two-layered karroid shrubland. The lower layer comprises of mostly dwarf, small-leaved shrubs and abundant grasses, particularly in wet years; while the upper layer is mostly tall shrubs e.g. *Rhus* sp (Mucina and Rutherford 2006). The dolerite-dominated geology is the result of extensive volcanic activity. In some areas, the slopes of mesas and butts may be a mix of dolerite, sandstones and mudstones. Climatic conditions show hints of the bimodal pattern typical of the Nama-Karoo. Overall Mean Annual Precipitation (MAP)is 400 mm but ranges from 280 mm in the west of the unit to 580 mm in the east (the site is situated in the south west portion of this unit). Mean annual temperature is 15°C. The unit is considered Least Threatened as it is largely excluded from major agricultural activities (Mucina and Rutherford 2006). About 5% is statutorily conserved.

The site mostly falls in the Eastern Upper Karoo vegetation unit which forms part of the Nama-Karoo biome and is mostly present in the western parts of the site (**Figure 3**). This unit is found at an altitude of 1000 $m - 1700$ m. The unit is characterised by flat and gently sloping plains dominated by dwarf microphyllous shrubs and 'white' grasses of the genera *Aristida* and *Eragrostis* (Mucina and Rutherford 2006). Mostly sandstones and mudstones, which support duplex soils and some shallow Glenrosa and Mispah soils, dominate the unit but some areas may have prominent dolerites. Rainfall occurs mainly in autumn and summer with MAP ranging from 180 mm in the west of the unit to 430 mm in the east (the site is situated in the eastern third of the unit). Mean maximum and minimum temperatures are 36.1°C and -7.2°C for January and July, respectively. Frost incidence is relatively high and ranges from <30 to >80 days but are likely closer to the lower end at this site. The Eastern Upper Karoo is Least Threatened but veld managers perceive the unit to be experiencing species composition changes hence high-priority action is required (Mucina and Rutherford 2006).

The Karoo Escarpment Grassland vegetation unit is mostly present in the eastern parts of the site (**Figure 3**). The unit consists of mountain summits, low mountains and hills with wiry tussock grasslands usually dominated by Merxmuellera Disticha. An important low shrub component occurs throughout this unit. Geology consists of shallow on mudstones and sandstones of the Beaufort Group (Karoo Supergroup). Rainfall shows minor peaks in March and November – December, and it has very dry winters. MAP ranging from 300 mm to 580 mm increasing from west to east as well as with increasing elevation. Frost incidence is from less than 20 days to more than 100 days, higher values occur at higher elevations. There may be occurrences of a number of days of snow per year, especially at higher elevations and on the edge of the escarpment. The Karoo Escarpment Grassland is Least Threatened with nearly 3% statutorily conserved in the Mountain Zebra and Karoo National parks. Slightly higher portions are protected in game farms and private game reserves. (Mucina and Rutherford 2006).

The Tarkastad Montane Schrubland vegetation unit is mostly present in the eastern parts of the site (**Figure 3**). The unit is characterised by ridges hills and isolated mountain slopes, characterised by high surface rock cover, consisting of large boulders most of the time. The vegetation is low semi-open, mixed shrubland with 'white' grasses and dwarf shrubs forming a prominent component of the vegetation. The geology of the site consists mostly of sedimentary rocks of the Tarkastad Subgroup. Rainfall occurs mainly in late summer and autumn peaking in February and March. MAP 280 – 720 mm increasing from west to east. Frost occurs on average 39 days a year increasing with proximity to the escarpment. The unit is Least Threatened. Around $1 - 2\%$ is statutorily conserved in conservation areas. About 2% is transformed for cultivation or by building of dams. (Mucina and Rutherford 2006).

Vegetation units and geology are of great importance as these may serve as suitable sites for the roosting of bats and support of their foraging habits (Monadjem *et al.* 2010). Houses and buildings may also serve as suitable roosting spaces (Taylor 2000; Monadjem *et al.* 2010). The importance of the vegetation units and associated geomorphology serving as potential roosting and foraging sites have been described in **Table 1**.

Vegetation	Roosting	Foraging	Comments		
Unit	Potential	Potential			
Besemkaree	Moderate	Moderate-	The tall and dolerite outcrops have roosting		
Koppies		High	potential while the vegetation provides foraging		
Shrubland			potential for insectivorous bats.		
Eastern	$Low -$	Moderate	The presence of sandstone and some dolerite		
Upper Karoo	Moderate	- High	outcrops may provide potential roost sites while		
			the variety of plant species and open grasslands		
			can attract a variety of insect species for		
			insectivorous bat species to feed on.		
Karoo	Low	$Low -$	Large flat open areas make for good foraging for		
Escarpment		Moderate	livestock which acts as a lure for different insects		
Grassland			making it a good foraging area for insectivorous		
			bats.		
Tarkastad	Moderate	Moderate	The presence of large boulders and rock		
Montane	-High	- High	overhangs as well as crevices in cliffs could		
Schrubland			provide roost sites.		

Table 1: Potential of the vegetation to serve as suitable roosting and foraging spaces for bats.

5.2 Literature Based Species Probability of Occurrence

"Probability of Occurrence" is assigned based on consideration of the presence of roosting sites and foraging habitats on the site, compared to literature described preferences. The probability of occurrence is described by a percentage indicative of the expected numbers of individuals present on site and the frequency with which the site will be visited by the species (in other words the likelihood of encountering the bat species).

The column of "Likely risk of impact" describes the likelihood of risk of fatality from direct collision or barotrauma with wind turbine blades for each bat species. The risk was assigned by Sowler *et al.* (2016) based on species distributions, altitudes at which they fly and distances they travel; and assumes a 100% probability of occurrence. The ecology of most applicable bat species recorded in the vicinity of the site is discussed below.

Table 2: Table of species that may be roosting or foraging on the study area, the possible site specific roosts, and their probability of occurrence based on literature (Monadjem *et al.* 2010).

5.3 Ecology of bat species that may be largely impacted by the Phezukomoya Wind Power (Pty) Ltd WEF

There are three bat species recorded in the vicinity of the site that occurs commonly in the area due to their probability of occurrence and widespread distribution. These species are of importance based on their likelihood of being impacted by the proposed WEF, which is a combination of abundance and behaviour. The relevant species are discussed below.

Miniopterus natalensis

Miniopterus natalensis, also commonly referred to as the Natal long-fingered bat, occurs widely across the country but mostly within the southern and eastern regions and is listed as Near Threatened (Monadjem *et al*. 2010).

This bat is a cave-dependent species and identification of suitable roosting sites may be more important in determining its presence in an area than the presence of surrounding vegetation. It occurs in large numbers when roosting in caves with approximately 260 000 bats observed making seasonal use of the De Hoop Guano Cave in the Western Cape, South Africa. Culverts and mines have also been observed as roosting sites for either single bats or small colonies. Separate roosting sites are used for winter hibernation activities and summer maternity behaviour, with the winter hibernacula generally occurring at higher altitudes in more temperate areas and the summer hibernacula occurring at lower altitudes in warmer areas of the country (Monadjem *et al*. 2010).

Mating and fertilisation usually occur during March and April and is followed by a period of delayed implantation until July/August. Birth of a single pup usually occurs between October and December as the females congregate at maternity roosts (Monadjem *et al.* 2010 & Van Der Merwe 1979).

The Natal long-fingered bat undertakes short migratory journeys between hibernaculum and maternity roosts. Due to this migratory behaviour, they are considered to be at high risk of fatality from wind turbines if a wind farm is placed within a migratory path (Sowler *et al.* 2016). The mass movement of bats during migratory periods could result in mass casualties if wind turbines are positioned over a mass migratory route and such turbines are not effectively mitigated. Very little is known about the migratory behaviour and paths of *Miniopterus natalensis* in South Africa with migration distances exceeding 150 kilometres. If the site is located within a migratory path the bat detection systems should detect high numbers and activity of the Natal long-fingered bat. A study by Vincent *et al.* (2011) on the activity and foraging habitats of the family Miniopteridae found that the individual home ranges of lactating females were significantly larger than that of pregnant females. It was also found that the bats predominately made use of urban areas (54%) followed by open areas (19.8%), woodlands (15.5%) orchards and parks (9.1%) and water bodies (1.5%) when

selecting habitats. Foraging areas were also investigated with the majority again occurring in urban areas (46%); however a lot of foraging also occurred in woodland areas (22%), crop and vineyard areas (8%), pastures, meadows and scrubland (4%) and water bodies (4%).

Sowler *et al.* (2016) advise that *Miniopterus natalensis* faces a medium to high risk of fatality due to wind turbines. This evaluation was based on broad ecological features and excluded migratory information.

Neoromicia capensis

Neoromicia capensis is commonly called the Cape serotine and has a conservation status of Least Concern as it is found in high numbers and is widespread over much of Sub-Saharan Africa.

High mortality rates of this species due to wind turbines would be a cause of concern as *Neoromicia capensis* is abundant and widespread and as such has a more significant role to play within the local ecosystem than the rarer bat species. They do not undertake migrations and thus are considered residents of the site.

It roosts individually or in small groups of two to three bats in a variety of shelters, such as under the bark of trees, at the base of aloe leaves, and under the roofs of houses. They will use most man-made structures as day roosts which can be found throughout the site and surrounding areas (Monadjem *et al*. 2010).

They are tolerant of a wide range of environmental conditions as they survive and prosper within arid semi-desert areas to montane grasslands, forests, and savannas; indicating that they may occupy several habitat types across the site, and are amenable towards habitat changes. They are however clutter-edge foragers, meaning they prefer to hunt on the edge of vegetation clutter mostly, but can occasionally forage in open spaces. They are described to have a Medium-High likelihood of risk of fatality due to wind turbines (Sowler *et al.* 2016).

Mating takes place from the end of March until the beginning of April. Spermatozoa are stored in the uterine horns of the female from April until August, when ovulation and fertilisation occurs. They give birth to twins during late October and November but single pups, triplets and quadruplets have also been recorded (van der Merwe 1994 & Lynch 1989).

Tadarida aegyptiaca

The Egyptian Free-tailed bat, *Tadarida aegyptiaca*, is a Least Concern species as it has a wide distribution and high abundance throughout South Africa. It occurs from the Western Cape of South Africa, north through to Namibia and southern Angola; and through Zimbabwe to central and northern Mozambique (Monadjem *et al*. 2010). This species is protected by national legislation in South Africa (ACR 2010).

They roost communally in small (dozens) to medium-sized (hundreds) groups in rock crevices, under exfoliating rocks, caves, hollow trees and behind the bark of dead trees. *Tadarida aegyptiaca* has also adapted to roosting in buildings, in particular roofs of houses (Monadjem *et al*. 2010).

The Egyptian Free-tailed bat forages over a wide range of habitats, flying above the vegetation canopy. It appears that the vegetation has little influence on foraging behaviour as the species forages over desert, semi-arid scrub, savannah, grassland and agricultural lands. Its presence is strongly associated with permanent water bodies due to concentrated densities of insect prey (Monadjem *et al*. 2010).

The Egyptian Free-tailed bat is considered to have a High likelihood of risk of fatality by wind turbines (Sowler *et al.* 2016). Due to the high abundance and widespread distribution of this species, high mortality rates by wind turbines would be a cause of concern as these species have more significant ecological roles than the rarer bat species. The sensitivity maps are strongly informed by the areas that may be used by this species.

After a gestation of four months, a single pup is born, usually in November or December, when females give birth once a year. In males, spermatogenesis occurs from February to July and mating occurs in August (Bernard and Tsita 1995). Maternity colonies are apparently established by females in November (Herselman 1980).

Several North American studies indicate the impact of wind turbines to be highest on migratory bats, however there is evidence to the impact on resident species. Fatalities from turbines increase during natural changes in the behaviour of bats leading to increased activity in the vicinity of turbines. Increases in non-migrating bat mortalities around wind turbines in North America corresponded with when bats engage in mating activity (Cryan and Barclay 2009).

5.4 Transects

In general, during transects, bat activity was markedly higher in low lying terrain than on the high-rise turbine areas.

5.4.1 First Site Visit

No transects were carried out over the first site visit, due to equipment installation receiving priority. Transects were carried out over the following site visits, covering all four seasons.

5.4.2 Second Site Visit

The driven transect was done using a Wildlife Acoustics SM2BAT+ detector. The routes were chosen randomly based on the condition of the roads and location at time of sunset.

Four bat species were detected during transects, namely *Eptesicus hottentotus, Miniopterus natalensis, Neoromicia capensis* and *Tadarida aegyptiaca*. Bat activity detected across the site shows quite a large dispersion with concentrated activity occurring in specific areas (**Figure 4**). A concentration of activity was detected in a central to north-west position within the site boundary, along an inclining road summiting a mountain. It is a relatively sheltered valley type habitat.

A large concentration of bat passes, predominantly *Tadarida aegyptiaca,* was detected across the south-west tip of the site boundary. It occurs along a variety of different habitat types of plateaus, sheltered valley areas and the curving contours of the mountains (**Figure 5)**.

5.4.3 Third Site Visit

The driven transect was done using a Wildlife Acoustics SM2BAT+ detector. The routes were chosen randomly based on the condition of the roads and location at time of sunset.

Table 4: Average weather conditions experienced during the driven transects (Weather information taken from www.worldweatheronline.com for Teebus, Northern Cape)

Date	Temperature (°C)	Rain (mm)	Wind (km/h)	Humidity (%)
25 January 2016	24	0.1	13	
26 January 2016	25			
27 January 2016	28			
28 January 2016	24			
29 January 2016				

Figures 6 and 7 display the number of bat passes detected during transects of the third site visit. The passes were mostly clustered around high bat sensitivity features such as man-made buildings. The highly concentrated activity was detected mostly during the first portion of the night around the time of sunset with suitable weather conditions prevailing over the duration of the site visit.

5.4.4 Fourth Site Visit

The driven transect was done using a Wildlife Acoustics SM2BAT+ detector. The routes were chosen randomly based on the condition of the roads and location at time of sunset.

Three bat species were detected during the fourth visits transects, namely *Miniopterus natalensis, Neoromicia capensis* and *Tadarida aegyptiaca*. Bat activity was detected across the northern and eastern areas of the site, with concentrated activity occurring in the central to northern section (**Figure 8 and 9**). The concentrated activity of bats is mostly comprised out of the species *Tadarida aegyptiaca* (**Figure 10**).

5.4.5 Fifth Site Visit

No transects were done during the fifth site visit due to locked gates. This does not influence the results or conclusion of the study significantly, since transects are not quantitive and therefore not used as a primary means of data gathering. It's only used to increase insight into the sight when required.

5.5 Sensitivity Map

Figures 11 - 14 depict the sensitive areas of the site, based on features identified to be important for foraging and roosting of the species that are confirmed and most probable to occur on site. Thus, the sensitivity map is based on species ecology and habitat preferences. This map can be used as a means of additional pre-construction mitigation in terms of improving turbine placement with regards to bat preferred habitats on site.

The areas designated as having a High Bat Sensitivity **(Table 6)** implicates that no turbines should be placed in these areas and their respective buffer zones, due to the elevated impacts it can have on bat mortalities. If turbines are located within the Moderate Bat Sensitivity zone or buffer zone, they must receive special attention and preference for post-construction monitoring and implementation of mitigations during the operational phase (if mitigation is found to be required). **Table 7** indicates that no turbines are found within the sensitivity categories.

Table 6: Description of sensitivity categories utilized in the sensitivity map

Figure 11: Bat sensitivity map of the Phezukomoya Wind Power (Pty) Ltd site.

Table 7: Turbines located in the various sensitivity categories

5.6 Passive Data

5.6.1 Abundances and Composition of Bat Assemblages

Average bat passes detected per bat detector night (nights on which detectors recorded correctly - see **Table 8 - 11** for these time frames) and total number of bat passes detected over the monitoring period by all systems are displayed in **Figures 15 – 22.** Four bat species were detected by the passive monitoring systems, namely, *Eptesicus hottentotus, Miniopterus natalensis, Neoromicia capensis,* and *Tadarida aegyptiaca.*

Tadarida aegyptiaca and *Neoromicia capensis* are the most abundant bat species recorded by all systems. Common and abundant species, such as *Neoromicia capensis, Tadarida aegyptiaca* and *Miniopterus natalensis*, are of a larger value to the local ecosystems as they provide a greater contribution to most ecological services than the rarer species due to their higher numbers.

Miniopterus natalensis is the only migratory species detected on site. The results of the full 12 months have been analysed for the presence of a migratory event. However, no migratory event was detected by the four passive monitoring systems. Thus the results are indicative of the site not being within a migratory route.

Short Mast 2 monitoring systems detected a significantly higher number of bat passes than any of the other monitoring systems on this site **(Figure 17)**. Short Mast 2 indicates that they be situated within higher bat activity and sensitivity habitats. Short Mast 6 detected a comparatively low number of bat passes due to a software issue of the bat detector **(Figure 18).**

The Met Mast West, Short Mast 1 and 2 monitoring systems show the general trend of lowered bat activity over the winter months (July – August 2015), with a large increase in bat passes into the spring (September – November 2015) and summer months (December 2015 – February 2016), followed by a decrease during the autumn months (March – May 2016) into winter 2016 again (**Figures 19 - 21**). Met Mast West showed highest peak activity during the month of October 2015, and again in March 2016. Short Mast 1 also had a peak during October 2015, but due to no data during December 2015 – March 2016 it can't be fully informative. Short Mast 2 showed peaked activity over January 2016. Whereas Short Mast 6 monitoring system only detected bat passes over the month of August 2015 due to software issues on the bat detector **(Figure 22)**.

Table 8: Date ranges over which the monitoring systems were functioning for the first monitoring period

Table 9: Date ranges over which the monitoring systems were functioning for the second monitoring period

Table 10: Date ranges over which the monitoring systems were functioning for the third monitoring period

Table 11: Date ranges over which the monitoring systems were functioning for the fourth monitoring period

Figure 15: Sum of bat passes per species detected by the Met Mast West monitoring system.

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Figure 16: Sum of bat passes per species detected by the Short Mast 1 monitoring system

Figure 17: Sum of bat passes per species detected by the Short Mast 2 monitoring system

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Figure 18: Sum of bat passes per species detected by the Short Mast 6 monitoring system

Figure 19: Average nightly bat passes detected per month by the Met Mast West monitoring system

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Figure 20: Average nightly bat passes detected per month by the Short Mast 1 monitoring system

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Figure 21: Average nightly bat passes detected per month by the Short Mast 2 monitoring system

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Figure 22: Average nightly bat passes detected per month by the Short Mast 6 monitoring system

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5.6.2 Temporal Distribution

The sum of all bat passes recorded by the monitoring systems of the particular species is displayed per night over the entire monitoring period (**Figures 23 - 26**). The peak activity times identified are mostly an amalgamation of the temporal distribution of *Neoromicia capensis* and *Tadarida aegyptiaca* as they were the species detected more often by a substantial margin.

Periods of elevated bat activity as depicted in **Figures 23 - 26** are as follows:

Met Mast West

- Mid-September Mid November 2015
- January 2016
- Mid-February end March 2016

Short Mast 1

Early August 2015 – end March 2016

Short Mast 2

Mid-September 2015 – End April 2016

Figure 23: Temporal distribution of bat passes detected by Met Mast West over the entire monitoring period

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Figure 24: Temporal distribution of bat passes detected by Short Mast 1 over the entire monitoring period

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Figure 25: Temporal distribution of bat passes detected by Short Mast 2 over the entire monitoring period

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Figure 26: Temporal distribution of bat passes detected by Short Mast 6 over the entire monitoring period

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5.6.3 Distribution of bat activity across the night per season

The distribution of bat activity across the night, per season, has been analysed in this section **(Figure 27 - 37)**. The 12-month monitoring period was divided based on generic calendar seasons outlined **Table 12**.

Season	Monitoring period
Winter	1 June -31 August
Spring	1 September - 30 November
Summer	1 December - 28 February
Autumn	1 March -31 May

Table 12: Time frame of each season

The number of bat passes per 10 minute interval over the seasonal monitoring periods were summed to generate the figures of bat activity over the time of night. Higher levels of activity indicate preference for activity over a particular period of the night. These periods were then used to inform mitigation implementation when and where needed.

Once again, peak activity times are mostly an amalgamation of the activity of *Tadarida. aegyptiaca* and *Neoromicia capensis,* especially at 10m height. The figures show that there are seldom cases of other species being highly active in the absence of high activity levels of these two abundant species.

Miniopterus natalensis showed activity during Winter (Short mast 2), Spring (Met Mast, Short mast 1 & 2), and Autumn (Met mast and Short mast 2). Their activity was highest during Autumn, near the Short mast 2 (**Figure 27 - 37**).

Figure 27: Sum of bat passes detected across the night by Met Mast West over the Winter period

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Figure 28: Sum of bat passes detected across the night by Met Mast West over the Spring period

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Figure 29: Sum of bat passes detected across the night by Met Mast West over the Summer period

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Figure 30: Sum of bat passes detected across the night by Met Mast West over the Autumn period

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Figure 31: Sum of bat passes detected across the night by Short Mast 1 over the Winter period

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Figure 32: Sum of bat passes detected across the night by Short Mast 1 over the Spring period

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Figure 33: Sum of bat passes detected across the night by Short Mast 1 over the Autumn period

Figure 34: Sum of bat passes detected across the night by Short Mast 2 over the Winter period

Figure 35: Sum of bat passes detected across the night by Short Mast 2 over the Spring period

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Figure 36: Sum of bat passes detected across the night by Short Mast 2 over the Summer period

Figure 37: Sum of bat passes detected across the night by Short Mast 2 over the Autumn period
5.6.4 Relation between Bat Activity and Weather Conditions

Several sources of literature describe how numerous bat species are influenced by weather conditions. Weather may influence bats in terms of lowering activity, changing time of emergence and flight time. It is also important to note the environmental factors are never isolated and therefore a combination of the environmental factors can have synergistic or otherwise contradictory influences on bat activity. For instance, a combination of high temperatures and low wind speeds will be more favourable to bat activity than low temperatures and low wind speed, whereas low temperature and high wind speed will be the least favourable for bats. Below are short descriptions of how wind speed, temperature and barometric pressure influences bat activity.

Wind speed

Some bat species show reduced activity in windy conditions. Strong winds have been found to suppress flight activity in bats by making flight difficult (O'Farrell *et al.* 1967). Several studies at proposed and operating wind facilities in the United States have documented discernibly lower bat activity during 'high' wind speeds (Arnett *et al*. 2009).

Wind speed and direction also affects availability of insect prey as insects on the wing often accumulate on the lee side of wind breaks such as tree lines (Peng *et al.* 1992). So at edges exposed to wind, flight activity of insects, and thus bats may be suppressed and at edges to the lee side of wind, bat activity may be greater. This relationship is used in the sensitivity map whereby the larger vegetation and man-made structures provide shelter from the wind. However, the turbine localities are situated on the ridges of the site such that they will be in areas exposed to the wind and not protected by vegetation or structure.

Temperature

Flight activity of bats generally increases with temperature. Flights are of shorter duration on cooler nights and extended on warmer nights.

Rachwald (1992) noted that distinct peaks of activity disappeared in warm weather such that activity was mostly continuous through the night. During nights of low temperatures bats intensified foraging shortly after sunset (Corbet and Harris 1991).

Peng (1991) found that many families of aerial dipteran (flies) insects preferred warm conditions for flight. A preference among insects for warm conditions has been reported by many authors suggesting that temperature is an important regulator of bat activity, through its effects on insect prey availability.

The results below present figures of the sum of bat passes that were detected within specific wind speed and temperature categories. However, the distribution of bat activity within each wind speed and temperature range may be biased due to the frequency of occurrence of each wind speed and temperature range. Thus the number of bat passes were 'normalised' wherein the frequency with which each wind speed and temperature range were recorded was taken into account. The 'normalised' sum of bat passes per wind speed and temperature range are presented below. Cumulative percentages of the normalised sum of bat passes per wind speed and temperature ranges are also presented. The lowest wind speed at which 80% of bats were detected (of the normalised sum of bat passes) are used to inform mitigation, if needed.

The aim of this analysis is to determine the wind speed and temperature range within which 80% of bat passes are detected. Ultimately these values of wind speed and temperature will be used to mitigate turbine operation where needed based on conserving 80% of detected bat passes, keeping in mind the synergistic or otherwise contradictory effects that the combination of wind speeds and temperatures can have on bat activity.

Time periods used in the analysis below for each monitoring system were identified in Sections 4.6.2 and 4.6.3 as periods of elevated activity. The analysis was only performed for time frames of the highest activity levels. The time periods used in the analysis below corresponds with the time periods and systems used to inform mitigation in Section 6:

Figure 38: Sum of bat passes (Non-normalised) per Temperature category for Phezukomoya Met mast (1 – 31 Oct 2015).

Figure 39: Sum of bat passes (Normalised) per Temperature category for Phezukomoya Met mast (1 – 31 Oct 2015).

Figure 41: Sum of bat passes (Non-normalised) per Wind Speed category for Phezukomoya Met mast (1 – 31 Oct 2015).

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Figure 44: Sum of bat passes (Non-normalised) per Temperature category for Phezukomoya met mast (15 Feb – 31 March).

Figure 45: Sum of bat passes (Normalised) per Temperature category for Phezukomoya met mast (15 Feb – 31 March).

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Figure 47: Sum of bat passes (Non-normalised) per Wind Speed category for Phezukomoya met mast (15 Feb – 31 March).

Figure 48: Sum of bat passes (Normalised) per Wind Speed category for Phezukomoya met mast (15 Feb – 31 March).

Figure 49: Cumulative percentage of normalised and non-normalised bat passes per Wind Speed category for Phezukomoya met mast (15 Feb – 31 March 2016).

6 IMPACT ASSESSMENT OF PROPOSED WEF ON BAT FAUNA

6.1 Construction phase

6.1.1 Impact: Destruction of bat roosts due to earthworks and blasting

Impact Description: Destruction of bat roosts due to earthworks and blasting. During construction, the earthworks and especially blasting can damage bat roosts in rock crevices. Intense blasting close to a rock crevice roost, if applicable, can cause mortality to the inhabitants of the roost.

Mitigation measures to reduce residual risk or enhance opportunities:

Adhere to the sensitivity map during turbine placement. Blasting should be minimised and used only when necessary.

6.1.2 Impact: Loss of foraging habitat

Impact Description: Loss of foraging habitat. Some minimal foraging habitat will be permanently lost by construction of turbines and access roads. Temporary foraging habitat loss will occur during construction due to storage areas and movement of heavy vehicles.

Adhere to the sensitivity map. Keep to designated areas when storing building materials, resources, turbine components and/or construction vehicles and keep to designated roads with all construction vehicles. Damaged areas not required after construction should be rehabilitated by an experienced vegetation succession specialist.

6.2 Operational phase

Impact Phase: Operational phase

6.2.1 Impact: Bat mortalities due to direct blade impact or barotrauma during foraging activities (not migration)

Mitigation measures to reduce residual risk or enhance opportunities:

Adhere to the sensitivity maps, avoid areas of high bat sensitivity and their buffers as well as preferably avoid areas of Moderate bat sensitivity and their buffers. Adhere to operational mitigation measures that may be deemed necessary during the operational monitoring assessment, if any is required.

6.2.2 Impact: Artificial lighting

Impact Phase: Operational phase

Impact Description: During operation strong artificial lights that may be used at the turbine base or immediate surrounding infrastructure will attract insects and thereby also bats. This will significantly increase the likelihood of impact on bats foraging around such lights. Additionally, only certain species of bats will readily forage around strong lights, whereas others avoid such lights even if there are insect prey available, which can draw insect prey away from other natural areas and thereby artificially favour only certain species.

Mitigation measures to reduce residual risk or enhance opportunities:

If possible, utilise lights with wavelengths that attract less insects (low thermal/infrared signature). Lights should be switched off when not in use or equipped with passive motion sensors.

6.3 Decommissioning phase

No significant impacts have been identified for the decommissioning phase.

7 PROPOSED INITIAL MITIGATION MEASURES AND DETAILS

The correct placement of wind farms and of individual turbines can significantly lessen the impacts on bat fauna in an area, and should be considered as the preferred initial layer for mitigation.

Additional to mitigation by location, other options that may be utilized include curtailment, blade feathering, blade lock, acoustic deterrents or light lures. The following terminology applies:

Where mitigation by location is not possible, other options that may be utilized include curtailment, blade feathering, blade lock, acoustic deterrents or light lures. The following terminology applies:

Curtailment:

Curtailment is defined as the act of limiting the supply of electricity to the grid during conditions when it would normally be supplied. This is usually accomplished by locking or feathering the turbine blades.

Cut-in speed:

The cut-in speed is the wind speed at which the generator is connected to the grid and producing electricity. For some turbines, their blades will spin at full or partial RPMs below cut-in speed when no electricity is being produced.

Feathering or Feathered:

Adjusting the angle of the rotor blade parallel to the wind, or turning the whole unit out of the wind, to slow or stop blade rotation. Normally operating turbine blades are angled almost perpendicular to the wind at all times.

Free-wheeling:

Free-wheeling occurs when the blades are allowed to rotate below the cut-in speed or even when fully feathered and parallel to the wind. In contrast, blades can be "locked" and cannot rotate, which is a mandatory situation when turbines are being accessed by operations personnel.

Increasing cut-in speed:

The turbine's computer system (referred to as the Supervisory Control and Data Acquisitions or SCADA system) is programmed to a cut-in speed higher than the manufacturer's set speed, and turbines are programmed to be feathered at 90° until the increased cut-in speed is reached over some average number of minutes (usually $5 - 10$ min), thus triggering the turbine blades to pitch back "into the wind" and begin to spin normally and produce power.

Blade locking or feathering that renders blades motionless below the manufacturers cut in speed, and don't allow free rotation without the gearbox engaged, is more desirable for the conservation of bats than allowing free rotation below the manufacturer's cut in speed. This is because bats can still collide with rotating blades even when no electricity is being produced.

Acoustic deterrents:

Are a developing technology and will need further investigation closer to time of wind farm operation, opportunities to test such devices may be available during operation of the facility.

Light lures:

Refers to the concept where strong lights are placed on the periphery (or only a few sides) of the wind farm to lure insects and therefore bats away from the turbines. However, the long term effects on bat populations and local ecology of this method is unknown.

Habitat modification:

With the aim of augmenting bat habitat around the wind farm in an effort to lure bats away from turbines, is not recommended. Such a method can be adversely intrusive on other fauna and flora and the ecology of the areas being modified. Additionally it is unknown whether such a method may actually increase the bat numbers of the broader area, causing them to move into the wind farm site due to resource pressure.

Currently the most effective method of mitigation, after correct turbine placement, is alteration of blade speeds and cut-in speeds under environmental conditions favourable to bats.

A basic "6 levels of mitigation" (by blade manipulation or curtailment), from light to aggressive mitigation is structured as follows:

- 1. No curtailment (free-wheeling is unhindered below manufacturer's cut in speed so all momentum is retained, thus normal operation).
- 2. Partial feathering (45 degree angle) of blades below manufacturer's cut-in speed in order to allow the free-wheeling blades half the speed it would have had without feathering (some momentum is retained below the cut in speed).
- 3. Ninety degree feathering of blades below manufacturer's cut-in speed so it is exactly parallel to the wind direction as to minimize free-wheeling blade rotation as much as possible without locking the blades.
- 4. Ninety degree feathering of blades below manufacturer's cut-in speed, with partial feathering (45 degree angle) between the manufacturer's cut-in speed and mitigation cut-in conditions.
- 5. Ninety degree feathering of blades below mitigation cut in conditions.
- 6. Ninety degree feathering throughout the entire night.

It is recommended that curtailment be applied from the start of operation at Level 3 on all turbines for every night of the year from dusk until dawn.

Should robust and scientifically defendable data gathered during the operational study phase reveal higher bat mortalities than currently anticipated, the mitigations in **Table 13** should be applied to the turbines identified as causing the highest impacts. Such curtailment specified in **Table 13** will have to be at a maximum of Level 5. The turbine layout avoids all High and Moderate bat sensitivities and their buffers.

The **Table 13** below is based on the passive data collected. They infer mitigation be applied (only when needed as described above) during the peak activity periods and times, and when the advised wind speed and temperature ranges are prevailing simultaneously, considering conditions in which 80% of bat activity occurred (normalised data). Bat activity at 50m height were used, with wind speed data at 50 m and temperature data at 37.5 m.

	Terms of mitigation implementation
Peak activity (times to implement curtailment/ mitigation)	1 - 31 October; sunset $-$ 00:00 (midnight)

Table 13: The periods and weather conditions for implementation of mitigation

8 CUMULATIVE IMPACT ASSESSMENT

Several renewable energy development applications have been submitted and/or authorized within the immediate area of the proposed Phezukomoya WEF. **Figure 50** below displays these areas. The impact of the Phezukomoya wind energy facility was assessed in **Section 5** above; this section assesses the cumulative impact of all renewable energy developments within the area. The bat sensitivity assessment reports were obtained for the neighbouring wind energy developments, namely Noupoort WEF, San Kraal WEF and Umsobomvu WEF.

Figure 50: Proposed and approved renewable energy developments in a 35km radius of the Phezokomoya WEF site.

8.1 Bat Sensitivity Map

Figure 51 below displays bat sensitivity maps of the wind farms neighbouring the Phezukomoya WEF (namely Noupoort WEF, San Kraal WEF and Umsobomvu WEF). The bat sensitivity maps were inspected for congruency of sensitive areas and similarities in their buffer distances. The sensitivity map of the Phezukomoya WEF is sufficient when assessed with neighbouring site sensitivity maps.

The sensitivity maps were also used to assess whether the Phezukomoya WEF turbine layout intersects interlinking bat sensitivity habitats between the different sites i.e. valley areas, rivers and streams, mountain ridges. The topography and habitats across the larger area generally provide a lot of roosting opportunities for insectivorous bats. However, the sensitivity maps for all sites are stringent and thorough such that all bat important features are protected and buffered. The Phezukomoya WEF turbine layout does not traverse large scale ecological corridors or ecological areas of connectivity. Thus, the existing bat sensitivity map is sufficient in this regard.

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8.2 Cumulative Impact Assessment Rating

The main impact on bats that raises concern from a cumulative impact assessment point of view is the bat mortalities due to direct turbine blade collision or barotrauma during operation. There is potential for mass loss of locally active bats and migratory bats from the area due to cumulative mortality from wind turbines of several neighbouring wind farms. This impact is assessed below:

Impact Phase: Operational phase

Impact Description: Cumulative bat mortalities due to direct blade collision or barotrauma during foraging – cumulative impact (resident and migrating bats affected). Mortalities of bats due to wind turbines during foraging and migration can have significant ecological consequences as the bat species at risk are insectivorous and thereby contribute significantly to the control of nocturnal flying insects. On a wind farm specific level insect numbers in a certain habitat can increase if significant numbers of bats are killed off. But if such an impact is present on multiple wind farms in close vicinity of each other, insect numbers can increase regionally and possibly cause outbreaks of colonies of certain insect species.

If large numbers of a population of a resident species are lost to this impact, it will most likely lead to destabilization of the species population and ultimately possible extinction from the area.

If migrating bats are killed off it can have detrimental effects on the ecology of the caves that the specific colonies utilise. This is since bat guano is the primary form of energy input into a cave ecosystem, and no sunshine which is needed for photosynthesis exists in cave ecosystems.

Mitigation measures to reduce residual risk or enhance opportunities:

The high sensitivity valley areas can serve as commuting corridors for bats in the larger area, potentially lowering the cumulative effects of several WEF's in an area if the valley areas are avoided during turbine placement and are well buffered. Also, adhere to recommended mitigation measures for this project during the operational phase study, and it is essential that project specific mitigations be applied and adhered to for each project. Adhere to the sensitivity map during any further turbine layout revisions, and avoid placement of turbines in bat sensitive areas and their buffers.

8.1 Mitigation Measures

The final pre-construction bat monitoring reports of Noupoort WEF, Umsomovu WEF and San Kraal WEF identify peak bat activity periods that align with those identified in this report for the Phezukomoya WEF.

The identified high bat activity periods are:

- Noupoort WEF October to February
- Umsobomvu WEF Late October to mid-January, month of February, and mid-March to early April
- San Kraal WEF 1 October to 15 November and 15 February to 31 March

At the proposed Phezukomoya WEF it is recommended that curtailment be applied from the start of operation at Level 3 (see Section 7) on all turbines for every night of the year from dusk until dawn.

Should robust and scientifically defendable data gathered during the operational study phase reveal higher bat mortalities than currently anticipated, the mitigations in **Table 14** should be applied to the turbines identified as causing the highest impacts. Such curtailment specified in **Table 14** will have to be at a maximum of Level 5. The turbine layout avoids all High and Moderate bat sensitivities and their buffers.

The **Table 14** below is based on the passive data collected. They infer mitigation be applied (only when needed as described above) during the peak activity periods and times, and when the advised wind speed and temperature ranges are prevailing simultaneously, considering conditions in which 80% of bat activity occurred (normalised data). Bat activity at 50m height were used, with wind speed data at 50 m and temperature data at 37.5 m.

Table 13: The periods and weather conditions for implementation of mitigation

9 CONCLUSION

Monitoring of bats took place over the period form 6 July 2015 to 3 September 2016.Four bat species were detected by the passive monitoring systems, namely, *Eptesicus hottentotus, Miniopterus natalensis, Neoromicia capensis,* and *Tadarida aegyptiaca. Tadarida aegyptiaca* and *Neoromicia capensis* are the most abundant bat species recorded by all systems. *Miniopterus natalensis* is the only migratory species detected on site. The results of the full 12 months have been analysed for the presence of a migratory event, and no migratory event was detected by the passive monitoring systems.

The Short Mast 2 monitoring system detected a significantly higher number of bat passes than any of the other monitoring systems on this site **(Figure 17)**.

The Met Mast West, Short Mast 1 and 2 monitoring systems show the general trend of lowered bat activity over the winter months (July – August 2015), with a large increase in bat passes into the spring (September – November 2015) and summer months (December 2015 – February 2016), followed by a decrease during the autumn months (March – May 2016) into winter 2016 again (**Figures 19 - 21**). Met Mast West showed the highest peak activity during the month of October 2015, and again in March 2016. Short Mast 2 showed peaked activity over January 2016.

The guidelines request measurements at standard heights to cater for change in turbine dimensions later on and also make data sets across sites comparable. It is possible that increased turbine dimensions would increase potential impacts to bats, however based on the pre-construction monitoring data the specialist has no objection to the proposed hub height and rotor diameter, as assessed.

A sensitivity map was drawn up indicating potential roosting and foraging habitat (**Figures 11 - 14**). The Moderate bat sensitivity areas and associated buffer zones must be prioritised during operational monitoring and preferably be avoided during turbine placement. The High Bat Sensitivity areas are expected to have elevated levels of bat activity and support greater bat diversity. High Bat Sensitivity areas and their buffers are 'no $-$ go' areas due to the expected elevated rates of bat fatalities due to wind turbines. No turbines are allowed to be placed in High Bat Sensitivity areas and their associated buffers. The Final Mitigated Layout avoids all High and Moderate bat sensitivities and their buffers, and is therefore acceptable. The proposed grid connection was not assessed during the study, as according to the best knowledge of the specialist, grid infrastructure does not pose a significant threat to bat conservation in South Africa if the site is not located in an area abundant with bat caves.

It is recommended that curtailment be applied from the start of operation at Level 3 (see Section 7) on all turbines for every night of the year from dusk until dawn.

Should robust and scientifically defendable data gathered during the operational study phase reveal higher bat mortalities than currently anticipated, the mitigations in **Table 13** should be applied to the turbines identified as causing the highest impacts. Such curtailment specified in **Table 13** will have to be at a maximum of Level 5.

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environmental affairs

Department: Environmental Affairs REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DETAILS OF SPECIALIST AND DECLARATION OF INTEREST

File Reference Number: NEAS Reference Number: Date Received:

Application for integrated environmental authorisation and waste management licence in terms

- (1) National Environmental Management Act, 1998 (Act No. 107 of 1998), as amended and
the Environmental Impact Assessment Regulations, 2014; and
- (2) National Environmental Management Act: Waste Act, 2008 (Act No. 59 of 2008) and Government Notice 921, 2013

PROJECT TITLE

The Proposed 315 MW Phezukomoya Wind Energy Facility and associated 132 kV Grid Connection Transmission Line, Northern and Eastern Cape Province.. DEA Ref: 14/12/16/3/3/2/1028

4.2 The specialist appointed in terms of the Regulations

l, Werner Marais - declare that --

General declaration:

I act as the independent specialist in this application;

I will perform the work relating to the application in an objective manner, even if this results in views and findings that are not favourable to the applicant;

I declare that there are no circumstances that may compromise my objectivity in performing such work:

I have expertise in conducting the specialist report relevant to this application, including knowledge of the Act, Regulations and any guidelines that have relevance to the proposed activity;

^Iwill comply with the Act, Regulations and allother applicable legislation;

I have no, and will not engage in, conflicting interests in the undertaking of the activity;

I undertake to disclose to the applicant and the competent authority all material information in my possession that reasonably has or may have the potential of influencing - any decision to be taken with respect to the application by the competent authority; and - the objectivity of any report, plan or document to be prepared by myself for submission to the competent authority;

all the particulars furnished by me in this form are true and correct; and

I realise that a false declaration is an offence in terms of regulation 48 and is punishable in terms of section 24F of the Act.

Signature of the spec

Animalia Consultants (Pty) Ltd Name of company (if applicable):

17 October 2017 Date: