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observed northeast-southwest trend of principal stress in the mid-plate stress province of the central and eastern United States (CEUS) dominantly reflects ridge-push body forces associated with the mid-Atlantic Ridge. They estimated the magnitude of these forces to be approximately 2×10^{12} to 3×10^{12} N/m (Newton/meter), or 2.9 to 4.4×10 pounds per square inch (psi), (i.e., the total vertically integrated force acting on a column of lithosphere 3.28 feet wide), which corresponds to average equivalent stresses of approximately 40 to 60 MPa (megaPascals), or 5800 to 8700 psi, distributed across a 30-mile (~48-kilometer) thick elastic plate. Humphreys and Coblenz (Reference 647) evaluated the contribution of shear tractions on the base of the North American lithosphere to intra-continental stress and conclude that the dominant control on the northeast-southwest orientation of the maximum compressive principal stress in the CEUS is ridge-push force from the Atlantic Ocean Basin.

Research on the state of stress in the continental United States since publication of the EPRI (Reference 456) studies confirms observations that stress in the CEUS is characterized by relatively uniform northeast-southwest compression. Few new data have been reported since the EPRI (Reference 456) study that better determine the orientations and relative magnitudes of the principal stresses in the site region. Given that the current interpretation of the orientation of principal stress is similar to that adopted in EPRI (Reference 456) a reevaluation of the seismic potential of tectonic features based on a favorable or unfavorable orientation to the stress field would yield similar results. Thus, there is no significant change in the understanding of the static stress in the site region and site area since the publication of the EPRI source models in 1986, and there are no significant implications for existing characterizations of potential activity of tectonic structures. The mid-plate stress province is the most likely characterization of the tectonic stress at the site region and site area (Figure 2.5.1-330).

Contemporary Stress Regime in the North America-Caribbean Plate Boundary Region

The Caribbean Plate is presently moving relative to the North America Plate at a rate of approximately 18 to 20 millimeters/year along an azimuth of roughly 075° (References 502, 635, and 636). In the Cuba and Caribbean-North America Plate boundary region, the relative plate motion is accommodated by the mid-Cayman spreading center and several subvertical, left-lateral transform faults extending from offshore of the northern coast of Honduras eastward through the Cayman Trough and through the islands of Jamaica and Hispaniola. The Cayman spreading center itself is located southwest of the Cayman Islands and is

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characterized by a north-south-trending axis of spreading with an average rate of approximately 15 millimeters/year since approximately 25 to 30 Ma (Reference 222). West of the Cayman Trough, Caribbean-North America Plate motion is accommodated offshore on the left-lateral Swan Islands fault (Figure 2.5.1-202). East of the Cayman Trough, on Hispaniola, the orientation of the plate-bounding structures changes and motion is partitioned between strike-slip faults (e.g., Septentrional and Enriquillo faults), minor oblique-reverse faults, and subduction on low-angle thrust faults (e.g., Northern Hispaniola thrust fault) (References 637, 638, and 639). East of Hispaniola, the Caribbean-North America Plate boundary becomes an oblique subduction zone or zones at the Puerto Rico Trench and Muertos Trough, and finally a more pure dip-slip west-dipping subduction zone in the Lesser Antilles. At the longitude of Puerto Rico, south-dipping subduction of North American crust at the Puerto Rico Trench and north-dipping subduction of Caribbean crust at the Muertos Trough accommodate relative plate motion with a highly oblique sense of shear (Figure 2.5.2-214).

Hypocenters and focal mechanisms of historical earthquakes provide information on fault geometry, crustal thickness, and fault kinematics throughout the Cuba and northern North America-Caribbean Plate boundary region. The kinematics of crustal deformation and faulting in Cuba are poorly understood. Geodetic data show that the current plate boundary is mostly south of Cuba along the Oriente and Enriquillo-Plantain Garden faults and that modern deformation rates across Cuba are likely <0.1 inch (3 millimeters) per year relative to North America (References 502 and 503). The Cayman Trough and western Hispaniola are characterized by shallow (crustal) seismicity with most focal mechanisms consistent with left-lateral strike-slip on east-west striking vertical faults (References 560, 632, and 640). Shallow seismicity in Jamaica is associated with strike-slip, oblique, and reverse focal mechanisms accommodating left-lateral shear across east-west and west-northwest-striking faults (Reference 503). Seismicity along the Oriente fault changes along strike south of Cuba as focal mechanisms show strike-slip and oblique-normal movement near the Cabo Cruz Basin and strike-slip to north-dipping reverse motion trends associated with the Santiago deformed belt (Reference 504). Shallow- to intermediate-depth seismicity defines south-dipping planes associated with the Northern Hispaniola fault and Puerto Rico Trench, with shallow focal mechanisms consistent with underthrusting of North American crust beneath the Caribbean on gently dipping planes (Reference 591). A north-dipping zone of seismicity from shallow to intermediate crustal depths is associated with the Muertos Trough (Reference 591).

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2.5.1.1.5 Tsunami Geologic Hazard Assessment

This subsection provides geologic support for discussions in [Subsection 2.4.6](#), Probable Maximum Tsunami Hazards. An extensive review of available scientific literature produced no positive evidence for Quaternary seismically induced or landslide-generated tsunami deposits within the 200-mile radius of the Units 6 & 7 site region. The literature does provide sedimentary evidence for Pliocene to Recent submarine mass movements on the Florida-Hatteras shelf and elsewhere in the western Atlantic (e.g., [References 315, 316, 317, and 318](#)). Literature also provides sedimentary evidence for Neogene and older submarine mass movements in the Florida Straits, the Bahama Platform, the northern coast of Cuba, the southeastern Gulf of Mexico, and the Yucatan Basin ([References 422, 476, 727, 738, 740, and 742](#)). Extensive geologic and historic literature is available documenting tsunami events and submarine mass movement in the Caribbean Basin (e.g., [References 582, 681, 737, 738, and 739](#)). The sedimentary and historic observation records that support a tsunami geologic hazard assessment are discussed in the following subsection.

According to Tappin ([Reference 729](#)), all forms of submarine mass movements are potentially tsunamigenic, yet there is a paucity of data relating submarine failures to tsunami generation and the physics of the process is still not well understood. Extensive retreat of the escarpments defining the edges of the Yucatan and Bahama carbonate platforms have been proposed by numerous researchers (e.g., [References 305, 308, 794, and 726](#)). However, the relevance of the processes of carbonate platform retreat to the Turkey Point site cannot be established because no stratigraphic evidence has been found to link escarpment retreat to any tsunami-like events along the southern coast of Florida. Wide-spread evidence for Miocene gravity flows in channels and troughs of the Bahama Platform has been documented (e.g., [References 422, 727, and 728](#)). Again, the relevance of seismically-induced Miocene gravity flows to the Turkey Point site region has not been established because no stratigraphic evidence has been found to link gravity flow deposits on the Bahama Platform to any tsunami-like events along the southern coast of Florida. Submarine landslides and the associated volumes of displaced seawater, whether triggered by a seismic event or another type of event (e.g., meteorite, volcanic activity, gravitation loading, or gas hydrate decomposition) are the likely cause of most Caribbean tsunamis and resulting tsunami deposits. The scientific literature does not address a means of discriminating between seismically-induced tsunami deposits and non-seismic tsunami deposits, even when there is a close relationship in time between a seismic event and a tsunami. The following describes the known

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characteristics of tsunami deposits, how they would be distinguished from hurricane deposits, and identifies possible locations conducive to deposition and preservation of tsunami deposits in the Turkey Point site region.

Tuttle et al. (Reference 889) distinguish tsunami from storm surge deposits, based on a comparison of deposits from the 1929 Grand Banks tsunami and the 1991 Halloween storm. The 1929 Grand Banks tsunami was caused by an earthquake-generated landslide that left chaotic deposits on the Burin Peninsula of Newfoundland. The Halloween storm caused sand and pebble overwash of barrier beaches and seawalls, and extensive damage along the New England coast, including Martha's Vineyard off the southern coast of Massachusetts. By 2004, researchers also had closely examined the character and extent of tsunami deposits generated by the 1755 Lisbon earthquake and the 1960 Chilean earthquake. As noted by Tuttle et al. (Reference 889), the challenge of discriminating between the two types of deposits was that both tsunami and storm surge processes result in the onshore transport and re-deposition of sediments. Tuttle et al. (Reference 889) conclude that four discriminators (included verbatim below) could be used to distinguish between tsunami and storm deposits:

1. Tsunami deposits exhibit sedimentary characteristics consistent with landward transport and deposition of sediment by only a few energetic surges, under turbulent and/or laminar flow conditions, over a period of minutes to hours; whereas characteristics of storm deposits are consistent with landward transport and deposition of sediment by many more, less energetic surges, under primarily laminar flow conditions, during a period of hours to days.
2. Both tsunami and storm deposits contain mixtures of diatoms indicative of an offshore or bayward source, but tsunami deposits are more likely to contain broken valves and benthic marine diatoms.
3. Biostratigraphic assemblages of sections in which tsunami deposits occur are likely to indicate abrupt and long-lasting changes to the ecosystem coincident with tsunami inundations.
4. Tsunami deposits occur in landscape positions, including landward of tidal ponds, that are not expected for storm deposits.

Similarly, Morton et al. (Reference 890) characterize the distinction between tsunami and storm deposits as being related to differences in the hydrodynamics and sediment-sorting processes during transport. Tsunami deposition results from

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a few high-velocity, long-period waves that entrain sediment from the shoreface, beach, and landward erosion zone. Tsunamis can have flow depths greater than 10 meters (33 feet), transport sediment primarily in suspension, and distribute the load over a broad region where sediment falls out of suspension when flow decelerates. In contrast, storm inundation generally is gradual and prolonged, consisting of many waves that erode beaches and dunes with no significant overland return flow until after the main flooding. Storm flow depths are commonly <3 meters (9.8 feet), sediment is transported primarily as bed load by traction, and the load is deposited within a zone relatively close to the beach (Reference 890). A schematic of typical tsunami and storm deposits is shown in Figure 2.5.1-348.

As noted by Dawson and Stewart (Reference 891), hurricane deposits are quite different from tsunami deposits. For example, Scoffin and Hendry (Reference 892) use coral rubble stratigraphy on Jamaican reefs to identify past hurricane activity, while Perry (Reference 893) use storm-induced coral rubble in reef facies from Barbados to identify episodes of past hurricane activity. Similarly, in coastal Alabama, a series of hurricanes during historical time resulted in the deposition of multiple sand layers in low-lying coastal wetlands, but never as extensive as tsunami sediment sheets. By contrast, the overwash fans along the New England coastline used by Donnelly et al. (Reference 894) to reconstruct a 700-year record of hurricane activity have analogues with similar tsunami deposited fans (References 895, 896, and 897).

A literature review indicates that storm surges result in the deposition of discontinuous sedimentary units and that tsunamis, in contrast to storm surges, generally result in deposition of sediment sheets, often continuous over relatively wide areas (Figure 2.5.1-348). The tsunami units are also deposited a considerable distances inland. For example, sediment sheets produced by the 1755 tsunami in Algarve, Portugal occur in excess of 1 kilometer (0.6 mile) inland (Reference 898).

Part of the difficulty in understanding the characteristics of tsunami deposits is due to a lack of knowledge of offshore hydraulics and sediment dynamics during modern tsunami events. Whereas the majority of the literature concerned with tsunami sedimentation has focused attention on the coastal zone, relatively little attention has been given to tsunami depositional processes both in the near-shore and offshore (Reference 891). This is because tsunami sediments are readily identifiable and easy to study along coastlines. But each incoming tsunami wave is associated with strong backwash flow from the coast into the sea. This highlights the strong possibility that sediments picked up by tsunamis may also drape the sea floor, a consequence of the cumulative depositional effect of each

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backwash flow associated with the train of tsunami waves ([Reference 899](#)). During this phase, pulses of tsunami backwash may generate turbidity currents that move seaward towards the abyssal zone via submarine gullies and canyons ([Reference 900](#)).

Current tsunami research is focused on identifying potential onshore and offshore tsunami deposits as well as discriminating between types of tsunami deposits. Onshore deposits from submarine landslide-generated tsunamis probably could not be discriminated from earthquake-generated tsunamis except by careful radiometric age correlations between causative events, such as has been done with the pre-historic Storegga landslide ([Reference 901](#)). Clearly, bolide impact deposits are often associated with inclusion of impact ejecta (impact debris), including shocked minerals and impact spherules, depending on the proximity of the impact site to the deposits ([References 320, 902, and 903](#)). Volcanic collapse-generated tsunami deposits generally include a significant component of airfall tephra ([Reference 731](#)).

The boring logs from the subsurface investigations of the Units 6 & 7 site are described in detail in [Subsection 2.5.1.2](#). The logs indicate that geologic conditions are uniform across the site ([Figures 2.5.1-231 and 2.5.1-232](#)) and show no evidence of interruption by a tsunami-like event. Furthermore, the results of geophysical surveys conducted to assess the potential for karst formation in the Power Block areas ([Subsection 2.5.4.4.5](#)) show no evidence of sinkholes that could have served as a sedimentary basin to preserve tsunami or major storm surge deposits. The site exploration data do not indicate the presence of erosional channels that are filled with poorly sorted siliciclastics containing exotic fragments or coral rubble that might have been deposited by paleo-tsunamis or topographically high areas with potential paleotsunami overwash deposits ([Figure 2.5.1-348](#)).

Recognizing tsunami deposits from drill core is especially difficult because some of the discriminators between tsunami and storm deposits are based on areal continuity of erosional and depositional horizons. The sampling done as part of the subsurface investigations at the Turkey Point site encountered about 1 meter (3 feet) of organic muck overlying Pleistocene and older carbonate strata (see [Subsection 2.5.1.2.2](#)). No nearby siliciclastic-filled sedimentary basins were identified in the site area.

The following describes available evidence for potential landslide tsunami sources along the southeastern Atlantic margin of North America, the western edge of the Florida Escarpment, the eastern edge of the Blake Plateau, the eastern edge of

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the Bahama Platform, across the Straits of Florida, and along the northern coast of Cuba. The most likely source for an earthquake-generated tsunami that is close enough to possibly affect the Units 6 & 7 site is the Puerto Rico Trench. Modeling of that source is discussed later in this subsection.

Potential Central or Western Atlantic Tsunami Sources

In the early 2000s, several professional publications ([References 730 and 731](#)) predicted the effects of a mega-tsunami caused by underwater volcanic edifice collapse in the Canary Islands. As a result, U.S. and Caribbean scientists began reexamining physiographic evidence for large, undersea landslides in the detailed topographic data from the GLORIA side-scan imagery and other remote sensing data and submersible observations within the U.S. Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) and in the greater Caribbean region ([Reference 732](#)).

As noted in [Subsection 2.5.1.1](#), megasedimentary events are recognized throughout the world's ocean basins. Pilkey ([Reference 315](#)) identifies a "megaturbidite" that he calls the Black Shell Turbidite in the Hatteras Abyssal Plain, north of the Blake Plateau. A "megaturbidite" is an underwater landslide that moves great volumes of sedimentary material downslope, in the process displacing large volumes of water and likely causing a tsunami at the water surface. The Black Shell Turbidite is at least 100 kilometers³ (24 miles³) in volume and perhaps double that. Based on radiocarbon dates of the youngest shell fragments incorporated by the megaturbidite, the event occurred about 16,900 years ago ([Reference 316](#)). According to Pilkey ([Reference 315](#)), major events such as the occurrence of the Black Shell Turbidite should not be assumed to be restricted to times of lowered sea level. The 1929 Grand Banks submarine landslide ([Reference 317](#)) may have involved as much as 400 kilometers³ (96 miles³) of material. This slump resulted in a turbidity current that traveled 500 kilometers (311 miles) to the Sohm Abyssal Plain, but the full areal extent of the resulting turbidite is unknown ([Reference 315](#)). The tsunami waves associated with the Grand Banks landslide had amplitudes of 3 to 8 meters (10 to 26 feet) and run-up of up to 13 meters (43 feet) along the Burin Peninsula, Newfoundland. Waves crossing the Atlantic Ocean were recorded on the coasts of Portugal and the Azores and visually observed along the coasts of Canada and in Bermuda, and recorded on tidal gauges as far south as Charleston, South Carolina ([Reference 318](#)).

The role that salt diapirism and methane gas hydrate decomposition may play in landslide potential near the Blake Ridge is discussed in some detail in [Subsection 2.5.1.1.1.1.3](#).

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Contrary to widely held views based on studies of ancient rocks, basin plains are not necessarily distal portions of fans dominated by thin and relatively fine sediments (Reference 734). On the contrary, basin plains such as the Hatteras and Sohm Abyssal Plains are distinguished by the thickest and coarsest sands of any off-shelf sedimentary environments (Reference 315). This finding suggests that these large turbidite deposits are relatively common and capable of moving significant quantities of near-shore materials (coarse sands) across the continental shelf and slope and far onto the abyssal plain. According to Fine et al. (Reference 318), the Grand Banks landslide carried mud and sand eastward up to 1000 kilometers (620 miles) at estimated speeds of 60 to 100 kilometers/hour (37 to 62 miles/hour).

Based on data in the National Geophysical Data Center (NGDC) database, during the past 200 years a total of six tsunamis have been recorded in the Gulf of Mexico and East Coast States (Reference 735). Three of these tsunamis were generated in the Caribbean, two were related to magnitude 7+ earthquakes along the Atlantic coastline, and one reported tsunami in the Mid-Atlantic states may be related to an underwater explosion or landslide. In the NGDC database, as of June 2010, there are five documented run-up events listed for the Florida Peninsula. The run-up events are listed in the Table 2.5.1-207. The NGDC database does not include the 1946 Dominican Republic tsunami with a possible run-up of 10 feet (3 meters) at Daytona Beach, Florida, because the exact measure of the tidal gage run-up at that location cannot be verified from the original cited reference (Reference 736).

Potential Puerto Rico Trench Tsunami Sources

The Puerto Rico Trench is the deepest part of the Atlantic Ocean, with water depths exceeding 8400 meters (27,600 feet) (Reference 582). Large landslide escarpments have been mapped on the seafloor north of Puerto Rico although their ages are unknown. Seismic stratigraphy of the landslide slopes appears to indicate that massive carbonate blocks slide coherently. The failure of coherent blocks on a steep slope appears to cause the high tsunami run-up associated with Puerto Rican tsunamis (Reference 582).

The October 11, 1918, M_w 7.2 (see Subsection 2.5.2.1) earthquake in the Mona Passage between Hispaniola and Puerto Rico generated a local tsunami along the western coast of Puerto Rico that claimed approximately 140 lives (References 681, 737, 738, and 739). A tsunami with run-up heights reaching 6 meters (20 feet) followed the earthquake causing extensive damage along the western and northern coasts of Puerto Rico, especially to those villages

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established in a flood plain (Reference 739). High-resolution bathymetry and seismic reflection lines in the Mona Passage show a fresh submarine landslide 15 kilometers (9 miles) northwest of Rinçon in northwestern Puerto Rico and in the vicinity of the first published earthquake epicenter. The landslide area is approximately 76,000 meters² (830,000 feet²) and probably displaced a total water volume of 10,000 meters³ (353,000 feet³). The landslide's headscarp is at a water depth of 1200 meters (3900 feet), with the debris flow extending to a water depth of 4200 meters (13,800 feet) (Reference 738). This submarine landslide is now believed to be the primary cause of the 1918 tsunami (Reference 738).

Potential Bahama Platform and Straits of Florida Tsunami Sources

The Ocean Drilling Program (ODP) drilled four holes up to 447 meters (1500 feet) on the Bahama Platform in the Straits of Florida immediately south of the Units 6 & 7 site (Site 626, Figure 2.5.1-211). Holes 626C and 626D provided significant results as described below (Reference 740). Three stratigraphic units, numbered I through III from the surface down, were identified.

- Unit I is 122 meters (400 feet) thick and consists of skeletal carbonate sands comprising planktonic foraminifers and neritic skeletal grains from the platforms, middle Miocene to Pleistocene in age.
- Unit II is 48 meters (158 feet) thick and consists of muddy lime rubble, graded rubble and sand, and muddy sand, interpreted as debris flows and turbidites with intercalations of pelagic sediment, middle Miocene in age.
- Unit III is 277 meters (900 feet) thick and consists of skeletal carbonate sands as in Unit I with numerous intercalations of lithified layers (skeletal grainstones and packstones), of late Oligocene to middle Miocene in age.

Units I and III are interpreted as contourite deposits of the Gulf Stream, which sweeps the drill site with bottom velocities of 20 to 40 centimeters/second (8 to 16 inches/second) (Reference 741). In general, the contourite deposits formed in the lower velocity zones along margins or beneath the core of higher-energy currents, where flow velocities are low enough to induce deposition but yet high enough to contain a high suspended load that would not be present in the absence of the current. If there is a strong or concentrated nepheloid layer, (a layer of water above the ocean floor that contains significant amounts of suspended sediment (Reference 905)), a rapid deposition of sediment will occur, forming a contourite/turbidity deposit (Reference 906). Unit II interrupts the contourite record in an impressive way. During a four million year interval in the middle Miocene, debris

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flows and turbidites were emplaced too rapidly to be reworked by the bottom currents. ODP scientists reviewing the stratigraphic relationships hypothesize that the large debris flow and turbidites of Unit II represent material that had accumulated on top of the carbonate banks at a marine high stand and that the material became unstable as sea level fell (Reference 740). Debris flows and associated turbidites, the size of Unit II, might not be expected to occur in today's environment of rising sea levels. The present current regime is different from that in the Miocene because sea level has been generally rising since the end of the Wisconsinan glacial stage (References 907 and 908).

The Unit II gravity flows are synchronous with the "Abaco episode" (associated with the Jacksonville Fracture Zone shown in Figure 2.5.1-229) in the western North Atlantic Ocean. The "Abaco episode" is represented by gravity-flow deposits spanning most of the Miocene, with sedimentation-rate peaks in the middle Miocene as described by Reference 727. The gravity flow material points to sources on the adjacent Bahama Platform, on its flanks, and on the floor of the Straits of Florida. Several other sediment gravity-flow events occurred in the region during the same period. Lower to middle Miocene gravity-flow deposits were cored at Sites 627 and 628 (Figure 2.5.1-211) and large middle Miocene slumps were identified from seismic profiles north of Little Bahama Bank near Sites 627 and 628 (Reference 476). However, these deposits differ in scale and lithology from those at Site 626. The Great Abaco Member of the Blake Ridge Formation in the Blake-Bahamas Basin (for location see Figure 2.5.1-214), penetrated at DSDP Sites 391 (Reference 422) and 534 (Reference 728), contains gravity-flow deposits that span most of the Miocene, with sedimentation-rate peaks in the middle Miocene. Off the west coast of Florida, Mullins et al. (Reference 305) document a middle Miocene slide scar that resulted from the failure of a 120-kilometer (93-mile) length of the western margin of the Florida carbonate platform. The timing of these flow events suggests the possibility of a common paleotectonic cause.

While there is clear evidence of past submarine landslides near the Florida Peninsula, the stratigraphic record, especially from drill cores, is incomplete for use in evaluating the aerial extent of landslide effects. However, based on recent bathymetric data and for PMT purposes, a potential landslide-induced tsunami is discussed in Subsection 2.4.6.1.3.

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Potential West Florida Escarpment Tsunami Sources

Information on the potential West Florida Escarpment sources is discussed in Subsection 2.4.6.1.2, Submarine Landslides in the Gulf of Mexico.

Potential Northern Coast of Cuba Tsunami Sources

Subsequent to the 2004 Indian Ocean tsunami, Cuban geologists began reexamining the historical, geologic, and seismic records of Cuba to evaluate potential tsunami hazards. Iturralde-Vinent ([Reference 742](#)) summarizes the current understanding of tsunami hazards in Cuba with a simple graphic ([Figure 2.5.1-345](#)). The graphic indicates large marine boulders deposited on the southern coast of Cuba, possibly by tsunamis, on the extreme southwestern coast, on the Isla de la Juventud, and along the seismically active southeastern coast of Cuba. Iturralde-Vinent ([Reference 742](#)) also identifies a significant coastal area of northwestern Cuba as a zone of potential tsunami hazards, with evidence of medium size carbonate boulders emplaced by waves on coastal terraces. A hazard zone for 3-meter (10-feet) high tsunamis is located on the northern coast of Cuba, between the cities of Havana and Matanzas ([Figure 2.5.1-345](#)).

Based on a lack of field evidence for tsunami deposits in southern Florida, it appears that the southern Florida coastline is generally protected from potential tsunami events by the broad expanse of shallow water of the Straits of Florida, by the steep Atlantic-facing escarpments represented by the Blake Plateau and the Bahama Platform, and by the steep Gulf of Mexico-facing escarpment of the Florida Escarpment. Knight ([Reference 743](#)) provides initial modeling of tsunami impacts to the Gulf of Mexico and southern Atlantic Coast from earthquake sources within the Gulf and the Caribbean regions. The two-dimensional depth averaged model developed at the University of Alaska, Fairbanks ([Reference 744](#)) is used to propagate initial disturbances to all points along the U.S. Gulf of Mexico and Atlantic coasts. Four initial sea level disturbances were created using Okada's formulas ([Reference 745](#)) in conjunction with associated hypothetical earthquakes. The model earthquakes do not necessarily correspond to expected magnitude, likelihood of rupture, or precise location on known thrust faults. They were chosen in part to excite various ocean basins and to present worst-case conditions. The results indicate that sources outside the Gulf of Mexico are not expected to create tsunamis threatening the Gulf Coast. The results also indicate that, due to significant energy losses from bottom friction through the shallower portions of the Straits of Florida and Caribbean region, both Gulf of Mexico and Atlantic coasts, including the Units 6 & 7 site, are well shielded from the large model (Puerto Rico Trench) Caribbean source ([Reference 743](#)). [Subsection 2.4.6](#) contains a more detailed discussion of tsunami modeling specific to the Units 6 & 7 site.

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In their report to the NRC, the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico Tsunami Hazard Assessment Group and U.S. Geological Survey ([Reference 746](#), p. 72) note “[w]e believe the reason why there are no reports from the 1755 tsunami [from the Lisbon earthquake] in southern Florida could be attributed to the northern Bahama Banks, which may have acted as a barrier to that area.”

2.5.1.2 Site Geology

The Units 6 & 7 site is located within the Southern Slope subprovince of the Atlantic Coastal Plain physiographic province. The geology of the site ([Figure 2.5.1-331](#)) was and is influenced by sea level fluctuations, processes of carbonate and clastic deposition, and erosion. The Paleogene (early Tertiary) is dominated by the deposition of carbonate rocks while the Neogene (late Tertiary) is influenced by the deposition of quartz sands, silts, and clays ([Reference 287](#)). Deposition of carbonate rock resumed again during the Pleistocene. Within the site area the dominant rock types are limestones of the late Oligocene Arcadia Formation, the late Oligocene- to early Miocene sands and silts of the Peace River and Tamiami formations, and the Pleistocene fossiliferous limestone of the Fort Thompson Formation, the Key Largo Limestone, and the Miami Limestone ([Figure 2.5.1-332](#)). Minor units of alluvial soils, organic muck, and silt cover the surface. During the Pleistocene, worldwide glaciation and fluctuating sea levels influenced the geology in the site vicinity ([Subsection 2.5.1.1.1.1.1](#)). Drops in sea level caused by growth of glaciers increased Florida's land area significantly, which led to increased erosion and clastic deposition. Warm interglacial periods resulted in a rise in sea level and an increase in nutrient-rich waters leading to an increase in carbonate build-up ([Reference 287](#)). The geology within the site area is dominated by flat, planar bedding in late Pleistocene and older units. No tectonic structures have been identified within the site area ([Subsections 2.5.1.2.3 and 2.5.1.2.4](#)). [Subsections 2.5.1.2.4 and 2.5.3](#) describe karst-related vegetated solution depressions ([Figure 2.5.1-333](#)).

2.5.1.2.1 Site Physiography and Geomorphology

The Units 6 & 7 site is located within Miami-Dade County, Florida, approximately 25 miles (40 kilometers) south of Miami, 8 miles (13 miles) east of Florida City, and 9 miles (14 kilometers) southeast of Homestead, Florida. The site area is located within the Southern Slope subprovince of the Florida Platform (a partly submerged peninsula of the continental shelf) within the Atlantic Coastal Plain physiographic province ([Figure 2.5.1-217](#)). The south Florida area is a broad, gently sloping plain with poor drainage; most of the area is below the piezometric surface in saltwater marshes and swamps overlain by peat. The Units 6 & 7 site is

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bordered on the east by Biscayne Bay, on the west by Florida City and Homestead, on the south by Key Largo, and on the north by Miami. There are numerous canals to the west within an Everglades mitigation bank. The physiographic features bordering the plant property are the Everglades, Florida Keys, and the Atlantic Continental Slope (Figure 2.5.1-217).

The surface geology at the site area is characterized by organic muck (peaty soil) and Miami Limestone (Figures 2.5.1-331 and 2.5.1-334). The organic muck is the dominant surficial sediment type, whereas the Miami Limestone is exposed in the northern and western parts of the site area (Figures 2.5.1-335 and 2.5.1-334). The Miami Limestone is a marine carbonate consisting predominantly of oolitic facies of white to gray limestone with fossils (mollusks, bryozoans, and corals). The overlying organic muck located near the rivers in the site area is a light gray to dark gray to pale brown sapric muck (strongly decomposed organic peaty soil) with trace amounts of shell fragments that have little or no reaction to hydrochloric acid. The muck varies in thickness across the site from 2 to 6 feet (0.6 to 1.8 meters).

The site is at or near sea level with an existing elevation of -2.4 to 0.8 feet (NAVD 88). The site generally is flat and uniform throughout with the exception of vegetated depressions, as seen in Figures 2.5.1-333 and 2.5.3-202. The vegetative depressions are dissolution features within the Miami Limestone, described in Subsection 2.5.3.

2.5.1.2.2 Site Area Stratigraphy

As part of the Units 6 & 7 site characterization program, subsurface information was collected from 88 geotechnical borings, 22 separate groundwater borings, and 4 cone penetration tests (CPTs). Of the 88 geotechnical borings drilled, 32 are located within the boundary of the Unit 6 power block (600-series borings) and 32 are located within the boundary of the Unit 7 power block (700-series borings) (Figure 2.5.1-336). Subsection 2.5.4 contains a more detailed description of the comprehensive geotechnical investigation employed to characterize the subsurface of the site. The rock core descriptions on the boring logs described in Subsection 2.5.4 and Reference 708 are based on the carbonate classification system described by Dunham (Reference 709) that is commonly used in Florida. The geologic formations encountered in the geotechnical exploration were identified in the field. The upper and lower Fort Thompson formations identified on the boring logs are reinterpreted in this subsection as the Key Largo Limestone and Fort Thompson Formation. This is based on a broad review of geologic

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publications, the predominance of coralline structure in the Key Largo Limestone and moldic porosity in the lower Fort Thompson Formation.

Of the 88 geotechnical borings drilled and sampled as part of the Units 6 & 7 site investigations, only 2 were advanced to a depth greater than 290 feet (88 meters) below ground surface (bgs): B-701 was advanced to a depth of 615.5 feet (187.6 meters) bgs and B-601 was advanced to a depth of 419.2 feet (127.8 meters) bgs. The remaining 86 borings ranged in depth from 100 to 290 feet (30 to 88 meters) bgs with a median of approximately 125 feet (38 meters) bgs. The Units 6 & 7 subsurface investigation obtained detailed information about the near-surface geologic characteristics and composition of sediments underlying the site. Information gathered from the regional investigation coupled with specific data obtained from borings that were drilled as part of the subsurface investigation were used to develop the site stratigraphic column presented in [Figure 2.5.1-332](#).

Geophysical logs were obtained for 10 of the 88 borings. A suite of nine different geophysical logs was prepared for each of the ten borings in which geophysical logging was accomplished. Natural gamma logs were recorded as part of the electric log suite and as a correlation tool with the caliper log. Gamma-ray logs are used to identify lithology, with gamma counts of shale, silt, and clay generally higher (moving to the right) because clays adsorb radioactive particles more readily than other materials. A spontaneous potential (SP) log was also taken to identify lithology, but SP is not as sensitive to changes in lithology as the natural gamma curves. Three different resistivity logs were taken to record the resistivity of the formation at various intervals away from the boring wall and to track the effects of the drilling fluid at different levels. These three logs are also used to identify rock type with sandy units moving the curve to the right and clays moving the curve to the left. A caliper log was taken to record changes in the diameter of each borehole. Suspension shear (S) and compression (P) wave velocity logs were completed in each of the ten designated borings. Finally, an acoustic televiewer log was taken to provide a visual inspection of the interior walls of the boring. The key at the top of each log identifies each of the curves. A more detailed description of the down-hole geophysical logging is available in the geotechnical data report in [Reference 708](#).

[Figures 2.5.1-331, 2.5.1-335, and 2.5.1-334](#) show the geology of the site vicinity, site area, and site. The site stratigraphic column ([Figure 2.5.1-332](#)) presents the lithologic and hydrostratigraphic units encountered during the site subsurface investigation. [Subsection 2.4.12](#) describes the hydrogeologic units in more detail. These strata are described below as they occur from the ground surface to depth beneath the site. Most borings drilled for the site subsurface investigation

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penetrate the Miami Limestone, Key Largo Limestone, and Fort Thompson Formation to a depth of over 100 feet (30 meters). Thirty-four deeper borings penetrated into the underlying Tamiami Formation at approximately 115 feet (35 meters) bgs and continued to a depth of around 150 feet (46 meters) bgs; ten of these borings continued to depths in excess of 215 feet (66 meters) bgs and penetrated the Peace River Formation of the Hawthorn Group. One boring, B-701 (DH), penetrated the Arcadia Formation of the Hawthorn Group at a depth of 455 feet (139 meters) bgs before terminating at a final depth of 615.5 feet (187.6 meters). The description and characteristics of the geologic units encountered in the site investigation are described below. Boring logs are included in [Reference 708](#).

The Holocene section at the Turkey Point Units 6 & 7 site is classified as marl and wetland soils belonging to the saprist (muck) group. The marl and muck are interpreted to have formed in an anaerobic tidal environment. Saprist soils are generally defined as those in which two-thirds or more of the material is decomposed, and less than one-third of plant fibers are identifiable ([Reference 276](#)). Eighty-eight borings were drilled and sampled (standard penetration test [SPT] samples in soil, continuous coring in rock) as part of the Turkey Point Units 6 & 7 subsurface investigation. The description of the Holocene section (i.e., muck) in the soil borings across the Units 6 & 7 site ([Reference 708](#)) includes the thickness, color, hardness, and the presence of organics, silt, roots, and shell fragment contents. The muck soils were sampled at the site every 0.8 meter (2.5 feet) using the SPT geotechnical sampling method. The muck soils are classified under the Unified Soil Classification System in accordance with ASTM D2488-06. Modifiers such as trace (<5 percent), few (5 to 10 percent), little (15 to 25 percent), some (30 to 45 percent) and mostly (50 to 100 percent) were used to provide an estimate of the percentage of gravel, sand and fines (silt or clay size particles), or other materials such as organics (muck) or shells. In general, the thickness of the muck ranges from 0 to approximately 5 meters (0 to 15 feet). Muck is observed in the geotechnical borings and the multichannel analysis of surface waves (MASW) survey data across the site. The muck appears to be thicker in the areas of the surficial dissolution features, which act as sediment traps ([Figures 2.5.4-229 and 2.5.4-230](#)). Color ranges from black to light gray, dark grayish brown to light brownish gray, and dark olive brown to light olive brown. Mottled coloration is also noted in the muck. The consistency of the muck is very soft-to-soft. Fibrous internal structure occurs within organic soils in eight of the site borings: B-614, B-625, B-626, B-702, B-715, B-725, B-727, and B-729. The organic content of the muck was visually estimated to vary from some (30–45 percent) to mostly (50–100 percent) ([Reference 708](#)).

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Only one sample from boring B-601 (DH) contains "mostly silt." Trace to some sand is noted in three borings: B-617, B-623, and B-723. Neither the sand nor the silt can be correlated across the site as continuous stratigraphic units. However, fine-grained calcareous material, marl, appears to overlie the muck in six borings: B-736, B-738, B-802, B-810, B-812, and B-813. This marl-like material is described as a fat clay to sandy fat clay (rather than a silt as described in the field) that is light/dark gray to light/dark grayish brown, very soft, moist to wet, with some fine grained sand and strong hydrochloric reaction (Reference 708). This type of marl forms when the ground surface is flooded for several months each year in the summer followed by a number of dry months during the winter (hydroperiod). During the hydroperiod, the microalgae (periphyton) grow on the surface water. The precipitation of the microalgae from the calcium bicarbonate saturated water creates marl (Reference 909).

The bedrock surface throughout the site consists of the Pleistocene Miami Limestone overlain by muck. At the site, the Miami Limestone is a white, porous, sometimes sandy, fossiliferous, oolitic limestone (grainstone) with vugs that are typically oriented in either the horizontal or the near-vertical direction. The formation is mostly soft to medium hard throughout, but typically very hard at the base. The top of the Miami Limestone was generally encountered at a depth of 3 to 6 feet (0.9 to 1.8 meters) bgs. The Miami Limestone is approximately 25 feet (7.6 meters) thick beneath the site.

The Pleistocene Key Largo Limestone underlies the Miami Limestone at Units 6 & 7 site. The contact between the Miami Limestone and the Key Largo Limestone is generally an irregular gradational contact primarily inferred from changes in hardness and oolite content. Based on previous investigations by others (e.g., Reference 710), the Key Largo Limestone was initially identified and logged as the upper Fort Thompson Formation. Subsequent investigation, including a review of recent publications (e.g., References 373 and 711) and a reexamination of the rock core, indicate that the coralline limestone facies should be identified as the Key Largo Limestone, not the upper Fort Thompson Formation. The Key Largo Limestone is a coralline limestone characterized by the presence of vuggy porosity with a high degree of interconnectivity. The coralline vugs within the Key Largo Limestone typically exhibit evidence of precipitation of secondary minerals (i.e., calcite). The contact between the Key Largo Limestone and the underlying Fort Thompson Formation has been identified at the site as a marker layer of dark gray, fine-grained limestone occurring at the base of the Key Largo Limestone. The dark gray limestone encountered in most of the site borings is generally 2 feet (0.6 meter) or more thick and often exhibits a sharp color change from light to dark

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gray at its base marking the transition from the Key Largo Limestone to the Fort Thompson Formation.

The Key Largo Limestone is a fossil coral reef that is believed to have formed in a complex of shallow-water, shelf-margin reefs and associated deposits along a topographic break during the last interglacial period (Reference 406). The Key Largo Limestone is exposed at the surface in the Florida Keys from Soldier Key on the northeast to Newfound Harbor Keys near Big Pine Key on the southwest. At the site, the Key Largo Limestone is generally encountered at a depth of 23 to 33 feet (7 to 10 meters) to bgs and is approximately 22 feet (7 meters) thick.

The Pleistocene Fort Thompson Formation directly underlies the Key Largo Limestone. The Fort Thompson Formation is generally a sandy limestone with zones of uncemented sand interbeds, some vugs, and zones of moldic porosity after gastropod and/or bivalve shell molds and casts. Overall, the vugs and molds within the Fort Thompson Formation create a secondary porosity with a lower degree of interconnectivity than the vugs within the Key Largo Limestone. The top of the Fort Thompson Formation is generally encountered at a depth between 48 and 52 feet (15 and 16 meters) bgs and has a thickness of approximately 65 feet (20 meters) at the site.

The Pliocene Tamiami Formation directly underlies the Fort Thompson Formation. The contact between the Tamiami Formation and the Fort Thompson Formation is an inferred contact picked as the bottom of the last lens of competent limestone encountered. The placement of this inferred contact in each boring was primarily determined from core recoveries and drill rates. The Tamiami Formation is a poorly defined lithostratigraphic unit containing a wide range of mixed carbonate-siliciclastic lithologies. The Tamiami Formation generally consists of well-sorted, silty sand, but locally it is interlayered with clayey sand, silt, and clean clay. The top of the Tamiami Formation is generally encountered at a depth between 113 and 117 feet (34 and 36 meters) bgs with an average thickness of 105 feet (32 meters) at the site.

The Miocene-Pliocene age Peace River Formation of the Hawthorn Group directly underlies the Tamiami Formation. The Peace River Formation comprises interbedded sands, clays, and carbonates. The contact between the Peace River Formation and the Tamiami Formation is inferred based an increase in activity on the gamma ray log (Reference 708). The Peace River Formation is penetrated in only the eight deepest borings and generally consists of well-sorted, silty sand down to approximately 460 feet (140 meters) bgs. The top of the Peace River

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Formation is encountered at a depth between 216 and 224 feet (66 and 68 meters) bgs with an average thickness of 235 feet (72 meters).

The Oligocene-Miocene age Arcadia Formation of the Hawthorn Group underlies the Peace River Formation. The Arcadia Formation consists of carbonate rock ranging from packstone to wackestone to mudstone, with a few isolated lenses of silty sand. The Arcadia Formation varies in hardness from soft (friable) to hard (well indurated), with colors ranging from pale yellow to greenish gray. The Arcadia Formation is fossiliferous with shell molds and casts of bivalves and gastropods found in some locations within the core. The unit is capped by a gray, hard, indurated dolostone/grainstone with sugary texture containing a few gastropod shell molds and casts. The Arcadia Formation is encountered in a single deep boring (B-701 DH) at a depth of 455 feet (139 meters) bgs and extended to the bottom of the boring to a depth of 615.5 feet (187.6 meters) bgs where the boring was terminated. As such, the thickness of the Arcadia Formation at the site exceeds 161 feet (49 meters).

Four geologic cross sections, two isopach (thickness) maps, two structure contour maps, and a site geologic map were prepared from the information obtained from the site subsurface investigation (Figure 2.5.1-334). Geologic cross section A-A' (Figures 2.5.1-338 and 2.5.1-386) extends east-west through the power blocks and eight borings, including the two deepest borings B-601 and B-701. Cross section B-B' (Figures 2.5.1-339 and 2.5.1-387) extends west-east through the southern edge of the site and eight borings, the deepest at 46.6 meters (153 feet) bgs. Cross section C-C' (Figures 2.5.1-340 and 2.5.1-388) extends diagonally northwest-southeast through the entire site and passes through the western power block. Cross section C-C' includes seven borings including the deepest boring, B-701(DH), at a depth of 187.6 meters (615.5 feet) bgs. Cross section D-D' (Figures 2.5.1-341 and 2.5.1-389) also extends diagonally northwest-southeast through the entire site but passes through the eastern power block. Cross section D-D' includes six borings; the deepest at a depth of 215 feet (66 meters) bgs.

The locations of the surface traces of the cross sections are shown on Figures 2.5.1-342 and 2.5.1-344 (isopach maps of the Key Largo Limestone and the Fort Thompson Formation, respectively) and Figures 2.5.1-349 and 2.5.1-343 (structure contour maps of the top of the Key Largo Limestone and the Fort Thompson Formation, respectively). Two versions of each of the four cross-sections are provided. Cross-sections in the first set (Figures 2.5.1-338, 2.5.1-339, 2.5.1-340, and 2.5.1-341) are truncated at the elevation of -61 meters (-200 feet) NAVD 88 and depict the subsurface stratigraphy with a vertical

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exaggeration of 12 to 1. Figures 2.5.1-386, 2.5.1-388, and 2.5.1-389 depict a thicker section of the subsurface stratigraphy on the same cross-sections with a vertical exaggeration of only 4 to 1.

The cross sections indicate that geologic contacts beneath the site are relatively flat and undeformed. This stratigraphy reflects the environment of deposition and subsequent erosion of the paleosurface. The flat and undeformed nature of the geologic contacts is reflected in the isopach maps of the Key Largo Limestone (Figure 2.5.1-342) and the Fort Thompson Formation (Figure 2.5.1-344) that indicate a relatively uniform thickness across the site with no abrupt changes. The structure contour maps of the top of the Key Largo Limestone (Figure 2.5.1-349) and the Fort Thompson Formation (Figure 2.5.1-343) show a relatively flat paleosurface. Boring logs and descriptions of the lithology are included in the geotechnical data report in Reference 708. Section 5.3 of Appendix 2.5AA provides a discussion of the isopach and structure contour maps and reasons for concluding that they provide no strong evidence for the presence of large collapse features in the Key Largo Limestone or Fort Thompson Formation at the site.

2.5.1.2.3 Site Area Structural Geology

This subsection provides a review of the structural setting from published maps and literature and the Units 3 & 4 UFSAR (Reference 712), which is supplemented by new information from the 2008 geologic mapping and exploration program performed as part of this Investigation. The site lies on the stable Florida carbonate platform; no faults or folds are mapped within more than 25 miles (40 kilometers) (Figure 2.5.1-331). New data include geologic mapping and bedding attitudes interpreted from lithologic contacts in boreholes. Taken together, these data indicate generally flat, planar bedding in Pleistocene and older units and an absence of geologic structures within the site area.

The site area geologic and surficial maps and cross sections (Figures 2.5.1-335, 2.5.1-334, 2.5.1-337, 2.5.1-338, 2.5.1-339, 2.5.1-340, and 2.5.1-341) present basic structural information. Figure 2.5.1-343 is a structure contour map of the top of the late Pleistocene Fort Thompson Formation. Isopach maps of the Key Largo Limestone and the Fort Thompson Formation are also shown in Figures 2.5.1-342 and 2.5.1-344. Geologic field reconnaissance was performed to verify general structural interpretations presented in literature describing southern Florida and observations of that work are presented herein. The reconnaissance effort generally increased with increasing proximity to the site.

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The entire site area was inspected using both pre-construction (1940 black-and-white stereo pairs) and more recent (1999 color infrared and 2004 true color) 1:40,000-scale aerial photography acquired from the USGS and the FDEP. Interpretations of the photographs did not identify any structural features to be studied further within the site area. Field reconnaissance within the site area included detailed geologic mapping of the site and inspection of available outcrops of Miami Limestone along the banks of the cooling canals. The late Pleistocene Miami Limestone underlies the entire site area, and is mapped at the surface throughout large portions of southern Florida (Figure 2.5.1-331). However, this unit rarely crops out and is often covered by recent unconsolidated soil or other deposits (Figure 2.5.1-337). The portions of the site that have not been disturbed by the construction of cooling canals are covered by a thin (roughly 2- to 6-foot or 0.6- to 1.8-meter thick) veneer of organic-rich mud and silt, generally referred to as organic muck (Figure 2.5.1-334). Field reconnaissance, a review and interpretation of aerial photography, a review of published literature, and an analysis of the results of the subsurface exploration (Reference 708) did not reveal any evidence for tectonic deformation within the site vicinity or site area. No folds, fractures, faults, or geomorphic features indicative of faulting, or other tectonic structures have been observed or mapped (Figures 2.5.1-331, 2.5.1-335, 2.5.1-334, 2.5.1-337, 2.5.1-338, 2.5.1-339, 2.5.1-340, and 2.5.1-341) in the site vicinity or site area.

Regional structural information from borings across southern Florida indicates that Cretaceous to Pleistocene strata are generally flat-lying or have shallow dips ($<1^\circ$) that likely reflect paleotopography (References 257, 713, and 714) (Figures 2.5.1-259 and 2.5.1-260). For example, the base of the Fort Thompson Formation has a dip of 0.06° to the southeast in the vicinity of the existing cooling canals (from Reference 715). Data presented in Figures 2.5.1-338, 2.5.1-339, 2.5.1-340, and 2.5.1-341 and Reference 708 confirm that planar, undisturbed bedding persists beneath the site. Based upon local boring data, vertical relief of several feet is found in the contact of the Miami Limestone with the underlying Key Largo Limestone in the site vicinity. However, upon examination during the field reconnaissance, this relief is considered to be a primary sedimentary feature related to the reef origin of the Key Largo Limestone and not due to tectonic or non-tectonic deformation. Field reconnaissance, a review and interpretation of aerial photography, a review of published literature, and an analysis of the results of the subsurface exploration (Reference 708) indicate that the Miami Limestone and older strata are consistently oriented and are not measurably offset or deformed by faulting within the site area (Figures 2.5.1-335, 2.5.1-334, 2.5.1-337, 2.5.1-338, 2.5.1-339, 2.5.1-340, and 2.5.1-341).

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Additionally, previous site and regional investigations ([References 712 and 715](#)) and work performed as part of this COL Application have identified no systematic jointing patterns within bedrock underlying the site area. Geologic field reconnaissance also included inspection of aerial imagery for lineaments and possible hazards within the site area. No lineaments were identified within the site area, other than minor local alignments of the vegetated depressions developed in the organic muck that covers the site ([Figure 2.5.3-202](#)). Field reconnaissance, a review and interpretation of aerial photography, a review of published literature, and an analysis of the results of the subsurface exploration ([Reference 708](#)) found no geomorphic evidence to suggest differential uplift across any of the lineaments or any structural or stratigraphic evidence to suggest lateral displacement across any of the lineaments. These lineaments are interpreted as tidally influenced channels (see description in [Subsection 2.5.3.2](#) and [Figures 2.5.1-335, 2.5.1-334, 2.5.1-337, 2.5.1-338, 2.5.1-339, 2.5.1-340, 2.5.1-341, and 2.5.1-342](#)) and do not correlate with any potential joints, folds, faults, or other structures within the site area.

2.5.1.2.4 Site Geologic Hazards

Examination of the Units 6 & 7 site area has provided no evidence of active tectonic features, no known tsunami deposits, no evidence for seismically induced paleoliquefaction features or other indicators of paleoseismic activity, and no known sinkholes in the underlying karst terrane. No piercement-type salt domes are located within the site vicinity. The nearest salt dome is approximately 220 miles (350 kilometers) southeast of Units 6 & 7 site along Cuba's northern coast ([Reference 430](#)). Evaluation of seismic hazards in the site region and beyond is discussed in this subsection and in [Subsections 2.5.2 and 2.5.3](#). This subsection provides further discussion of efforts to identify dissolution features at the site area as well as any tsunami-related features within the site region.

Twichell et al. ([Reference 320](#)) conclude that large landslides related to the upward migration of salt along normal faults may be the cause of increased activity of small earthquakes in this area, and these earthquakes along with oversteepening of the sea floor due to salt movement could lead to repeated slope failures.

Dissolution Features

[Subsection 2.5.1.1.1.1.1](#) describes the three main types of sinkholes common to Florida as defined by Sinclair and Stewart ([Reference 264](#)). Also, as described

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in **Subsection 2.5.1.1.1.1.1**, the FGS classifies sinkhole occurrences into four type areas, Area I through Area IV (**Figure 2.5.1-222**).

The Units 6 & 7 site is located in Area I, where sinkholes, if they occur, are typically solution sinkholes. Their gradual development is explained by the relatively slow rate at which limestone dissolution and removal occurs. The maximum rate of wall retreat in limestone is estimated to be on the order of 0.04 inches (1.02 millimeters) per year (**Reference 716**). The maximum potential dissolution for the Lower Suwannee River Basin in Florida, which is located approximately 300 miles (480 kilometers) northwest of the site, is calculated to be less than 0.002 inches (0.05 millimeters) per year (**Reference 717**). Thus, active dissolution of limestone at the site is not considered to present a geologic hazard.

While large cavities and collapses are not expected in Area I, which includes the Units 6 & 7 site, localized factors can influence whether or not cavities and the potential for collapse exist. Catastrophic collapse is not known to occur in southern Florida. In addition to the fact that cavities in this area are generally small, a stress mechanism, such as a rising or falling water table, is necessary to trigger the collapse of overburden into preexisting cavities that may have taken long periods of time to form (**Reference 719**). Such a natural triggering mechanism is not prevalent in south Florida because the water table is generally very close to the surface with little fluctuation.

According to Renken et al. (**Reference 721**), sinkholes and caves have been found in Miami-Dade County only along the Atlantic Coastal Ridge, where limestone is present at a relatively high elevation, extending southward from south Miami toward Everglades National Park (**Figure 2.5.1-217**). The Atlantic Coastal Ridge is up to 50 feet (15 meters) high and trends north-northeast to south-southwest into the site vicinity (**Reference 265**). Further discussion of the Atlantic coastal ridge is found in **Subsection 2.5.1.1.1.1**. Parker et al. (**Reference 722**) state that the Miami Limestone and Fort Thompson Formation have significant permeability and solution features that have created turbulent flow conditions in some wells. According to Cunningham et al. (**Reference 723**), topographic relief related to karst dissolution is well documented in the Lake Belt area of north-central Miami-Dade County approximately 17 miles (27 kilometers) northwest of Units 6 & 7. {These studies contain no suggestion of the presence of buried sinkholes, caverns, or other large-scale underground karst features in the vicinity of the site.}

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An FGS investigation (**Reference 724**) concludes that most of Miami-Dade County is underlain by limestone containing solution cavities.

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Zones of secondary porosity have formed in limestone beneath the site where microkarst features have developed (Subsections 2.4.12.1.3.1 and 2.5.1.2.4). These zones of secondary porosity provide areas of preferential groundwater flow. The microkarst features are thought to have formed by solution enlargement of sedimentary structures when fresh groundwater formerly flowed from inland areas, mixed with sea water, and facilitated dissolution as it flowed through the zone to the sea. The zones of secondary porosity can be subdivided into two categories: touching-vug porosity and moldic porosity.

The two zones of secondary porosity were identified at the site following review of the geophysical logs, the geotechnical boring logs, and the shear wave velocity logs. In general, the zones of secondary porosity were identified based on increases in borehole diameter on the caliper logs, darkened areas on the acoustic televiewer images, typically lower P-S wave velocity values, rod drops, and in the case of touching-vug porosity, loss of drilling fluid circulation. Figures 2.5.1-351, 2.5.1-352, and 2.5.1-353 show the approximate locations of the two zones of secondary porosity on three example-boring logs, B-604 (DH), B-608 (DH), and B-710 G (DH), and their locations at the Turkey Point Units 6 & 7 site are shown on Figures 2.5.1-228 and 2.5.4-202. Figures 2.5.1-351, 2.5.1-352, and 2.5.1-353 were compiled using the lithology, caliper, natural gamma, acoustic televiewer, and velocity (V_s and V_p) logs.

Recent studies by Cunningham et al. (References 404 and 723) suggest vuggy porosity is common within the Biscayne Aquifer (Miami Limestone, Key Largo Limestone, and Fort Thompson Formation) and that typical solution features associated with the touching-vug porosity include solution-enlarged fossil molds up to pebble size, molds of burrows or roots, irregular vugs surrounding casts of burrows or roots, and bedding plane vugs. Cunningham et al. (Reference 404) show images of vugs in the Miami Limestone and Fort Thompson Formation, with cavernous vugs approximately 4 feet in height (Figure 2.5.1-385). The results of extensive site investigation for Turkey Point Units 6 & 7 (Subsections 2.5.1.2.2 and 2.5.4.2.2, and Reference 708) offer no evidence that karstification of the area has developed cavernous limestone with the potential for collapse and formation of sinkholes.

Touching-vug porosity occurs on the site within the approximate depth interval of 20 to 35 feet (Figures 2.5.1-351, 2.5.1-352, and 2.5.1-353) near the contact of the Miami Limestone and Key Largo Limestone (the "Upper Zone" of secondary porosity discussed in Subsection 2.4.12.1.4). Because the elevation of ground surface at the site is approximately 0 feet NAVD 88 (Reference 708), this depth interval corresponds approximately to -20 to -35 feet NAVD 88. The origin of this

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porosity is solution enlargement of burrows, inter-burrow vugs, moldic fossils, root molds, and vugs between root casts (References 404, 723, and 969). These structures are sufficiently numerous and closely spaced to form a laterally continuous zone of interconnected voids. Results of drilling and coring within the zone of touching-vug porosity during the site subsurface investigation have shown the feature to be laterally persistent, generally of centimeter scale, with very few indications of possible larger voids such as a rod drop.

Moldic porosity occurs in pockets within the approximate depth interval of 60 to 75 feet (-60 to -75 feet NAVD 88) (Figures 2.5.1-351, 2.5.1-352, and 2.5.1-353) in the Fort Thompson Formation and forms the "Lower Zone" of secondary porosity discussed in Subsection 2.4.12.1.4. The origin of this feature is preferential dissolution of fossil shells and other organic structures rather than the matrix rock within which they are contained, resulting in void spaces of generally centimeter scale within molds of the structures (References 404, 723, and 969). Results of drilling and coring within the zone of moldic porosity during the site subsurface investigation have shown the feature not to be laterally persistent but occurring in isolated sandy pockets with very few indications of possible larger voids such as a rod drop.

As seen from the cores taken during the subsurface investigation and photos of the cores (Reference 708), the potential origin of the touching-vug porosity within the upper zone is associated with original reef structure and, based on Cunningham et al. (References 404 and 723), solution enlargement. The potential origin of the lower zone of secondary porosity is moldic porosity resulting from dissolution on in situ bivalve shells.

As further discussed in Appendix 2.5AA, dissolution of the limestone in the upper zone of secondary porosity likely occurred during the Wisconsin glacial stage of the Pleistocene Epoch when sea level was lower than during the preceding interglacial stages when the Miami Limestone and Key Largo Limestone were formed (Figures 2.5.1-372 and 2.5.1-373) and fresh groundwater from the Everglades mixed with seawater and discharged through the zone to the sea. The coralline vugs within the Key Largo Limestone typically exhibit evidence of precipitation of secondary minerals such as calcite (Subsection 2.5.1.2.2). This finding suggests that the environment within the Upper Zone of secondary porosity is currently one dominated by deposition rather than solution. The position of the freshwater/saltwater interface is approximately 6 miles (9.6 kilometers) inland from the site (Figure 2.4.12-207), groundwater within the zone of touching-vug porosity is saline (Table 2.4.12-210 and 2.4.12-211), the long-term sea level rise trend at Miami Beach, Florida, as estimated based on data

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from 1931 to 1981, is 0.78 foot (0.2 meter) per century (Subsection 2.4.5), and there is no freshwater shoreline flow near the site. Therefore, a freshwater/saltwater mixing zone that would promote further dissolution of the limestone within the zone of touching-vug porosity does not now exist and development of large underground caverns with the potential for collapse is not likely within this Upper Zone of secondary porosity. Further, this zone will be completely removed during excavation of the nuclear island foundations (Subsection 2.5.4.5.1).

Dissolution of the limestone in this zone of secondary porosity likely occurred during the early to mid-Pleistocene Epoch when sea level fluctuated to a level lower than when the Fort Thompson Limestone was formed and fresh groundwater from inland areas discharged through the formation toward the sea. As noted previously, the position of the freshwater/saltwater interface is approximately 6 miles (9.6 kilometers) inland from the site (Figure 2.4.12-207), groundwater within the zone of moldic porosity is saline (Table 2.4.12-210 and 2.4.12-211), the long-term sea level rise trend at Miami Beach, Florida, as estimated based on data from 1931 to 1981, is 0.78 foot (0.2 meter) per century (Subsection 2.4.5), and there is no freshwater shoreline flow near the site. Therefore, a freshwater/saltwater mixing zone that would promote further dissolution of the limestone within the zone of moldic porosity does not now exist and development of large underground caverns with the potential for collapse is not likely within this Lower Zone of secondary porosity.

While touching-vug and moldic porosity similar to that noted by Cunningham et al. (References 404 and 723) and Lucia (Reference 969) occur at the Turkey Point Units 6 & 7 site, it should be noted that only occasional small rod drops were noted in 6 out of the 88 boreholes and approximately 2745 meters (9000 feet) of rock coring (Subsections 2.5.1.2.4, 2.5.4.1.2.1 and 2.5.4.4.5.5) (Table 2.5.1-208). A "rod drop" occurs when, while drilling, the bit encounters a relatively soft zone or void and the drill head and rod string suddenly advances at a rate much faster than the rate when drilling the overlying more competent material. A rod drop can also occur during an SPT when the weight of the string of drill rods is sufficient to advance the SPT sampler at the bottom of the borehole without additional blows of the sampling hammer. The occurrence of a rod drop indicates the presence of very soft or very loose material, which can be interpreted as void or cavity infill or as inter-bedded materials with substantially different hardness or compactness. Alternatively, a rod drop could indicate that the drill or sampler might have penetrated a cavity that is only partially filled with soft or loose material.

Groundwater levels monitored in onsite observation wells indicate a consistent site-wide upward vertical flow potential within the Biscayne Aquifer

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(Table 2.4.12-204). The geotechnical logs of the boreholes in which the rod drops occurred indicate that, except for the two drops that occurred in the Miami Limestone, the drops occurred as the drill or sampler advanced from relatively competent rock into a more sandy zone. In this situation, the upward hydrostatic head within the aquifer may have caused an upward blowout of the sand into the borehole when the confining layer above the sand was breached. The rod drops may have occurred not because the drill or sampler encountered very soft or very loose material indicative of void infill, but because liquefaction of the sand in the blowout zone reduced its bearing capacity to less than the down-pressure on the drill or the weight of the rod string.

Despite the presence of the aforementioned upper and lower zones of secondary porosity, the number and magnitude of rod drops that occurred during drilling were negligible, as described in Subsection 2.5.4.1.2.1. It can be noted that each of the 88 geotechnical borings drilled in support of the detailed site subsurface investigation was advanced to a minimum depth of 30.5 meters (100 feet), with many drilled to 45.7 meters (150 feet) or more, and none encountered large paleokarst sinkholes or large open voids. Boring logs (Reference 708) indicate the:

- 0.9-meter (3-foot) drop in B-805 occurred within the Miami Limestone.
- 0.6-meter (2-foot) drop in B-637 occurred within the Miami Limestone.
- One rod drop in each of borings B-738, B-811, and B-814 occurred in sandy zones in the Fort Thompson Formation.
- 0.3-meter (1-foot) drop in B-714 occurred at the base of the Fort Thompson Formation immediately before penetrating the sands of the Tamiami Formation.

No rod drops occurred in the nuclear island footprint of either Unit 6 or Unit 7. Two of the rod drops occurred within the Miami Limestone (B-637 and B-805), which will be completely removed beneath the nuclear islands. Boring B-714 is located in the footprint of the Unit 7 annex building and the rod drop in this boring might have been due to the process of drilling from the hard limestone of the Fort Thompson Formation into the underlying silty sand of the Tamiami Formation (Table 2.5.1-210, Figure 2.5.1-378).

Cavities observed during rock core operations were relatively small. The overall data collected during the Units 6 & 7 subsurface investigations are consistent with

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a communication with the FGS, which indicates that dissolution present in the site area is generally considered to be microkarst with numerous small cavities. This information is consistent with investigations by Cunningham (References 404 and 723) in the Biscayne Aquifer in southeastern Florida.

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An investigation of small surface depressions identified within the site (Figure 2.5.1-333) and site area is discussed in Subsection 2.5.3. The UFSAR for Turkey Point Units 3 & 4 concludes that “[s]uch depressions are not sinkholes associated with collapse above an underground solution channel, but rather potholes, which are surficial erosion or solution features” (Reference 712). These solution potholes are not expected to form large voids beneath the surface that would pose a hazard to the site (Reference 264).

An integrated geophysical survey focused on the Units 6 & 7 power block area and the small surface depressions identified within the site is discussed in Subsection 2.5.4.4.5. Based on an integrated interpretation of the boring data (Subsection 2.5.4.1.2.1) and the integrated site geophysical survey data, there is no apparent evidence for sinkhole hazards or for the potential of surface collapse due to the presence of large underground openings. The origin and significance of the surface depressions as well as the interpretation of the geophysical survey data are discussed further in Appendix 2.5AA. The locations of the vegetated depressions correlate well with results of the geophysical surveys (Figures 2.5.4-223 and 2.5.4-228). Soft zones within the Miami Limestone indicated by relatively low SPT “N” values recorded in logs of soil borings drilled on the geophysical survey lines correlate well with low-gravity anomalies, suggesting that the gravity anomalies identify areas of soft rock rather than large subsurface voids.

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The MASW data indicate that the vegetated depressions at the site are underlain by continuous Key Largo Formation (Figures 2.5.4-227 and 2.5.4-241). These two figures show MASW data along survey lines 9 and 10 that intersect at a prominent vegetated depression. Within the limits of survey resolution, the microgravity data do not indicate the presence of large subsurface voids. To address uncertainties in the resolution of the geophysical data away from survey lines and at depth beneath the foundation, a microgravity survey will be conducted at the base of the Unit 6 and Unit 7 nuclear island excavations (Subsection 2.5.4.4.5).

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What can be interpreted as karst or sinkhole-like features similar to the small surface depressions on site have been noted in aerial photographs of the nearby portion of Biscayne Bay (Appendix 2.5AA). The Bay has been modified and dredged and has an average water depth that ranges from 6 to 13 feet

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(Reference 991). Assuming the water level in the bay is 0 feet NAVD 88, the bottom of the bay ranges in elevation from approximately -6 to -13 feet NAVD 88. According to Reich et al. (Reference 992), sediments overlying bedrock in the bay range in thickness from less than 6 inches to 30 feet. Using this information and the elevations of the bottom of the bay, the elevation of the bedrock surface within which the "karst/sinkhole-like features" occur on the floor of the bay (or alternatively the "vegetated depressions," "local depressions," and "potholes" described in Subsection 2.5.3) ranges from -6.5 to -43 feet NAVD 88. The Upper Zone of secondary porosity within the Biscayne Aquifer is located near the contact of the Miami Limestone and Key Largo Limestone at an approximate elevation of -28 feet NAVD 88 (Subsection 2.5.1.2.4). The Lower Zone of secondary porosity is located within the Fort Thompson Formation at an approximate elevation of -65 feet NAVD 88 (Subsection 2.5.1.2.4). Based on site stratigraphic data (Subsection 2.5.1.2.2), the units are relatively flat and it appears that the Upper Zone of secondary porosity at the Turkey Point Units 6 & 7 site occurs within the stratigraphic interval within which the "karst/sinkhole-like features" occur on the floor of Biscayne Bay. That level is the stratigraphic interval of the Miami Limestone and Key Largo Limestone (Figure 2.5.1-332). Results of the site subsurface investigation (Reference 708) have demonstrated the absence of large solution cavities at this stratigraphic interval on the site.

While the touching-vug porosity exhibited in the Upper Zone of secondary porosity and the "karst/sinkhole-like features" on the bottom of Biscayne Bay may be in the same stratigraphic interval, the formation of these dissolution features is somewhat different. Dissolution features such as vugs are typically post-depositional features that occur in a freshwater phreatic system in which groundwater has filled open spaces and causes dissolution. The "karst/sinkhole-like features" on the bottom of the bay appear to be paleo-dissolution features that formed during the Wisconsinan (most recent) glacial stage of the Pleistocene when sea level was approximately 100 meters (328 feet) lower than the modern ocean (Reference 262) and at an elevation favorable for dissolution by rainwater of subaerial limestone in what is now the bay. More information on the development of the "karst/sinkhole-like features" on the bottom of Biscayne Bay is provided in Appendix 2.5AA and in the following paragraph, together with a summary of the evolution of the bay.

The process of limestone deposition in Florida was variable during the Pleistocene Epoch due to fluctuations in glacial runoff and the corresponding sea level. The Sangamon interglacial corresponds to the Q5e interglacial stage that occurred between approximately 125,000 and 75,000 thousand years ago

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(Reference 928). During this time, sea level rose globally and in Florida resulted in an increase in marine carbonate deposition. Sea level was approximately 20 feet higher than today (References 993 and 994) and covered the entire Florida peninsula south of Lake Okeechobee (Reference 994). The marine sediments (i.e. the Miami Limestone and Key Largo Limestone) that accumulated during the Sangamon and the previous interglacial high sea level stands (Reference 928) were lithified and their depositional morphology preserved. Two elongated sediment ridges that formed the Key Largo Ridge and the Atlantic Coastal Ridge resulted in the limestone basin that is now filled by Biscayne Bay, Card Sound, and Barnes Sound.

During lower sea level stands of the Wisconsin glacial stage, the Florida platform became emergent (sea level was approximately 100 meters (328 feet) lower than today) and the sea floor of Biscayne Bay was exposed (Reference 262). The exposed sea floor of the Bay was altered by rainwater. Dissolution, re-precipitation, and vegetative soil formation cemented the calcareous surface and slowly produced a very hard reddish limestone "soil crust" over the surface. Carbonate dissolution resulting from infiltration of rain water produced solution holes and pipes into the underlying limestone and solution-hole drainage, in particular dendritic drainage patterns, developed on the limestone of Biscayne Bay and its vicinity, including the Turkey Point Units 6 & 7 site. This process of surface dissolution ended in Biscayne Bay when sea level rose and flooded the Bay but continued on emergent areas, including the Turkey Point Units 6 & 7 site. The depositional morphology and paleo-dissolution morphology resulting from the Sangamon interglacial high sea level stand and Wisconsin glacial low sea level stand are preserved on the sea floor of Biscayne Bay (References 993 and 994).

The position of the freshwater/saltwater interface is approximately 6 miles inland from the bay in the vicinity of the site (Figure 2.4.12-207), groundwater beneath the site is saline (Tables 2.4.12-210 and 2.4.12-211), sea level is rising (Subsection 2.4.5.2.2.1), and there is no fresh groundwater shoreline flow near the site. Therefore, a freshwater/saltwater mixing zone that would promote further dissolution of the limestone underlying the Turkey Point Units 6 & 7 site or the dissolution features on the floor of Biscayne Bay does not exist. These features on the floor of Biscayne Bay do not appear to have the capacity for development of large underground caverns with the potential for collapse and formation of sinkholes.

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Volcanism

Based on the absence of Holocene volcanic features in the site region, no volcanic activity is anticipated in the site vicinity. The closest active volcano is found in on Utila Island off the northwest coast of Honduras, about 750 miles (1200 kilometers) southwest of the Units 6 & 7 site. Active volcanoes are also found in the Lesser Antilles. Soufrière Hills on the island of Monserrat is the closest currently active volcano, located about 1300 miles (2100 kilometers) from the Units 6 & 7 site. Pliocene-Quaternary basaltic flows from volcanic structures are well documented in southern Haiti immediately north of the Saumatre Lake and in the Dominican Republic north of the San Juan Valley. These rocks have been dated at 1 ± 0.5 Ma by K/Ar methods and may be younger ([References 816 and 818](#)).

2.5.1.2.5 Site Area Engineering Geology Evaluation

[Subsection 2.5.1.2.5](#) addresses engineering soil properties and behavior of foundation materials in [Subsection 2.5.1.2.5.1](#); zones of alteration, weathering, dissolution, and structural weakness in [Subsection 2.5.1.2.5.2](#); prior earthquake effects in [Subsection 2.5.1.2.5.3](#); and effects of human activities in [Subsection 2.5.1.2.5.4](#). Further discussions on earthquake effects are found in [Subsection 2.5.2](#). Additional discussions on soil properties and foundation materials are in [Subsection 2.5.4](#).

2.5.1.2.5.1 Engineering Soil Properties and Behavior of Foundation Materials

Engineering soil properties, including index properties, static and dynamic strength, and plasticity and compressibility are described in [Subsection 2.5.4](#). {The foundation bearing strata will be evaluated and geologically mapped as the subgrade excavation is completed to confirm that the observed properties are consistent with those used in the design and that any deformation features discovered during construction do not have the potential to compromise the safety of the plant. The NRC staff will be notified when Seismic Category I excavations are open for construction.}

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2.5.1.2.5.2 Zones of Alteration, Weathering, Dissolution, and Structural Weakness

Field reconnaissance, a review and interpretation of aerial photography, a review of published literature, and an analysis of the results of the subsurface exploration ([Reference 708](#)) found no unusual zones of alteration, weathering profiles, or structural weakness in the surface or subsurface. [Subsection 2.5.3](#) describes an

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investigation of small surface depressions in the site area that are due to surficial limestone dissolution.

In addition, **Subsection 2.5.4.4.5** describes an integrated geophysical survey that focused on the Units 6 & 7 power block areas to further evaluate the potential for carbonate dissolution features occurring at the site. {Any noted desiccation, dissolution, weathering zones, joints, or fractures will be evaluated and mapped as the subgrade excavation is completed to confirm that the mapped characteristics, such as fracture frequency, are consistent with the borehole data used in the design.}

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2.5.1-1

2.5.1.2.5.3 Prior Earthquake Effects

A ground and aerial field reconnaissance investigation were conducted in 2008 and a literature review was conducted through the middle of 2010 to identify potential earthquake-related deformation at the site. These investigations included a review of aerial photography to evaluate anomalous features including depressions, topographic highs, and lineaments. The geologic and geomorphic study found no evidence for active folding or faulting or other past earthquake activity. No features were identified during this investigation that may be related to earthquake-induced ground shaking, including liquefaction-related sand blows or lateral spread fractures. The field reconnaissance augmented and verified aspects of previous geologic maps and publications by the USGS, the FGS, and other researchers. These investigations have recognized no geomorphic, stratigraphic, or other features indicating recent tectonic deformation within the site vicinity. In addition to this field reconnaissance, a review and interpretation of aerial photography, a review of published literature, and an analysis of the results of the subsurface exploration (**Reference 708**) (**Figures 2.5.1-335, 2.5.1-334, 2.5.1-337, 2.5.1-338, 2.5.1-339, 2.5.1-340, and 2.5.1-341**) that were found no evidence of past earthquake activity or liquefaction-related features within the site area or site vicinity.

2.5.1.2.5.4 Effects of Human Activities

The anthropogenic effects in southeastern Florida of urban development, water mining, limestone mining, oil and gas development, agriculture, and construction of drainage canals have affected the regional groundwater table and associated saltwater intrusion. For example, about 208 Mgal/d of treated municipal sewage was injected into the Lower Floridan aquifer, at or below the Boulder Zone, during 1988 (**References 747 and 748**). There are no indications that the groundwater

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table has been affected at the site due to those activities. Subsection 2.4.12 contains a more detailed description of the groundwater characteristics.

No oil, gas, or metallic mineral resources have been reported in the site area. There is no present mining or excavation of nonmetallic mineral resources within the site area. The closest quarrying activities are located 8 miles (13 kilometers) from the site. No oil or gas production activities occur within the site or site area. Some oil and gas exploration has been performed in southern Florida, and approximately six dry holes were drilled within the site vicinity (Reference 373).

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Table 2.5.1-201
Locations of DSDP and ODP Drill Sites Referenced in FSAR 2.5

DSD/ ODP	Leg #	Site #	Location Name	Latitude	Longitude	Subsection #
DSDP	4	29	Beata Ridge/A" and B" Horizons	14° 47.11'N	69° 19.36'W	2.5.1.1
DSDP	15	146	Venezuelan Basin	15° 06.99'N	69° 22.67'W	2.5.1.1.2.2.7
DSDP	15	149	Venezuelan Basin	15° 06.25'N	69° 21.85'W	2.5.1.1 and 2.5.1.1.2.2.7
DSDP	15	150	Venezuelan Basin	14° 30.69'N	69° 21.35'W	2.5.1.1.2.2.7
DSDP	15	151	Beata Ridge	15° 01.02'N	73° 24.58'W	2.5.1.1.2.2.7 and 2.5.1.1.2.2.8
DSDP	15	152	Northern Nicaraguan Rise	15° 52.72'N	74° 36.47'W	2.5.1.1.2.2.6 and 2.5.1.1.2.2.7
DSDP	15	153	Aruba Gap	13° 58.33'N	72° 26.08'W	2.5.1.1.2.2.7 and 2.5.1.1.2.2.8
DSDP	15	154	Colombian Basin, drilled on Panama outer ridge	11° 05.11'N	80° 22.75'W	2.5.1.1.2.2.5
DSDP	44	391	Blake/Bahamas Basin (for location see Figure 2.5.1-214)	28° 13.73'N	75° 36.76'W	2.5.1.2.4
DSDP	68	502	Mono Rise/Colombian Basin	11° 29.42'N	79° 22.78'W	2.5.1.1.2.2.6
DSDP	76	534	Blake/Bahamas Basin	28° 20.6'N	75° 22.9'W	2.5.1.2.4
DSDP	77	537	Vicinity of the Catoche Knoll	23° 56.01'N	85° 27.62'W	2.5.1
DSDP	77	538	on top of the Catoche Knoll	23° 50.98'N	85° 10.26'W	2.5.1
ODP	101	626	Bahamas/Straits of Florida	25° 35.08'N	79° 32.73'W	2.5.1.2.4
ODP	101	627	Bahamas/Northern Slope, Little Bahama Bank	27° 38.10'N	78° 17.65'W	2.5.1.2.4
ODP	101	628	Bahamas/Little Bahama Bank, Mid-Slope	27° 31.85'W	78° 18.95'W	2.5.1.2.4
ODP	165	999	Kogi Rise in Colombian Basin	12° 44.639'N	78° 44.360'W	2.5.1.1 and 2.5.1.1.2.2.7
ODP	165	1000	Northern Nicaraguan Rise	16° 33.223'N	79° 52.044'W	2.5.1.1.2.2.5
ODP	165	1001	Southern Nicaraguan Rise/Hess Escarpment	15° 45.427'N	74° 54.627'W	2.5.1.1.2.2.5.2

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Table 2.5.1-202 (Sheet 1 of 2)
K/Pg and Cenozoic Boundary Events Affecting the Caribbean, Gulf of Mexico, and Florida Regions

Boundary Name	Boundary Event	Description
K/Pg (~65 Ma)	End-Cretaceous mass extinction event had widespread effects, including the production of toxic gases (NO, NO ₂) and nitric acid (HNO ₃), ejection of gases and dust into the stratosphere, destruction of stratospheric ozone, major wildfires that consumed most terrestrial biomass, and widespread evidence of solar radiation absorbing soot (Reference 870).	General consensus is that the K/Pg extinction event was caused by a 65.5 Ma bolide impact at the Chicxulub crater of the Yucatan Peninsula (Reference 518). The tsunami deposits associated with the impact event are found throughout the southern and southeastern U.S. and have been recovered from drill cores throughout the Gulf of Mexico, Cuba and the Caribbean (References 516 and 299).
P/E (~56 Ma)	The Paleocene to early Eocene boundary was a return to a "greenhouse" state that had occurred through most of the later Mesozoic. The entire Earth was much warmer than today on average, a condition that required efficient heat transport from the equators to the poles (Reference 871). Sedimentary oxygen isotope ratios indicate a greenhouse-related thermal maximum (Reference 872) possibly caused by one or a combination of events such as changing oceanic circulation patterns (e.g., Reference 873), continental slope failure due to increased current strengths (e.g., Reference 878), sea-level lowering (e.g., Reference 874), bolide impact (e.g., Reference 875), and explosive Caribbean volcanism (References 209 and 220).	Miller et al. (Reference 877) proposed that the early Eocene peak in global warmth and sea level was due not only to slightly higher ocean-crust production but also to a late Paleocene-early Eocene tectonic reorganization. The largest change in mid-ocean ridge length of the past 100 m.y. occurred approximately 60 to 50 Ma, associated with the opening of the Norwegian-Greenland Sea, a significant global reorganization of spreading ridges, and extrusion of 1 to 2 x 10 ⁶ kilometers ³ of basalts of the Brito-Arctic province (Reference 877). A late Paleocene to early Eocene sea-level rise coincides with this ridge-length increase, suggesting a causal relation. Miller et al. (Reference 877) suggest that this reorganization also increased CO ₂ outgassing and caused global warming to an early Eocene maximum.

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Table 2.5.1-202 (Sheet 2 of 2)
K/Pg and Cenozoic Boundary Events Affecting the Caribbean, Gulf of Mexico, and Florida Regions

Boundary Name	Boundary Event	Description
E/O (~33 Ma)	The E/O boundary is a period of climatic deterioration loosely called the "doubtless," a transition between greenhouse and icehouse conditions. Climate generally cooled progressively. The boundary is represented by changes in oceanic circulation patterns and in stable isotope composition in sediments. Changes were possibly caused by addition or withdrawal of greenhouse gases. At least three major bolide impacts also occurred at 35.5-36 Ma, but they caused no significant change in climate or extinctions (Reference 871)	The E/O boundary represents a decline of mean global temperatures by more than 10° C and was accompanied by expansion of Antarctic glaciation (Reference 883). Tectites/microtektites appear across the Caribbean Basin from the Chesapeake Bay and the Popigai bolide impacts (Reference 884). The pervasive Everglades unconformity is postulated to be due to erosion from the tsunami that followed the Chesapeake Bay impact (Reference 286). Some have suggested that CO ₂ and other greenhouse gases were locked up in methane hydrates on the seafloor (Reference 871). The opening of a seaway between the South Tasman Rise and Antarctica was very close to the E/O boundary (Reference 885).

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Table 2.5.1-203
Florida's Marine Terraces, Elevations, and Probable Ages

Terrace Name	Elevation Range (feet above MSL)	Notes	Probable Age ^{(a),(b)}
Silver Bluff	1–10	—	0.043 Ma
Princess Anne ^(c)	10–20	—	0.064 Ma
Pamlico	10–25	—	0.095–0.145 Ma
Bethera ^(d) Talbot ^(b)	25–42	Formed during pause in sea level retreat from 100–25 feet	0.210 Ma 0.120 ^(b) –0.227 Ma
Penholoway ^(b)	42–70	Formed during pause in sea level retreat from 100–25 feet	0.393–0.408 Ma ^(b)
Wicomico	70–100	Penholoway-Wicomico form single transgressive-regressive sequence	0.393 Ma
Okefenokee ^(d) Sunderland	100–170	Okefenokee and Sunderland terraces grouped by some authors	0.763 Ma 1.430 Ma
Coharie	170–215	Coharie-Sunderland form single transgressive-regressive sequence	1.650 Ma
Hazelhurst	215–320	—	1.66 to 1.98 Ma

- (a) Probable age is calculated from $\Delta H = kT$ ($k = 0.135 \times 10^{-3}$) with final correlation of high sea level data with deep-sea core stages (Reference 260). Age is given in millions of years before present (Ma).
- (b) The approximate age is derived from modeling precipitation, karstification, isostatic uplift, and sea level rise (Reference 927).
- (c) The Princess Anne terrace is not seen in Florida but is the ninth terrace that Ward (Reference 260) observes in South Carolina.
- (d) Based on terrace recognized in southern Georgia; not recognized as a separate terrace in Florida in Reference 271.
- Source: Modified from References 260, 271, and 927

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Table 2.5.1-204 (Sheet 1 of 2)
Summary of Regional Fault Zones of Cuba

Fault Name	Within Site Region (200 miles)?	Youngest Unit Offset (1989, Tectonic Map of Cuba, 1:500,000 scale)^(a)	Youngest Unit Offset (1988, Geologic Map of Cuba, 1:250,000 scale)^(b)	Assigned Age from Geologic Map of Cuba Inset (1985, 1:500,000 scale)^(c)	Assigned Age(s) from Other Sources
Baconao	No	Eocene	Not mapped	Neogene-Quaternary	Active ^(d)
Camaguey	No	Not mapped	Eocene (portions dashed)	Paleogene	Active ^(d)
Cochinos	Yes	Not mapped	Not mapped	Not mapped	Active ^(d)
Cubitas	No	Pre-Cenozoic	Early Miocene (dashed)	Mesozoic	Pliocene-Quaternary ^(d) Post-Middle Eocene ⁽ⁱ⁾
Domingo	Yes	Eocene	Eocene	Not mapped	Inactive ^(d) Late Eocene ^(e,f)
Guane	No	Not mapped	Not mapped	Paleogene	Active ^(d)
Habana -Cienfuegos	Yes	Not mapped	Not mapped	Paleogene	Active ^(d)
Hicacos	Yes	Not mapped	Miocene	Not mapped	Active ^(d)
La Trocha	No	Not mapped	Middle-Upper Miocene	Neogene-Quaternary	Pliocene-Quaternary ^(d) Eocene ^(g)
Las Villas	Yes	Eocene	Eocene (portions dashed)	Mesozoic	Pliocene-Quaternary ^(d)
Nipe	No	Not mapped	Miocene (dashed)	Neogene-Quaternary	Active ^(d) (assessment of Cauto-Nipe fault)
Nortecubana	Yes	No data (no mapping offshore)	No data (no mapping offshore)	Mesozoic and Neogene-Quaternary	Inactive ^(d)
Oriente	No	No data (no mapping offshore)	No data (no mapping offshore)	Neogene-Quaternary	Active ^(d) (assessment of Bartlett-Caiman fault) Active ⁽ⁱ⁾
Pinar	Yes	Upper Pliocene-Lower Pleistocene (also covered by same unit)	Early-Middle Miocene	Neogene-Quaternary	Inactive ^(d)
Punta Alegre	No	No data (not mapped at surface)	No data (not mapped at surface)	No data (not mapped at surface)	Unassigned ^(h)

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Table 2.5.1-204 (Sheet 2 of 2)
Summary of Regional Fault Zones of Cuba

Notes:

- (a) Mapa Tectonico de Cuba (Reference 847)
- (b) Mapa Geologico de Cuba (Reference 846)
- (c) Mapa Geologico de la Republica de Cuba (Reference 848)
- (d) Cotilla-Rodríguez et al. (Reference 494)
- (e) Iturralde-Vinent (Reference 440)
- (f) Pardo (Reference 439)
- (g) Leroy et al. (Reference 499)
- (h) Ball (Reference 468)
- (i) van Hinsbergen et al. (Reference 500)
- (j) Mann et al. (Reference 493)

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Table 2.5.1-205
Correlation of Morphotectonic Zones and Tectonic Terranes in Hispaniola

	Morphotectonic Zone	Tectonic Terrane
Zone 1	Old Bahama Trench (offshore)	—
Zone 2	Cordillera Septentrional-Samaná Peninsula	Puerto Plata-Pedro García-Río San Juan; Samaná
Zone 3	Cibao Valley	One or more of the three following terranes may be in the subsurface of Zone 3: Altamira; Tortue-Amina-Maimon; Seibo
Zone 4	Massif du Nord-Cordillera Central	Tortue-Amina-Maimon; Loma Caribe-Tavera; Duarte; Tireo; Trois Rivières-Peralta
Zone 5	Northwestern-south-central zone (includes Plateau Central, San Juan Valley, Azua Plain, Sierra de Ocoa, Presqu'île du Nord-Ouest)	Presqu'île du Nord-Ouest-Neiba
Zone 6	Cul-de-Sac Plain; Enriquillo Valley	Selle-Hotte-Bahoruco terrane appears to underlie most of the subsurface of Zone 6
Zone 7	Southern Peninsula; Massif de la Selle; Massif de la Hotte; Sierra de Bahoruco	Selle-Hotte-Bahoruco
Zone 8	Eastern Peninsula; Cordillera Oriental; Seibo coastal plain	Seibo; Oro
Zone 9	San Pedro Basin and north slope of the Muertos Trough	One or more of the following terranes may be in the subsurface of the San Pedro Basin: Loma Caribe-Tavera; Tortue-Amina-Maimon; Seibo
Zone 10	Beata Ridge and Southern Peninsula	Selle-Hotte-Bahoruco

Source: Reference 566

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Table 2.5.1-206
Tectonic Interpretation of Terranes in Hispaniola

Fragments of the Forearc / Accretionary Prism of an Island Arc	Fragments of the Volcano-Plutonic Part of an Island Arc	Fragments of Ocean Floor including Seamounts	Fragment of a Back Arc Basin	Fragment of an Oceanic Plateau
1. Samaná	3. Altamira	7. Loma Caribe-Tavera	10. Trois Rivières-Peralta	12. Selle-Hotte- Batoruco
2. Puerto Plata-Pedro García-Río San Juan	4. Oro	8. Duarte		
	5. Seibo			
	6. Tortue-Amina-Maimon			
	9. Tireo			
	11. Presqu'île du Nord-Ouest-Neiba			

Note: Numbers for tectonic terranes correspond to tectonic terranes (zones) in Figure 2.5.1-305
Modified from: Reference 566

Division of Terranes in Hispaniola Based on Deformational Characteristics ^(a)		
Stratigraphic ^(b)	Metamorphic ^(c)	Disrupted ^(d)
3. Altamira	1. Samaná	2. Puerto Plata-Pedro García-Río San Juan
4. Oro	6. Tortue-Amina-Maimon	7. Loma Caribe-Tavera
5. Seibo	8. Duarte	
9. Tireo		
11. Presqu'île du Nord-Ouest-Neiba		
12. Selle-Hotte- Batoruco		
10. Trois Rivières-Peralta		

Notes:

- (a) Numbers for tectonic terranes correspond to tectonic terranes (zones) in Figure 2.5.1-305
- (b) Stratigraphic terranes are characterized by coherent sequences of strata in which depositional relations between successive lithologic units can be demonstrated.
- (c) Metamorphic terranes are characterized by rocks metamorphosed to a high enough grade that original minerals, stratigraphic features, and stratigraphic relationships are obscured.
- (d) Disrupted terrane are characterized by brittle deformation that obscures the depositional relations between successive lithologic units.

Source: Modified from Reference 566

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Table 2.5.1-207
NOAA NGDC Database Tsunami Run-Up Events

Date	Tsunami Source	Run-up Location(s)	Distance from Source(s) (Kilometers)	Maximum Water Height
09/01/1886	Charleston, SC EQ M 7.7	Jacksonville, FL Mayport, FL	327 310	No data (eye witness reports)
08/04/1946	Dominican Republic EQ M 8.1	Daytona Beach, FL	1648	No data (tidal gage measurement)
08/08/1946	Dominican Republic EQ M 7.9	Daytona Beach, FL	1571	No data (tidal gage measurement)
07/03/1992	Probably meteorologically induced –not true tsunami (several eye witness reports of offshore fireball)	Daytona Beach, FL	No data	6 meters
		New Smyrna Beach, FL		1.2 meters
		Ormond Beach, FL		1.2 meters
		St. Augustine, FL		No data
12/26/2004	Sumatra EQ M 9.0	Trident Pier, FL	16,475	0.17 meters

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Table 2.5.1-208
Marine Terraces in the Matanzas Area of Northern Cuba (Sheet 1 of 2)

Marine Terrace (Reference 915)	Elevation of Marine Terrace (Reference 915)	Geologic Stratum (References 915 and 921)	Depositional Environment (Reference 915)	Possible Geologic Age (Reference 915)	Possible Geologic Age (Reference 921)
			Start of emergence	Start of the Upper Miocene	
			Erosion Cycle (No. 1)	Upper Miocene	
			Uplift and buckling (env. 60m)	Pliocene (?)	
			Erosion Cycle (No. 2)	Pliocene	
			Uplift (env. 80 m)		
			Erosion Cycle (No. 3)		
			Uplift and folding (10 and 45 m)		
La Rayonera	25 and 51 m		Erosion Cycle (No. 4)	Pliocene- Pleistocene	
			Uplift and folding (15 and 25 m)		
Yucayo	15 and 33 m		Erosion epicycle (No. 1)	Pliocene (?)	Pliocene- Pleistocene
			Drop in sea level: uplift, very light folding (10m)	Pliocene (?)	
Puerto	16 m		Erosion epicycle (No. 2)	Start of the Illinoian Glaciation	
			Drop in sea level (11 and 13 m)		
submarine terrace	No. 1 (-1 m)		Erosion epicycle (No.3)		
			Drop in sea level (1 m)		
submarine terrace	No. 2 (-2 and -6 m)		Erosion epicycle (No. 4)	Illinoian Glaciation Maximum	
			Drop in sea level (env. 130 m)		
Continental Shelf terrace			Erosion epicycle (No. 5)		
			Rise in eustatic sea level (11 m)		
			Jaimanitas Formation (Terraza de Seboruco), Rosario Terrace (continental alluvial terrace)	Formation of fringing reefs on uplifted alluvium deposits	Sangamon Interglacial

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Table 2.5.1-208
Marine Terraces in the Matanzas Area of Northern Cuba (Sheet 2 of 2)

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Marine Terrace (Reference 915)	Elevation of Marine Terrace (Reference 915)	Geologic Stratum (References 915 and 921)	Depositional Environment (Reference 915)	Possible Geologic Age (Reference 915)	Possible Geologic Age (Reference 921)
Limits of the Terraza de Seboruco	+/- 8 m		Drop in sea level (env. 12 m)	Start of the Wisconsinan Glaciation	
submarine terrace	No. 3 (-10 and -17 m)		Erosion epicycle (No. 6)		
			Drop in sea level (env. 10 m)		
submarine terrace	No. 4 (-20 and -55 m)		Erosion epicycle (No. 7)		
			Drop in sea level (env. 110 m)	Wisconsinan Glaciation Maximum	
Limit of the Restart of the Continental Plate			Erosion epicycle (No. 8)		
			Eustatic rise to present sea level	Flandrian Transgression	
			Recent alluvium		

Source: References 915 and 921

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Table 2.5.1-209
Marine Terrace Sequences in Southern Florida

Epoch	Litho-stratigraphic Unit	Marine Sequence Stratigraphic Unit	Radiometric Age Date (ka)	Sample Location	Depth/Elevation	MIS
Pleistocene	Key Largo Limestone/ Miami Limestone	Q5e (youngest)	130–121	Windley Key, Upper Matecumbe Key and Key Largo	~4.9 to 5.3 meters above sea level at Windley Key Quarry, water depths of ~16 and ~22 meters	5e
		Q5c	112.4 to 77.8	Conch Reef, Looe Key, Carysfort Light area and Molasses Reef	water depth of -15.2 and -15.5 meters (Carysfort Light area)	5c
		Q5a				5a
		Q4b?	230–220	Long Key Quarry	~0.7 to 3.5 meters above sea level	7
	Fort Thompson Formation	Q4a	340–300	Point Pleasant Core	NR	9
		Q3	***	Grossman Ridge Rock	NR	11
		Q2	***	Reef and Joe Ree		11
		Q1 (oldest)	***	Rock Reef		11?

Notes:

"?" uncertainty

*** no reliable dates (Reference 928)

NR- denotes the elevations are not recorded in Reference 928

The Radiometric Age Date column is derived from Uranium-series ages ($^{234}\text{U}/^{238}\text{U}$) on corals and thermal ionization mass-spectrometric Uranium-Thorium (TIMS U-Th) dating.

The Depth Column is approximate.

Source: References 928, 929, 930, and 933

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Table 2.5.1-210
Rod Drops at the Turkey Point Units 6 & 7 Area

Boring ID	From	To	Rod Drop	Stratigraphic Unit
	(Depth, feet)	(Depth, feet)	(Length, feet)	
B-637	28.6	30.6	2	Miami Limestone
B-714	112	113	1	Fort Thompson Formation
B-738	71.9	74.5	2.6	Fort Thompson Formation
B-805	27	30	3	Miami Limestone
B-811	61.3	65.3	4	Fort Thompson Formation
B-814	87.6	88.1	0.5	Fort Thompson Formation

Note: No rod drops in the Power Blocks. B-714 is located in the Annex Building footprint in Unit 7.

Source: Reference 708

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