

758, 62 Stat. 1155 (June 30, 1948), which focused on State water quality standards rather than the conduct of individual polluters. See *EPA v. California ex rel. State Water Res. Control Bd.*, 426 U.S. 200, 202–03 (1976). In 1972, Congress enacted the Clean Water Act after concluding that these prior efforts had been “inadequate in every vital aspect.” S. Rep. No. 414, 92d Cong., 1st Sess. 7 (1971). The Clean Water Act was a “complete rewriting” of existing law, designed to “establish an all-encompassing program of water pollution regulation.” *City of Milwaukee*, 451 U.S. at 317–18 (1981) (citation omitted).

More recently, the Supreme Court in *Maui* identified a key dividing line between the areas where Congress intended to create a comprehensive floor of Federal water quality protections and those areas generally left to the States, observing that “the structure of the [Clean Water Act] indicates that, as to groundwater pollution and nonpoint source pollution, Congress intended to leave substantial responsibility and autonomy to the States.” 140 S. Ct. at 1471 (citing Clean Water Act section 101(b)). The Clean Water Act thus sets a baseline of Federal protection for waters that meet the definition of “waters of the United States” and authorizes States to be more protective than the Act while also leaving substantial responsibility and autonomy to the States over those waters that do not have a significant nexus to the core waters covered by the Act. The agencies also agree that partnerships with Tribes, States, and local governments are important and can help facilitate meeting the objective of the Act and have coordinated with these entities over the course of this rulemaking to ensure that they had opportunities to provide input on this rule and will continue to work with Tribes and States to implement this rule.

b. Comments Regarding Supreme Court Case Law and the Significant Nexus and Relatively Permanent Standards

Many commenters addressed the legal standard for determining the controlling opinion in *Rapanos*. In particular, many commenters cited *Marks v. United States*, 430 U.S. 188 (1977) to support assertions around what controlling legal principles may be derived from the opinion of five or more Supreme Court Justices when there is no majority. Relying on *Marks*, some of these commenters asserted that the *Rapanos* plurality opinion should control the definition of “waters of the United States,” while other commenters stated

that *Marks* allows for use of either the plurality’s relatively permanent standard or Justice Kennedy’s significant nexus standard to assess Clean Water Act jurisdiction. As discussed above, the applicability of *Marks* is not the relevant inquiry for purposes of this rule. Rather, this rule reflects the agencies’ interpretation of the statute, informed by Supreme Court precedent, not an interpretation of the *Rapanos* decision.

The agencies received many comments on the proposed rule’s reliance on and approach to the significant nexus standard. As explained in section IV.A.3.a of this preamble, the agencies have concluded that the significant nexus standard is consistent with the statutory text and legislative history, advances the objective of the Clean Water Act, is informed by the scientific record and Supreme Court case law, and appropriately considers the policies of the Act. The agencies have the authority to define the scope of the term “navigable waters,” and they are exercising that authority in this rule. A principal advantage of the significant nexus standard is that it focuses directly and specifically on protecting the integrity of those waters in which the Federal interest is indisputable—traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters. Further, while the agencies disagree that this rule’s significant nexus standard is inconsistent with Justice Kennedy’s concurring opinion in *Rapanos* (as some commenters had suggested), this rule represents the agencies’ interpretation of the statute, not an interpretation of *Rapanos*. The agencies have concluded that the significant nexus standard as established in this rule is the best interpretation of the statute and that the relatively permanent standard in the rule provides important efficiencies and additional clarity for regulators and the public. Thus, the rule gives effect to the Clean Water Act’s broad terms and environmentally protective aim as well as its limitations.

Some commenters suggested that the significant nexus standard is unclear or produces inconsistent results. In response to this concern, the agencies have established a definition of “significantly affect” in this rule, provided additional guidance on applying the significant nexus standard, and identified implementation tools and resources that will work together to provide clarity and further consistency in implementing the significant nexus standard (see section IV.C.9 and section IV.G of this preamble). The agencies have concluded that these actions, along

with the agencies’ extensive experience making determinations under the significant nexus standard, will increase the clarity and consistency of determinations of jurisdiction.

Several commenters discussed whether the proposed rule is consistent with Justice Scalia’s plurality opinion in *Rapanos* and expressed various views about the proper interpretation of that opinion. As discussed in section IV.A.3.a of this preamble, the agencies have concluded that use of the plurality’s approach alone has no grounding in the Clean Water Act’s text, structure, or history and would upend an understanding of the Act’s coverage that has prevailed for decades. Similarly, no Court of Appeals has held that the plurality’s relatively permanent standard is the sole test that may be used to establish Clean Water Act jurisdiction. Additionally, requiring a continuous surface water connection, as suggested by some commenters, would add a requirement and language that do not exist in the text of the plurality opinion. The plurality opinion states that “continuous surface connection” is a “physical-connection requirement.” *Rapanos*, 547 U.S. at 742, 751 n.13 (referring to “our [the plurality’s] physical-connection requirement” and asserting that *Riverside Bayview* does not reject “the physical-connection requirement”). The plurality does not state that this standard is a continuous surface water requirement. Therefore, the agencies disagree that their longstanding implementation of the continuous surface connection requirement (see *Rapanos* Guidance at 7 n.28), which does not require a continuous flow of water between the wetland and the jurisdictional water, is inconsistent with the plurality opinion. In addition, a continuous surface water connection for wetlands is illogical when many wetlands have surface water only seasonally or intermittently or meet the wetland hydrology factor through saturated soils, a high water table, or other indicators of hydrology, and no scientific or regulatory definition of wetlands demands year-round surface water. See, e.g., 33 CFR 328.3(b) (2008); NRC Report 3–5; see also 85 FR 22309 (explaining that “not all abutting wetlands display surface water as the wetland hydrology factor but rather may have saturated soils, a high water table, or other indicators of hydrology”). See section IV.C.5.c.ii of this preamble for further discussion of the basis for the agencies’ implementation of the continuous surface connection requirement in this rule.

Additionally, multiple commenters suggested that the relatively permanent

standard is easier to apply than the significant nexus standard. While the agencies recognize that the relatively permanent standard can be easier to apply in many instances, that is not always the case. For example, in the case of a tributary that flows directly into a traditional navigable water, it may be easier to demonstrate that the tributary significantly affects the chemical, physical, or biological integrity of that paragraph (a)(1) water due to its direct contribution of flow, woody debris, and other materials and its close distance to the traditional navigable water than it would be to demonstrate that the flow in that tributary meets the relatively permanent standard. More importantly, greater simplicity that comes at the expense of a profound mismatch with the Clean Water Act's design is not a valid basis for determining the jurisdictional scope of the Act. *Cf. Maui*, 140 S. Ct. at 1470, 1476 (rejecting similar arguments about a need for bright-line certainty in favor of a fact-specific test). Further, treating the relatively permanent standard as the exclusive criterion for Clean Water Act coverage would lead to arbitrary and illogical results. The 2020 NWPR did rely primarily on the relatively permanent standard and, in doing so, introduced new implementation uncertainties, including uncertainties related to the rule's case-specific typical year analysis, which the 2020 NWPR required for most categories of jurisdictional waters and that proved challenging to implement and yielded arbitrary results (*see* section III.B.3 and IV.B.3 of this preamble). In contrast, as discussed above, the agencies now have over a decade of nationwide experience with the significant nexus standard, and it has proven to be eminently administrable. Moreover, the agencies have made changes to this rule to increase the ease of implementation of the significant nexus standard.

Commenters also provided a variety of views on the consistency of the proposed rule with the *SWANCC* Supreme Court decision. Some commenters expressed concern that the proposed rule would expand Federal jurisdiction over potentially all State waters, contrary to the Supreme Court's holding in *SWANCC* that—absent a clear statement from Congress—the Clean Water Act must be construed in a manner that avoids federalism and constitutional questions. The agencies disagree that this rule is contrary to the Supreme Court's holding in *SWANCC* and note that a principal advantage of the significant nexus standard is that it focuses directly and specifically on

protecting traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters. By design, the significant nexus standard thereby permits jurisdiction over waters only if they significantly affect the waters over which Congress has unquestioned authority. *See, e.g., United States v. Lopez*, 514 U.S. 549, 558–59 (1995); *Hodel v. Va. Surface Mining & Reclamation Ass'n*, 452 U.S. 264, 282 (1981). Thus, an affirmative finding under the significant nexus standard is, by definition, a finding that Congress's core purpose is implicated. Commenters' constitutional concerns are therefore fully addressed by this rule.

In addition, a few commenters asserted that the Supreme Court in *SWANCC* rejected the notion that a biological or ecological connection alone is sufficient to support a finding of significant nexus. This reading of *SWANCC* is not correct. The Court in *SWANCC* did not hold that the particular “ecological considerations upon which the Corps relied in *Riverside Bayview*,” *Rapanos*, 547 U.S. at 741—*i.e.*, the potential importance of wetlands to the quality of adjacent waters—were irrelevant to Clean Water Act jurisdiction. Rather, the Court held that a different ecological concern—namely, the potential use of the isolated ponds as habitat for migratory birds—could not justify treating those ponds as “waters of the United States.” *See SWANCC*, 531 U.S. at 164–65, 171–72. The Court found that this specific ecological concern was not cognizable because it was unrelated to “what Congress had in mind as its authority for enacting the CWA: its traditional jurisdiction over waters that were or had been navigable in fact or which could reasonably be so made.” *Id.* at 172. In contrast, in this rule, the agencies, through application of the significant nexus standard, provide Federal protections for adjacent wetlands and other categories of waters based on their importance to the chemical, physical, or biological integrity of traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters. In addition, the objective of the Clean Water Act is “to restore and maintain the chemical, physical, and *biological integrity* of the Nation's waters.” 33 U.S.C. 1251(a) (emphasis added). Among the means to achieve the Clean Water Act's objective, Congress established an interim national goal to achieve wherever possible “water quality which provides for the protection and propagation of fish, shellfish, and wildlife and provides for recreation in and on the water.” 33 U.S.C. 1251(a)(2). Therefore, the

agencies disagree that consideration of biological effects on paragraph (a)(1) waters is inconsistent with the Clean Water Act.

Finally, several commenters asserted that the Clean Water Act requires broader protections than those afforded by the significant nexus standard and relatively permanent standard. The agencies agree that the Clean Water Act requires broader protection than the relatively permanent standard, but have concluded, as explained in section IV.A.3 of this preamble, that the significant nexus standard is the best construction of the scope of the Clean Water Act.

c. Comments Regarding Categories of Waters in This Rule

Multiple commenters expressed concern that the proposed rule would exceed the agencies' statutory authority by providing for jurisdiction over broad categories of waters (for example, tributaries) that the commenters asserted are not within the limits of the Clean Water Act pursuant to *Rapanos*. The agencies disagree. As explained above, this rule reflects the agencies' independent judgment on the scope of “waters of the United States” based on the text of the relevant provisions of the Clean Water Act and the statute as a whole, the objective and history of the Clean Water Act, the scientific record, the agencies' experience and technical expertise, and other relevant Supreme Court cases. This rule reflects carefully tailored modifications to the 1986 regulations to incorporate both the relatively permanent standard and the significant nexus standard such that the waters covered by the definition are within the limits of the Clean Water Act.

Many commenters discussed the agencies' legal authority to assert jurisdiction over tributaries, including specific types of tributaries (*e.g.*, ephemeral, intermittent, and perennial). Some commenters asserted that providing for jurisdiction over ephemeral and intermittent streams in the definition of “waters of the United States” is not supported by *Rapanos*. In this rule, the agencies are neither categorically including nor categorically excluding ephemeral and intermittent tributaries. Nor are the agencies codifying the opinions in *Rapanos*. Rather, the agencies are interpreting the phrase “waters of the United States” to include tributaries that meet either the significant nexus standard or the relatively permanent standard based on their conclusions in section IV.A of this preamble. Further, there is nothing in the text of the statute or its legislative history that excludes some categories of

tributaries based on their flow regime. Indeed, as discussed further below, the best available science demonstrates that ephemeral and intermittent streams can significantly affect the chemical, physical, and biological integrity of paragraph (a)(1) waters—*i.e.*, traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters.

Multiple commenters suggested that, pursuant to Supreme Court precedent and the Clean Water Act, jurisdiction over non-navigable tributaries should be limited to tributaries (1) containing clearly discernible features and contributing consistent flow into traditional navigable waters; or (2) that carry a volume of water needed for navigable capacity of a traditional navigable water; or (3) of a quality needed for interstate commerce, where impairment of water quality would have a negative effect on interstate commerce. The agencies disagree that the case law, the statute, or the Constitution provide these precise limitations on the scope of tributaries covered by the Clean Water Act. The text of “navigable waters,” and of its specialized definition, does not include particular flow requirements. As discussed further below, the agencies have concluded that tributaries that meet either the relatively permanent standard or the significant nexus standard are “waters of the United States,” and flow is a consideration under both standards. These limitations are informed by Supreme Court case law and designed to be well within constitutional limits.

In contrast, other commenters asserted that tributaries should be categorically jurisdictional rather than subject to a case-specific analysis and that the *Rapanos* decision supports a categorical approach. The agencies agree that Justice Kennedy’s concurring opinion in *Rapanos* did not reject the agencies’ then-existing regulations governing tributaries, which were more categorical than this rule. 547 U.S. at 781; *see also id.* at 761. More broadly, it is a well-established principle of administrative law that agencies may choose to proceed via rulemaking or adjudication. *NLRB v. Bell Aerospace Co. Div. of Textron, Inc.*, 416 U.S. 267, 294 (1974) (“[T]he choice between rulemaking and adjudication lies in the first instance within the [agency’s] discretion.”). With respect to the significant nexus standard in particular, Justice Kennedy stated that the agencies could proceed to determine tributaries and their adjacent wetlands jurisdictional through regulations or adjudication. *See Rapanos*, 547 U.S. at 780–81. As explained in section IV.A.3.a.iii of this preamble, the

agencies have concluded that adjudication of which tributaries are within Clean Water Act protections, through case-specific application of the significant nexus standard or the relatively permanent standard under this rule, is appropriate. *See* section IV.C.10 of this preamble for additional guidance to landowners on determinations of jurisdiction and the appeals process for such determinations.

Many commenters also discussed the agencies’ legal authority to assert jurisdiction over adjacent wetlands. Some commenters stated that the proposed rule’s relatively permanent standard was inconsistent with the *Rapanos* plurality opinion, asserting that the plurality opinion requires a continuous surface connection for adjacent wetlands to be jurisdictional. As stated elsewhere, the agencies disagree that the relatively permanent standard as applied in this rule is inconsistent with the plurality opinion. Under this rule, an adjacent wetland is jurisdictional if there is a continuous surface connection between that adjacent wetland and a paragraph (a)(2) impoundment or jurisdictional tributary when the paragraph (a)(2) impoundment or jurisdictional tributary is relatively permanent.

In addition, some commenters expressed concern that the proposed rule’s aggregation of wetlands and the relevant reach approach would be contrary to Justice Kennedy’s significant nexus standard, which the commenters suggested requires that each wetland be judged in its own right. The agencies disagree that aggregation of wetlands and their tributaries is inconsistent with the significant nexus standard. First, Justice Kennedy explicitly stated that similarly situated waters should be assessed for a significant nexus “alone or in combination.” *Rapanos*, 547 U.S. at 780. Justice Kennedy understood that waters provide critical functions to downstream waters in combination, explaining: “With respect to wetlands, the rationale for Clean Water Act regulation is, as the Corps has recognized, that wetlands can perform critical functions related to the integrity of other waters—functions such as pollutant trapping, flood control, and runoff storage. Accordingly, wetlands possess the requisite nexus, and thus come within the statutory phrase ‘navigable waters,’ if the wetlands, either alone or in combination with similarly situated lands in the region, significantly affect the chemical, physical, and biological integrity of other covered waters more readily understood as ‘navigable.’” *Id.* at 779–

780 (citing 33 CFR 320.4(b)(2)). And Justice Kennedy’s understanding is scientifically correct—though filling in a single wetland might not on its own materially influence a paragraph (a)(1) water, its impact is more likely to be significant when evaluated in combination with other similarly situated waters. Second, the agencies interpret “waters of the United States” to include waters that meet the significant nexus standard as codified in this rule because the agencies have determined, informed by the best available science and the text, structure, and legislative history of the Clean Water Act, that this standard, including the aggregation of waters authorized by it, advances the objective of the Act. The agencies have also established a definition of “significantly affect” in this rule that identifies the factors and the functions for determining whether the significant nexus standard is met, thus ensuring that the agencies’ determinations of jurisdiction are based on consistent application of sound scientific principles.

Further, several commenters stated that the agencies should assert jurisdiction only over those wetlands that directly abut other “waters of the United States.” These commenters asserted that doing otherwise would exceed the constitutional limits of the agencies’ Clean Water Act jurisdiction. For the reasons discussed above, the agencies disagree that only wetlands that directly abut other “waters of the United States” should be jurisdictional. Moreover, as discussed elsewhere in this preamble, the addition of the significant nexus standard in this rule ensures that the definition of “waters of the United States” does not exceed constitutional limits.

In contrast, several commenters asserted that all adjacent wetlands—not just those adjacent to the paragraph (a)(1) waters—should be categorically jurisdictional. Some of these commenters suggested that providing categorical protection for such wetlands is necessary to achieve the Clean Water Act’s statutory objective. The agencies agree that providing categorical protection of adjacent wetlands can be a means of achieving the Act’s objective but disagree that it is the only means. As noted by Justice Kennedy, the agencies can reasonably proceed to determine which tributaries and their adjacent wetlands are jurisdictional through regulations or adjudication, *see* 547 U.S. at 780–81; *see also NLRB v. Bell Aerospace Co. Div. of Textron, Inc.*, 416 U.S. at 294. With respect to wetlands adjacent to tributaries, the agencies are requiring case-specific determinations

of whether such wetlands meet the relatively permanent standard or the significant nexus standard to be jurisdictional under this rule.

Many commenters also addressed the agencies' legal authority to assert jurisdiction over paragraph (a)(5) waters (the category of waters described in paragraph (a)(3) of the proposed rule). Some commenters suggested that, per the Supreme Court's decision in *SWANCC*, the agencies lack authority to assert jurisdiction over paragraph (a)(5) waters or that, under *Rapanos*, the significant nexus standard should be applied only to tributaries or wetlands adjacent to tributaries, not to paragraph (a)(5) waters. First, as explained further in section IV.A.1 of this preamble, in this rule the agencies are exercising the authority granted to them by Congress to construe and implement the Clean Water Act and to interpret an ambiguous term and its statutory definition. Therefore, while the agencies' interpretation of the statute is informed by Supreme Court decisions, including *Rapanos*, it is not an interpretation of *SWANCC* or the multiple opinions in *Rapanos*, nor is it based on an application of the Supreme Court's principles as set forth in *Marks* to derive a governing rule of law from a decision of the Court in a case such as *Rapanos* where no opinion commands a majority. Furthermore, the agencies disagree that asserting jurisdiction over any waters that meet the significant nexus standard, including any paragraph (a)(5) waters, is inconsistent with *SWANCC* or *Rapanos*. Based on the law, the science, and agency expertise, the agencies conclude that the significant nexus standard applies to tributaries, adjacent wetlands, and intrastate lakes and ponds, streams, or wetlands not covered by other categories (*i.e.*, paragraphs (a)(3), (a)(4), and (a)(5) waters under this rule). Justice Kennedy's explication of the significant nexus standard applies to each of these types of waters. In *Rapanos*, Justice Kennedy reasoned that *Riverside Bayview* and *SWANCC* "establish the framework for" determining whether an assertion of regulatory jurisdiction constitutes a reasonable interpretation of "navigable waters"—"the connection between a nonnavigable water or wetland and a navigable water may be so close, or potentially so close, that the Corps may deem the water or wetland a 'navigable water' under the Act;" and "[a]bsent a significant nexus, jurisdiction under the Act is lacking." 547 U.S. at 767. Justice Kennedy further explained that "[t]he required nexus must be assessed in

terms of the statute's goals and purposes. Congress enacted the law to 'restore and maintain the chemical, physical, and biological integrity of the Nation's waters,' and it pursued that objective by restricting dumping and filling in 'navigable waters.'" *Id.* at 779 (citing 33 U.S.C. 1251(a), 1311(a), 1362(12)). Justice Kennedy then concluded that the term "waters of the United States" encompasses wetlands and other waters that "possess a 'significant nexus' to waters that are or were navigable in fact or that could reasonably be so made." *Id.* at 759 (citation omitted). While Justice Kennedy's discussion of the application of the significant nexus standard focused on adjacent wetlands in light of the facts of the cases before him, his opinion is clear that he does not conclude that the significant nexus analysis applies only to adjacent wetlands. As he explicitly states, "the connection between a nonnavigable water or wetland and a navigable water may be so close, or potentially so close, that the Corps may deem the water or wetland a 'navigable water' under the Act." *Id.* at 767 (emphasis added). Fundamentally, Justice Kennedy's significant nexus analysis is about the fact, long acknowledged by Supreme Court case law, that protection of waters from pollution can be achieved only by controlling pollution of upstream waters. In addition, the Court in *SWANCC* did not hold that "other waters" (a category that has been modified and codified in this rule as paragraph (a)(5) waters) could never be jurisdictional; rather it held that the potential use of isolated ponds as habitat for migratory birds could not be used as the sole basis to justify treating those ponds as "waters of the United States." *See* 531 U.S. at 164–65, 171–72. Indeed, the *SWANCC* Court in describing *Riverside Bayview* stated that "it was the significant nexus between the wetlands and 'navigable waters' that informed our reading of the CWA" in that case. *Id.* at 167. In this rule, the agencies are not protecting paragraph (a)(5) waters based on their potential use as habitat for migratory birds or based on their use broadly in interstate commerce as the 1986 regulations did. Instead, this rule includes paragraph (a)(5) waters on a case-specific basis based on their importance to the integrity of traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters because they meet either the relatively permanent standard or the significant nexus standard.

Other commenters stated that the proposed rule does not go far enough in

protecting paragraph (a)(5) waters. The agencies have concluded that this rule's reliance on the relatively permanent standard and significant nexus standard properly balances the Clean Water Act's broad statutory objective, while giving meaning to the word "navigable." Accordingly, the agencies are not asserting jurisdiction over waters and wetlands simply where "the use, degradation or destruction of [such waters] could affect interstate or foreign commerce." *Cf.* 33 CFR 328.3(a)(3) (1999).

B. Alternatives to This Rule

In promulgating a rule to repeal existing regulations, agencies must address and consider alternative ways of achieving the relevant statute's objectives and must provide adequate reasons to abandon those alternatives. *Motor Vehicle Mfrs. Ass'n v. State Farm Mut. Auto. Ins. Co.*, 463 U.S. 29, 48 (1983); *see also FCC v. Fox Television Stations, Inc.*, 556 U.S. 502, 515 (2009). As discussed below, the agencies have thoroughly considered alternatives to this rule and have concluded that this final rule best accomplishes the agencies' goals to promulgate a rule that advances the objective of the Clean Water Act, is consistent with Supreme Court decisions, is informed by the best available science, and promptly and durably restores vital protections to the nation's waters. The agencies have reconsidered the policies, interpretations, and conclusions of the 2020 NWPR. Although the 2020 NWPR has been vacated, it is the text currently in the Code of Federal Regulations. For the reasons articulated in this preamble, the agencies are changing their approach from that of the 2020 NWPR to interpreting the scope of "waters of the United States."

1. 2015 Clean Water Rule

The agencies are not repromulgating the 2015 Clean Water Rule. Unlike aspects of the 2015 Clean Water Rule, this rule is not based on categorical significant nexus determinations. Rather, this rule generally restores the longstanding and familiar categories of the 1986 regulations and establishes jurisdictional limitations based on case-specific application of the relatively permanent standard and the significant nexus standard to certain categories of waters in the rule.

Many commenters expressed support for the 2015 Clean Water Rule because they viewed it as informed by science, and because under that rule certain types of waters were categorically jurisdictional, which eliminated the need for extensive case-by-case

jurisdictional determinations. Many other commenters asserted that they did not support the 2015 Clean Water Rule because they viewed that rule as expanding Federal jurisdiction over waters that should not be jurisdictional. The agencies have concluded that the 2015 Clean Water Rule, while designed to advance the objective of the Clean Water Act, is not the best alternative to meet the policy goals of the agencies: to quickly promulgate a durable rule that retains the protections of the longstanding regulatory framework and avoids harms to important aquatic resources, informed by the best available science and consistent with the agencies' determination of the statutory limits on the scope of the "waters of the United States," informed by relevant Supreme Court case law. Moreover, agencies may choose to proceed via rulemaking or adjudication. *NLRB v. Bell Aerospace Co.*, 416 U.S. 267, 294 (1974) ("[T]he choice between rulemaking and adjudication lies in the first instance within the [agency's] discretion."). With respect to the significant nexus standard in particular, Justice Kennedy also stated that the agencies could proceed to determine tributaries and their adjacent wetlands jurisdictional through regulations or adjudication. See 547 U.S. at 780–81. As explained in section IV.A.3.a.iii of this preamble, the agencies have concluded that the approach in this rule—*i.e.*, providing categorical jurisdiction for paragraph (a)(1) waters and for wetlands adjacent to paragraph (a)(1) waters, and adjudicating which waters in paragraphs (a)(2) through (5) are "waters of the United States" through case-specific application of the significant nexus standard or the relatively permanent standard under this rule—is appropriate and fulfills the goals of the agencies and the objective of the Clean Water Act.

2. 2019 Repeal Rule

The agencies agree with the concept in the 2019 Repeal Rule of returning to the pre-2015 regulatory framework as a means of restoring a longstanding and familiar regulatory regime,⁶⁷ but find that this rule is preferable to the 2019 Repeal Rule for several reasons. As an initial matter, like the 2019 Repeal Rule, this rule seeks to return generally to the

longstanding regulatory framework that existed prior to the 2015 Clean Water Rule, but this rule also restores those regulations with necessary limitations to ensure the definition of "waters of the United States" reflects consideration of the agencies' statutory authority under the Clean Water Act and relevant Supreme Court decisions. Additionally, compared to the 2019 Repeal Rule, this rule provides greater clarity by adding a new definition of "significantly affect" and by streamlining and restructuring the 1986 regulations, including by consolidating certain provisions. This rule also codifies a number of exclusions for features that were generally considered non-jurisdictional under the pre-2015 regulatory regime and thus provides more clarity and certainty than the 2019 Repeal Rule.

Moreover, the agencies have substantial concerns regarding the legal rationale underpinning the 2019 Repeal Rule. In particular, the agencies are concerned that the interpretation of relevant Supreme Court case law in the 2019 Repeal Rule is flawed and thereby led to an erroneous assessment of the legality of the approach to the significant nexus standard in the 2015 Clean Water Rule. See, *e.g.*, 84 FR 56638–52 (October 22, 2019). The agencies' reading of the Clean Water Act in the 2019 Repeal Rule is also inconsistent with the agencies' considered interpretation, at this time, of the Act. For these reasons, the agencies find that the 2019 Repeal Rule is not an appropriate alternative to this rule.

3. 2020 NWPR

The agencies have also evaluated the 2020 NWPR as an alternative to this rule. After carefully considering the 2020 NWPR in light of the text, objective, and legislative history of the Clean Water Act, Supreme Court case law, the best available scientific information, and the agencies' experience in implementing it for over a year, the agencies do not find that the 2020 NWPR is a suitable alternative to this rule.

a. The 2020 NWPR Failed To Advance the Objective of the Clean Water Act

The agencies do not consider the 2020 NWPR to have advanced the statutory objective of the Clean Water Act, which the Supreme Court recently emphasized is an important aspect of defining the jurisdictional scope of the Act. See, *e.g.*, *Maui*, 140 S. Ct. at 1468–69 (emphasizing the importance of considering the Clean Water Act's objective when determining the scope of the Act and finding that "[t]he Act's

provisions use specific definitional language to achieve this result," including the phrase "navigable waters"). One critical example of the 2020 NWPR's failure to advance the Clean Water Act's objective is its removal of the significant nexus standard without considering an alternative approach to protecting waters that significantly affect paragraph (a)(1) waters. To be clear, while the agencies view the significant nexus standard as the best interpretation of section 502(7) of the Clean Water Act, the agencies do not view the Supreme Court's interpretations of the scope of "waters of the United States" as requiring adoption of that approach. *Rapanos*, 547 U.S. at 758 (Roberts, C.J., concurring). Yet the 2020 NWPR's rejection of the significant nexus standard while failing to adopt any alternative standard for jurisdiction that adequately addresses the effects of degradation of upstream waters on paragraph (a)(1) waters, fails to advance the Clean Water Act's objective.

The significant nexus inquiry reflects and furthers the objective of the Clean Water Act by allowing for a scientific evaluation of the effect of wetlands, tributaries, and other types of waters on paragraph (a)(1) waters. For that reason, evolving forms of this inquiry are present in *Riverside Bayview*, *SWANCC*, and Justice Kennedy's concurring opinion in *Rapanos*. The 2020 NWPR rejected this scientific approach and instead, for example, categorically excluded ephemeral features without appropriately considering scientific information about their important effects on the integrity of paragraph (a)(1) waters. In addition, in limiting the scope of protected wetlands to those that touch other jurisdictional waters or demonstrate evidence (which could include a natural berm, bank, dune, or similar natural feature) of a regular surface water connection to other jurisdictional waters, the 2020 NWPR failed to appropriately consider the many effects of other categories of wetlands on paragraph (a)(1) waters. For example, ephemeral streams that flow directly into the Rio Grande (a traditional navigable water) and wetlands separated from the Mississippi River (a traditional navigable water) by artificial levees and that lack a direct hydrologic surface connection to the river in a typical year, would be non-jurisdictional under the 2020 NWPR, yet both can have significant effects on these traditional navigable waters.

The 2020 NWPR contended that the drastic reduction in the scope of Clean Water Act jurisdiction "pursues" the objective of the Act because it would be

⁶⁷ 2019 Repeal Rule, Response to Comments at 9 ("The agencies find that reinstating the longstanding and familiar pre-2015 Rule regulatory regime will provide regulatory certainty in this interim period"), 15 ("[T]his final rule to recodify the 1986 regulations will provide greater regulatory certainty and nationwide consistency while the agencies consider public comments on the proposed revised definition of "waters of the United States.").

supplemented by the Act's non-regulatory programs as well as Tribal, State, and local efforts. The 2020 NWPR explained: "The CWA's longstanding regulatory permitting programs, coupled with the controls that States, Tribes, and local entities choose to exercise over their land and water resources, will continue to address the discharge of pollutants into waters of the United States, and the CWA's non-regulatory measures will continue to address pollution of the nation's waters generally. These programs and measures collectively pursue the objective of restoring and maintaining the chemical, physical, and biological integrity of the nation's waters." 85 FR 22269 (April 21, 2020). The agencies disagree with the 2020 NWPR's assertion that such "collective pursuit" of the objective of the Clean Water Act based on these programs and measures appropriately considers the objective of the Act and have concluded that the 2020 NWPR did not advance the objective of the Act, the proper measure under the statute and Supreme Court case law of a rule defining "waters of the United States."

The agencies agree with the 2020 NWPR's position that the Clean Water Act's non-regulatory measures, such as grantmaking and technical assistance authorities, advance the objective the Act. However, the agencies do not view these authorities as limiting the scope of "waters of the United States," or as relevant to determining whether a definition of "waters of the United States" advances the objective of the Clean Water Act. The non-regulatory Clean Water Act programs cited by the 2020 NWPR complement and support the permitting programs at the core of the Act, rather than limiting their geographic scope. For example, the 2020 NWPR cited the Clean Water Act's provisions to address pollution into key waters in its discussion, including the Great Lakes, 33 U.S.C. 1258, the Chesapeake Bay, *see id.* at 1267(a)(3), Long Island Sound, *see id.* at 1269(c)(2)(D), and Lake Champlain, *see id.* at 1270(g)(2). These resources are "waters of the United States" to which regulatory programs apply, and the technical assistance and grants in the cited sections assist States and others in achieving the requirements of the Clean Water Act, but they do not limit the regulatory programs' scope. To the extent there is ambiguity as to the effects of these non-regulatory programs on the scope of the "waters of the United States," the agencies have concluded based on the text and structure of the statute that they are complementary, rather than limiting.

As discussed in section III.A of this preamble, the Clean Water Act's fundamental innovation in 1972 was to "establish an all-encompassing program of water pollution regulation," *Int'l Paper Co. v. Ouellette*, 479 U.S. 481, 492–93 (1987). The definition of "waters of the United States" establishes the scope of that program. The agencies therefore find that it is appropriate to consider whether the definition of the scope of waters to which the Clean Water Act's water pollution regulations apply helps to achieve that objective. Thus, the 2020 NWPR's statement that this rule "pursues" the objective of the Act if Clean Water Act and non-Clean Water Act programs are viewed in "combination" is not consistent with the better reading of the text and structure of the Act, its legislative history, or Supreme Court decisions concerning the effect of enactment of the Clean Water Act in 1972, nor does it fulfill the agencies' obligation to consider the objective of the Clean Water Act by assessing the water quality effects of revising the definition of "waters of the United States."

The preamble to the 2020 NWPR also cited the introductory policy provision of the Clean Water Act in section 101(b), to protect the "primary responsibilities and rights of States to prevent, reduce, and eliminate pollution" as a justification, in part, for its line-drawing. For example, one of the most environmentally significant decisions in the 2020 NWPR was its categorical exclusion of all ephemeral features from Clean Water Act jurisdiction. The agencies cited section 101(b) as a basis for this exclusion, because the exclusion would "respect[] State and Tribal land use authority over features that are only episodically wet during and/or following precipitation events." 85 FR 22319. Nothing in the agencies' explanation, however, links the agencies' line-drawing to the text or purpose of section 101(b). Nor do the agencies, at this time, see any linkage between the flow regime of ephemeral features and the nature or extent of State authorities referenced in section 101(b). Indeed, as discussed in section IV.A.c.i of this preamble, available science unequivocally demonstrates that ephemeral features can implicate the important Federal interest in the protection of the integrity of traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters. Likewise, the 2020 NWPR cited section 101(a) as support for categorically excluding ephemeral features, but again did not explain how this decision relates to or

advances the Clean Water Act's objective. 85 FR 22277 (April 21, 2020).

The 2020 NWPR similarly relied upon the policy provision in section 101(b) as a basis for its definition of adjacent wetlands, in particular the decision to exclude from consideration subsurface hydrologic connections between a wetland and an adjacent water when determining jurisdiction. It stated, "balancing the policy in CWA section 101(a) with the limitations on Federal authority embodied in CWA section 101(b), the agencies are finalizing the definition of 'adjacent wetlands' that does not include subsurface hydrologic connectivity as a basis for determining adjacency." *Id.* at 22313. Again, the 2020 NWPR did not explain how excluding consideration of subsurface hydrologic connections relates to or derives from the text of section 101(b), and the agencies do not now discern such a linkage. And as with the definition of "tributaries," the 2020 NWPR did not explain how this choice relates to or advances the objective of the Clean Water Act.

In sum, based on the text and structure of the statute and Supreme Court case law, the agencies have determined that the 2020 NWPR is not a suitable alternative to this rule because it fails to advance the objective of the Clean Water Act. The 2020 NWPR does not establish either the significant nexus standard or an alternative standard that similarly advances the objective of the Clean Water Act by protecting waters, including ephemeral features, wetlands, and paragraph (a)(5) waters where they have a significant effect on the chemical, physical, or biological integrity of traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters. Nor does the 2020 NWPR appropriately value the importance of Federal programs in achieving the objective of the Clean Water Act.

b. The 2020 NWPR Was Inconsistent With the Best Available Scientific Information

The 2020 NWPR's exclusion of major categories of waters from the protections of the Clean Water Act, specifically in the definitions of "tributary" and "adjacent wetlands," runs counter to the scientific record demonstrating how such waters can affect the integrity of downstream waters. Specifically, as many commenters on the proposed rule noted, its categorical exclusion of ephemeral features and large categories of wetlands was inconsistent with the scientific record before the agencies. In addition, the 2020 NWPR's limits on the scope of protected wetlands to those

that touch or demonstrate evidence of a regular surface water connection to other jurisdictional waters run counter to the ample scientific information demonstrating the effects of wetlands on downstream waters, including paragraph (a)(1) waters, when they have other types of connections.

First, the definition of the term “tributary” in the 2020 NWPR categorically excluded ephemeral features from the regulatory protections of the Clean Water Act, contrary to scientific information conclusively demonstrating the vital role these streams can play in protecting the integrity of downstream waters, including paragraph (a)(1) waters. The science is clear that aggregate effects of ephemeral streams “can have substantial consequences on the integrity of the downstream waters” and that the evidence of such downstream effects is “strong and compelling,” as discussed above. Science Report at 6–10, 6–13. EPA’s SAB Review of the draft Science Report explains that ephemeral streams “are no less important to the integrity of the downgradient waters” than perennial or intermittent streams. 2014 SAB Review at 22–23, 54 fig. 3. While in the arid Southwest, streams flow into downstream waters less frequently than they do in the wetter East, the Science Report emphasizes that short duration flows through ephemeral streams can transport large volumes of water to downstream rivers. Science Report at 6–9. For instance, the report notes that ephemeral streams supplied 76% of flow to the Rio Grande following a large rainstorm. *Id.* at 3–8. The 2014 SAB Review emphasizes that the “cumulative effects” of ephemeral flows in arid landscapes can be “critical to the maintenance of the chemical, physical, and biological integrity” of downstream waters. 2014 SAB Review at 22.

Similarly, the 2020 NWPR’s definition of “adjacent wetlands” excluded many categories of wetlands that can play a vital role in protecting the integrity of waters to which they are connected, including paragraph (a)(1) waters. In defining “adjacent wetlands,” the 2020 NWPR limited the scope of wetlands protected by the Clean Water Act’s regulatory programs to those that either abut or have evidence of certain surface water connections to other protected waters in a typical year. 85 FR 22340. Specifically, the rule encompassed wetlands that (i) abut, meaning to touch, another jurisdictional water; (ii) are flooded by a jurisdictional water in a typical year; (iii) are separated from a jurisdictional water only by a natural feature, such as a berm, which provides

evidence of a direct hydrologic surface connection with that water; or (iv) are separated from a jurisdictional water only by an artificial structure so long as that structure allows for a direct hydrologic surface connection between the wetlands and the water in a typical year. *Id.* As with the tributary definition, the 2020 NWPR stated that the definition of “adjacent wetlands” is “informed by science.” *Id.* at 22314. Yet the 2020 NWPR’s limits on the scope of protected wetlands to those that touch or demonstrate evidence of a regular surface water connection to other jurisdictional waters contradicted the ample scientific information before the agencies conclusively demonstrating the effects of wetlands on downstream waters when they have other types of surface connections, such as wetlands that overflow and flood jurisdictional waters or wetlands with less frequent surface water connections; wetlands with shallow subsurface connections to other protected waters; or other wetlands proximate to jurisdictional waters. *See Rapanos*, 547 U.S. at 786 (Kennedy, J., concurring in the judgment) (“Given the role wetlands play in pollutant filtering, flood control, and runoff storage, it may well be the absence of a hydrologic connection (in the sense of interchange of waters) that shows the wetlands’ significance for the aquatic system.”). As commenters noted, under the 2020 NWPR’s approach, if a river were surrounded by hundreds of acres of wetland, building a road or levee between a river and a wetland complex could potentially sever Clean Water Act protections for the entire wetland complex.

The overwhelming scientific information before the agencies weighs decisively against the limited definition of “adjacent wetlands” in the 2020 NWPR. Available scientific information demonstrates the significant effects of categories of wetlands excluded by the 2020 NWPR on the chemical, physical, and biological integrity of paragraph (a)(1) waters. For example, whereas the 2020 NWPR provided that wetlands flooded by jurisdictional waters are only protected if the flooding occurs in a “typical year,” the Science Report states that wetlands that are “rarely” or “infrequently” flooded by streams and rivers can be “highly connected” to those waters and have “long-lasting effects” on them. Science Report at 4–39. The Science Report notes that effects “critical to maintaining the health of the river” result from large floods that provide “infrequent connections” with more distant wetlands. *Id.* Reflecting these concerns, the October 16, 2019

SAB Draft Commentary on the proposed 2020 NWPR states that the narrow definition of “adjacent wetlands” in the 2020 NWPR as it was proposed “departs from established science.” The agencies have weighed these statements and in light of the information about the importance of “infrequently” flooded wetlands to downstream waters, have concluded that excluding wetlands that lack the limited types of surface water connections to other jurisdictional waters required by the 2020 NWPR lacks scientific support.

The SAB’s assessment of the 2020 NWPR proposal recognizes that the proposal was not consistent with the scientific information in the record, including the Draft Science Report that the SAB had previously reviewed. SAB Commentary on the Proposed Rule Defining the Scope of Waters Federally Regulated Under the Clean Water Act (February 27, 2020) (hereinafter, “SAB Commentary”). The SAB Commentary emphasizes that the proposal does not “fully incorporate the body of science on connectivity” that the SAB had reviewed in the Draft Science Report and offers “no scientific justification for disregarding the connectivity of waters accepted by current hydrological science.” *Id.* at 2.

The 2020 NWPR stated that the “agencies’ decisions in support of this rule have been informed by science.” 85 FR 22288 (April 21, 2020). For example, the 2020 NWPR cited the concept of a “connectivity gradient” as a basis for excluding ephemeral features. *Id.* (citing the SAB Commentary). The 2020 NWPR referred to the SAB Commentary’s recommendation that the agencies recognize that connectivity occurs along a gradient allowing for variation in chemical, physical, and biological connections. *Id.* (citing the SAB Commentary at 3). The 2020 NWPR asserted that there is a “decreased” likelihood that waters with “less than perennial or intermittent” flow, *i.e.*, ephemeral streams, will affect the chemical, physical, and biological integrity of downstream waters. 85 FR 22288 (April 21, 2020).

Upon careful review, the agencies have concluded that the 2020 NWPR’s reliance on the SAB’s recommendation is out of context and is inconsistent with the information in the SAB Commentary as a whole. The connectivity gradient the 2020 NWPR cited was just a hypothetical example⁶⁸

⁶⁸The figure cited is captioned in part as “Hypothetical illustration of connectivity gradient and potential consequences to downstream waters.” 2014 SAB Review at 54 (emphasis added). Nowhere

meant to illustrate a single aspect of connectivity—hydrological, or physical connectivity—and sheds no light on the many other ways that features connect to and affect downstream waters. According to the SAB itself, the scientific information the agencies provided in support of categorically excluding ephemeral features does not fully represent the discussion in the cited SAB Commentary and runs counter to key elements of the scientific record before the agencies. SAB Commentary at 2.

The 2020 NWPR also stated that the line it drew between regulated and non-regulated wetlands, which excluded large categories of wetlands covered by previous regulatory regimes is “informed by science.” 85 FR 22314 (April 21, 2020). The 2020 NWPR cited statements from the 2014 SAB Review to the effect that wetlands situated alongside other waters are likely to be connected to those waters, whereas “those connections become less obvious” as the distance “increases.” *Id.* (citing the 2014 SAB Review at 55); *see also id.* at 22314 (citing the 2014 SAB Review at 60 (stating “[s]patial proximity is one important determinant [influencing the connections] between wetlands and downstream waters”). In addition, the 2020 NWPR cited a statement in the Science Report that explained, “areas that are closer to rivers and streams have a higher probability of being connected than areas farther away.” *Id.* at 22314 (citing the Science Report at ES–4).

Despite these citations, the 2020 NWPR’s definition of “adjacent wetlands” was not based on proximity, but instead on a “direct hydrologic surface connection,” a factor that is distinct from proximity. *See id.* at 22340. The 2020 NWPR’s definition of “adjacent wetlands” may exclude wetlands fifteen feet away from jurisdictional waters if they are separated by a levee that does not convey flow in a typical year, but include wetlands much further away so long as they are inundated by flooding from the jurisdictional water in a typical year. Therefore, neither of the two scientific rationales the 2020 NWPR cited for its conclusions actually support the lines drawn in that rule.

Many commenters agreed with the agencies that the 2020 NWPR was inconsistent with the best available science. Some commenters asserted, however, that the definition of “waters of the United States” is a policy interpretation that may be informed by

science but cannot be based on science alone. As discussed in section IV.A.2 of this preamble, the agencies agree that science alone cannot dictate where to draw the line defining “waters of the United States.” But science is critical to determining how to attain Congress’s plainly stated objective to restore and maintain the chemical, physical, and biological integrity of the nation’s waters and properly evaluating which waters are the subject of Federal jurisdiction due to their effects on paragraph (a)(1) waters. Only by relying upon scientific principles to understand the way waters affect one another can the agencies know whether they are achieving that objective. The 2020 NWPR is not a suitable alternative to this rule because it cannot advance the objective of the Act given its lack of scientific support.

c. The 2020 NWPR Was Difficult To Implement and Yielded Inconsistent Results

In addition to the above concerns, the agencies’ experience implementing the 2020 NWPR for over a year made clear that foundational concepts underlying much of the 2020 NWPR were confusing and difficult to implement. While any rule that draws lines between jurisdictional waters and non-jurisdictional waters will involve some implementation challenges, the agencies have found the challenges imposed by the 2020 NWPR to be impracticable in important respects.

Many commenters stated that the agencies should retain the 2020 NWPR because it was clear, pragmatic, and easy to implement. For example, commenters stated that the rule provided “bright lines,” was based on readily observable surface features, and categorically excluded certain categories of waters. The agencies recognize that the regulatory text of the 2020 NWPR contained categorical language and referred to observable surface features. However, the “bright lines” and surface feature tests relied upon the concept of “typical year,” which, as other commenters pointed out, and as discussed further below, was extremely challenging to implement and led to arbitrary results. As a commenter emphasized, contrary to statements often made about the 2020 NWPR, under that rule landowners could not determine whether a stream or wetland is jurisdictional by standing on their property. Rather, the commenter stated that property owners would need to determine the source and timing of flow, whether the stream flowed into a navigable water off-property, whether wetlands abutted a jurisdictional water,

and whether a downstream segment lacked sufficient flow or otherwise broke jurisdiction. The commenter asserted that many of these inquiries would require the decision-maker to trespass onto properties of others, or guess. Furthermore, the commenter stated that in many cases, critical information that the rule required the property owner to know—such as whether a wetland is inundated by flooding from a jurisdictional water in a typical year—is not normally recorded. This comment is consistent with the agencies’ experience that the 2020 NWPR did not “provide[] clarity and predictability for Federal agencies, States, Tribes, the regulated community, and the public.” *See* 85 FR 22252 (April 21, 2020). With respect to categorical exclusions, this rule retains and codifies a list of categorical exclusions, as did the 2020 NWPR and the 2015 Clean Water Rule. *See* further discussion in section IV.C.7 of this preamble. The challenges that the 2020 NWPR imposed to establish jurisdiction for features that it appears to define as jurisdictional, and that significantly affect the integrity of paragraph (a)(1) waters, further undermine the 2020 NWPR’s viability as an alternative to this rule.

i. “Typical Year” Metric

The “typical year” is a concept fundamental to many of the 2020 NWPR’s definitions. 85 FR 22273 (April 21, 2020). Under the rule, tributaries and lakes, ponds, and impoundments of jurisdictional waters were only jurisdictional if they had certain surface water connections with a traditional navigable water or the territorial seas at least once in a typical year. 33 CFR 328.3(c)(6), (12). Two categories of wetlands only met the adjacency test for jurisdiction if they had a surface water connection with other jurisdictional waters once in a typical year. 33 CFR 328.3(c)(1). As a scientific matter, the concept of “typical year conditions,” including precipitation normalcy, may be relevant to ensuring that certain surface water connections in natural streams are not being observed under conditions that are unusually wet or dry. In terms of implementation, the concept of precipitation normalcy is valid in certain contexts, such as to inform determinations as to the presence of a wetland. However, in many important contexts, available tools, including the tools the 2020 NWPR recommended, cannot reliably demonstrate the presence of surface water connections in a typical year, which are a necessary element of most categories of jurisdictional waters under the 2020 NWPR. For example, a recent

in its review does the 2014 SAB Review indicate that this is the actual or only connectivity gradient.

study by the Corps found that precipitation normalcy (as calculated based on the methodology described in the preamble to the 2020 NWPR) was neither a reliable predictor of streamflow normalcy, nor was it a precise predictor of streamflow percentiles, in an analysis of watersheds across the United States.⁶⁹ These challenges undermine the 2020 NWPR's claim that it enhanced the "predictability and consistency of Clean Water Act programs." See 85 FR 22250 (April 21, 2020).

One of the significant implementation challenges of the typical year metric is that it can be difficult and sometimes impossible to identify the presence of a surface water connection in a typical year. Such connections are often not apparent from visual field observation alone. For example, on the day of a visit to an intermittent stream that flows only several months or several weeks a year, it is very unlikely that an observer would see surface water flows connecting to a downstream jurisdictional water. Similarly, though many ponds or wetlands may be frequently inundated by flooding from another water, in arid areas those features may be inundated only a few times every year, and sometimes the inundation occurs on a single day or within a matter of hours. While these waters satisfy the 2020 NWPR's jurisdictional test, agency staff would probably not be able to determine that they do, given how unlikely they would be to observe these infrequent connections. The difficulty of finding the direct hydrologic connections required by the typical year concept during a field visit is exacerbated by the fact that the 2020 NWPR discouraged reliance on field indicators. See, e.g., *id.* at 22292 ("The agencies . . . conclude that physical indicators of flow, absent verification of the actual occurrence of flow, may not accurately represent the flow classifications required for tributaries under this rule.").

Given the insufficiency of visual field observations to assess the presence of a surface water connection as specified in the 2020 NWPR, under that rule agency staff often needed to expend substantial time and resources to try to obtain ancillary data to determine flow conditions at a particular site in a typical year. Hydrologic modeling tools and advanced statistical analyses could be employed where sufficient flow data

are available, but often data needed to conduct such analyses is limited or lacking altogether, especially for smaller streams. Few streams across the country have hydrologic gages that continuously measure flow, as most such gages are located on larger rivers with perennial flow. Moreover, "typical year conditions" are often irrelevant to the extent of flow in human-altered streams, including effluent-dependent streams. The 2020 NWPR did not explain why human-altered hydrology should be subject to the same typical year requirement as natural streams.

For the same reasons that agency staff are unlikely to witness the specific surface water connections required under the 2020 NWPR during a site visit in dry regions or during the dry season, they are also unlikely to capture evidence of a surface water connection between a stream and a downstream traditional navigable water or the territorial seas using available aerial photographs taken during typical year conditions. Aerial photographs are often taken just once per year or once every other year and staff have no way of ensuring that they were taken during a typical year. High-resolution satellite imagery can serve as a reliable source to demonstrate specific surface water connections. But the availability and usability of such imagery varies across the country, depending on access, update intervals, cloud cover, and land cover (*i.e.*, vegetation or trees that obscure aerial views of stream channels, requiring the use of advanced tools to detect features of interest or the presence of water), so that such tools may be unlikely to demonstrate that specific surface water connections are occurring in a typical year. Moreover, as the 2020 NWPR acknowledged, "characteristics of tributaries may not be visible in aerial photographs" taken during periods of "high shrub or tree cover," 85 FR 22299 (April 21, 2020). Commenters on the proposed rule stated that Tribes and States lacked sufficient data, aerial photography and access to other tools required to support the use of the typical year test in many locations. They expressed concern that under-resourced communities suffer a particular lack of data necessary to support this test. New satellites are expected to surmount some of these issues in the future, but as this information is not yet available, regulators could not use it to inform jurisdiction based on the requirements in the 2020 NWPR. Remote tools, such as aerial or satellite imagery, are often useful in implementing any definition of "waters of the United States," but the

2020 NWPR's typical year criteria made use of these resources particularly challenging.

The same difficulties created challenges in detecting surface hydrologic connections that occurred in a typical year to meet the 2020 NWPR's definition of "adjacent wetlands" or "lakes and ponds, and impoundments of jurisdictional waters." The 2020 NWPR's standard of inundation by flooding in a typical year was not tied to any commonly calculated flood interval, such as flood recurrence intervals, and the agencies are not aware of a tool capable of collecting the type of inundation data the 2020 NWPR required. Demonstrating that a wetland, lake, pond, or impoundment is inundated by flooding once in a typical year would require a field visit or a high-quality aerial photograph or satellite image coinciding with the exact time that the flooding occurs from a tributary to a wetland, lake, pond, or impoundment, as well as being able to demonstrate that this flooding occurred in a typical year. Determining that inundation by flooding occurs in a typical year was therefore extremely difficult, and sometimes impossible. Demonstrating that an artificial feature allows for a direct hydrologic surface connection between a wetland and a tributary in a typical year posed similar obstacles, requiring either auspiciously timed field visits, aerial photography, high-resolution satellite imagery, or data that the agencies may not be able to access, such as construction plans or operational records for an artificial levee.

The 2020 NWPR suggested the agencies "will generally use" precipitation data from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) to help determine the presence of a surface water connection in a typical year, see 85 FR 22274 (April 21, 2020), but the methodology described in the 2020 NWPR preamble for determining precipitation in a typical year made it difficult to use these data to inform jurisdiction. NOAA precipitation totals over the three months prior to a site observation are compared to precipitation totals observed over the preceding 30 years to determine if conditions were wetter than normal, drier than normal, or normal ("typical"). Using the methodology in the preamble of the 2020 NWPR, only 40% of observations over a rolling 30-year period of record are considered "normal," while 30% of observations are considered to be "wetter than normal" and 30% of observations are considered to be "drier than normal." If

⁶⁹ Sparrow, K.H. Gutenson, J.L., Wahl, M.D. and Cotterman, K.A. 2022. *Evaluation of Climatic and Hydroclimatic Resources to Support the US Army Corps of Engineers Regulatory Program*. Engineer Research and Development Center (U.S.) Technical Report no. ERDC/CHL TR-22-19.

surface water flow was observed during normal or dry conditions, the agencies could have higher confidence that the surface water observations represented flow in a “typical year.” However, if flow was observed during the 30% of conditions that are “wetter than normal,” the surface water observations did not reveal whether flow would occur during a typical year. And if flow was *not* observed, precipitation data from the previous three months did not indicate whether flow might occur in that particular water feature under typical year conditions at a different point in the year. Therefore, if a site visit was conducted when surface water flow was not present, the agencies’ suggested approach for evaluating whether a feature meets the typical year test often did not provide meaningful and relevant information for the agencies to make accurate determinations of jurisdiction. Indeed, a commenter on the proposed rule emphasized that Tribes and States have found the “typical year” requirement to require extensive hydrologic modeling and advanced statistical analyses in complex conditions. Under any regulatory regime, the agencies use a weight of evidence approach to determine jurisdiction, but the 2020 NWPR typical year requirement placed onerous and, in many instances, arbitrary constraints on the data that can be used as evidence.

Furthermore, the typical year concept as applied to the 2020 NWPR does not account for the increasing number of recurrent heat waves, droughts, storms, and other extreme weather events in many parts of the country. These events can have profound impacts on local and regional hydrology, including streamflow. Commenters noted that determining what is “typical” under the 2020 NWPR in light of increased drought and floods was not simple for Tribal or State agencies; such determinations required expert analysis and left much to interpretation, undermining the assertion by the agencies that the 2020 NWPR would establish a clear, predictable regulatory framework that can be implemented in the field.

The concept of “typical year” in the 2020 NWPR sought to factor in long-term climatic changes over time to some degree by considering a thirty-year rolling period of data, *see* 33 CFR 328.3(c)(13). However, the 2020 NWPR did not allow the agencies flexibility to consider other time intervals when appropriate to reflect effects of a rapidly changing climate, including positive trends in temperature, increasing storm events, and extended droughts. In

response to more rapid recent changes in climate, NOAA has developed alternative approaches for estimating climate normals, including seasonal averages computed using shorter, annually updated averaging periods for temperature (10-year seasonal average) and total precipitation (15-year seasonal average). The rigid rolling thirty-year approach to determining typical year in the 2020 NWPR did not allow the agencies to use these updated methods.

The 2020 NWPR noted that the agencies can look to sources of information other than site visits, aerial photographs, and precipitation data to assess whether a feature has surface water flow in a typical year. It identified the Web-based Water-Budget Interactive Modeling Program, Climate Analysis for Wetlands Tables, and the Palmer Drought Severity Index, 85 FR 22275 (April 21, 2020). These methods, which provide information useful in many other contexts, often only look at climate-related conditions generally and often did not answer the jurisdictional questions posed by the 2020 NWPR. For example, they did not address whether surface water flow might connect a particular stream to a downstream traditional navigable water or the territorial seas, whether a particular wetland was inundated by or connected to a jurisdictional water as required under the 2020 NWPR, or how uncertainties at different locations and in different months affected the accuracy of condition estimates. While precipitation is an important factor, other information is also relevant to streamflow and surface water connections in a typical year, including the contributions of flow from wetlands, upgradient streams, and open waters in the watershed, evapotranspiration rates, water withdrawals including groundwater pumping, and other climatic conditions. Yet collecting this information from a variety of sources and interpreting it can be extremely time- and resource-intensive and may require special expertise. While the agencies have substantial experience using a weight of evidence approach to determine jurisdiction, for example as part of the significant nexus analysis, the typical year requirement makes it substantially more difficult to interpret available data and narrows the scope of data that can be used to determine jurisdiction.

Finally, the challenges presented by determining the presence of surface water flow in a typical year are even greater when evaluating a tributary at a distance from the downstream traditional navigable water or the territorial seas. Even streams that flow

perennially or intermittently often travel many miles prior to reaching the closest traditional navigable water or the territorial seas, meaning many downstream reaches may need to be assessed. Under the 2020 NWPR, any ephemeral reaches along that pathway that did not carry surface water flow once in a typical year would render all upstream waters non-jurisdictional. 85 FR 22277 (April 21, 2020). The need to assess lengthy tributary systems imposed an extraordinarily high burden of proof on the agencies to evaluate surface water flow in a typical year along the flow path from a stream of interest to a downstream traditional navigable water or the territorial seas. The longer the pathway, the more challenging the analysis. As a commenter noted, in adopting the test, the 2020 NWPR inserted case-by-case analyses for every jurisdictional determination despite the rule’s claim that it “provide[s] a predictable framework in which to establish federal jurisdiction.” *Id.* at 22273–22274. The uncertainty and implementation challenges generated by the 2020 NWPR’s foundational typical year test are yet another basis to replace that rule.

ii. Determining Adjacency

The 2020 NWPR provided that wetlands are “adjacent” when they: (1) abut a traditional navigable water or the territorial seas; a tributary; or a lake, pond, or impoundment of a jurisdictional water; (2) are inundated by flooding from one of these waters in a typical year; (3) are physically separated from one of these waters only by a natural berm, bank, dune, or similar natural feature; or (4) are physically separated from one of these waters only by an artificial dike, barrier, or similar artificial structure so long as that structure allows for a direct hydrologic surface connection between the wetlands and the water in a typical year, such as through a culvert, flood or tide gate, pump, or similar artificial feature. 85 FR 22338; 33 CFR 328.3(c)(1). In practice, agency staff have found several of these criteria for adjacency extremely difficult to implement in certain circumstances.

The artificial barrier provision led to arbitrary results. For example, under the fourth way to meet the adjacency definition, a wetland may be jurisdictional if it is separated from a jurisdictional water by an artificial structure, such as a levee, that allows for a direct hydrologic surface connection in a typical year through a culvert. However, the same wetland would not be jurisdictional if there was no levee present, even if there was a direct

hydrological surface connection in a typical year through a culvert (assuming the wetland did not meet another criterion for adjacency). The 2020 NWPR therefore established that certain wetlands with a direct hydrologic surface connection to a jurisdictional water are *only* jurisdictional due to the presence of an artificial barrier. This discrepancy bears no relationship to the actual connections between the features at issue and is not supported by science or the agencies' experience.

Moreover, the provision establishing that a wetland is "adjacent" if a jurisdictional water inundates it by flooding in a typical year was extremely difficult to implement. See 33 CFR 328.3(c)(1)(ii). Inundation by flooding in a typical year is not a metric that is normally recorded either by implementing agencies or the regulated community. Available models generally focus on flood recurrence intervals, which do not necessarily correspond to the likelihood of inundation by flooding in a given or typical year, and the agencies would typically be unable to demonstrate that these indicators reflect typical year conditions. Indeed, the 2020 NWPR acknowledged that inundation by flooding in a typical year could correspond to a variety of flood recurrence intervals depending on location, climate, season, and other factors. 85 FR 22311. Given the absence of existing records of inundation by flooding, determining whether inundation by flooding has occurred in a typical year is challenging in many circumstances.

Compounding the challenge, the 2020 NWPR provided that wetlands can be jurisdictional if they are inundated by flooding from a jurisdictional water in a typical year—but inundation in the other direction, *from the wetlands to the jurisdictional water*, is not grounds for jurisdiction. Not only is there no scientific or legal basis for distinguishing between inundation of the wetland as opposed to inundation from the wetland, see *Riverside Bayview*, 474 U.S. at 134 (upholding the Corps' assertion of jurisdiction over "wetlands that are not flooded by adjacent waters [but] may still tend to drain into those waters"), but determining whether the limited available photographs or other evidence of inundation reflects flooding in one direction as opposed to another adds to the difficulty in evaluating whether this standard is met. The same challenges apply to determining whether lakes, ponds, or impoundments of jurisdictional waters are inundated by flooding in a typical year, one basis for demonstrating Clean Water Act

jurisdiction over these features. 85 FR 22338–39 (April 21, 2020); 33 CFR 328.3(c)(vi).

iii. Ditches

Among other requirements, the 2020 NWPR provided that a ditch⁷⁰ is jurisdictional as a tributary if it was originally built in a tributary or adjacent wetland, as those terms are defined in the 2020 NWPR, and emphasized that the agencies bear the burden of proof to determine that a ditch was originally constructed in a tributary or adjacent wetland. 33 CFR 328.3(a)(2), (c)(12); 85 FR 22299. In other words, in order to find a ditch jurisdictional, the agencies had to demonstrate that a ditch was (1) originally constructed in a stream (2) that, at the time of construction, had perennial or intermittent flow and (3) a surface water connection to a downstream traditional navigable water or the territorial seas (4) in a "typical year." Alternatively, the agencies had to show that a ditch was (1) originally constructed in a wetland (2) that either abutted or had certain surface hydrologic connections to a jurisdictional water at the time the ditch was constructed (3) in a "typical year," in order to demonstrate that the ditch is jurisdictional. Americans have been building ditches, straightening streams, and draining wetlands for hundreds of years. And while under earlier guidance and practice, the agencies generally assessed whether a ditch was excavated in dry land when making a jurisdictional determination, that involved an assessment simply of whether the ditch was excavated in a stream, a wetland, or other aquatic resource. By contrast, to determine whether a ditch was jurisdictional under the 2020 NWPR, the agencies had to determine if it was originally built in a tributary or adjacent wetland that would have been jurisdictional under the 2020 NWPR, and therefore had to address all of the implementation challenges discussed in the preceding sections involved in determining surface water connections and wetland adjacency in a typical year—but often for ditches built twenty, one hundred, or even several hundred years ago. To the extent that sparse evidence is available to demonstrate a surface water connection in a typical year for tributaries using tools available today, evidence is even more difficult to find

⁷⁰ Ditches perform many of the same functions as natural tributaries. For example, like natural tributaries, ditches that are part of the stream network convey water that carries nutrients, pollutants, and other constituents, both good and bad, to downstream traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters.

when looking so far back in time. States approached the agencies seeking assistance in assessing the jurisdictional status of ditches, but the agencies were often unable to provide meaningful help given the burdens imposed by the 2020 NWPR's ditch definition.

The 2020 NWPR also provided that ditches are jurisdictional if they relocate a tributary, as that term was defined in the rule, 85 FR 22341 (April 21, 2020); 33 CFR 328.3(a)(2), (c)(12), but this standard as defined by the 2020 NWPR was also often extremely difficult to assess. The 2020 NWPR explained that a relocated tributary is "one in which an *entire portion* of the tributary may be moved to a different location." 85 FR 22290 (April 21, 2020) (emphasis added). In other words, the 2020 NWPR appeared to require a ditch to divert 100% of the tributary's flow to meet the "relocate a tributary" test. While prior rules have defined relocated tributaries as jurisdictional, the requirement that the entire portion be relocated is new and has created substantial implementation challenges. As a practical matter, when a tributary is relocated it often reroutes just a portion of its flow to the ditch. Assessing whether a ditch relocated 100% of a tributary's flow, as opposed to 80% or 50% of its flow, is extremely difficult and may not be possible in some circumstances. The scientific literature indicates that features like ditches that convey water continue to connect to and affect downstream waters. See section III.A.iv of the Technical Support Document for additional information. By establishing a jurisdictional standard that is extremely difficult to meet, the 2020 NWPR effectively removed from the protections of the Clean Water Act large numbers of ditches that function as tributaries and that significantly affect the integrity of downstream traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters. As is the case with tributaries, lakes and ponds, impoundments, and wetlands, the 2020 NWPR's impracticable approach to ditches made it extremely difficult to implement. In the agencies' judgment, any efficiencies the 2020 NWPR may have achieved through categorical exclusions are outweighed by the challenges the agencies encountered in implementing the rule, coupled with its failure to implement the objective of the Clean Water Act by removing protections for waters that are properly within the statute's scope.

d. The 2020 NWPR Substantially Reduced Clean Water Act Protections Over Waters

The failure of the 2020 NWPR to advance the objective of the Clean Water Act, as well as its inconsistency with science and the challenges it presents in implementation, have had real-world consequences. The agencies have found that substantially fewer waters were protected by the Clean Water Act under the 2020 NWPR compared to under previous rules and practices. It is important to note that the definition of “waters of the United States” affects most Clean Water Act programs designed to restore and maintain water quality—including not only the section 402 NPDES and section 404 dredged and fill permitting programs, but also water quality standards under section 303, identification of impaired waters and total maximum daily loads under section 303, section 311 oil spill prevention, preparedness, and response programs, and the section 401 Tribal and State water quality certification programs—because the Clean Water Act provisions establishing such programs use the term “navigable waters” or “waters of the United States.” While the 2020 NWPR was promulgated with the expressed intent to decrease the scope of Federal jurisdiction, the agencies now are concerned that the actual decrease in water resource protections was more pronounced than the qualitative predictions in the 2020 NWPR preamble and supporting documents anticipated and acknowledged to the public. These data support the agencies’ conclusion that the 2020 NWPR is not a suitable alternative to this rule.

i. Jurisdictional Determination and Permitting Data Show a Large Drop in the Scope of Waters Protected Under the Clean Water Act

Through an evaluation of jurisdictional determinations completed by the Corps between 2016 and 2021,⁷¹

⁷¹ A jurisdictional determination is a written Corps determination that a water is subject to regulatory jurisdiction under section 404 of the Clean Water Act (33 U.S.C. 1344) or a written determination that a water is subject to regulatory jurisdiction under section 9 or 10 of the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899 (33 U.S.C. 401 *et seq.*). Jurisdictional determinations are identified as either preliminary or approved, and both types are recorded in determinations through an internal regulatory management database, called Operation and Maintenance Business Information Link, Regulatory Module (ORM2). This database documents Department of the Army authorizations under Clean Water Act section 404 and Rivers and Harbors Act section 10, including permit application processing and jurisdictional determinations. This database does not include aquatic resources that are not associated with a jurisdictional determination or that are not

EPA and the Army have identified consistent indicators of a substantial reduction in waters protected under the Clean Water Act by the 2020 NWPR (*see* Technical Support Document section II.B.i for additional discussion on methods and results of the agencies’ analyses). These indicators include an increase in the number and proportion of jurisdictional determinations completed where aquatic resources were found to be non-jurisdictional, an increase in determinations made by the Corps that no Clean Water Act section 404 permit is required for specific projects, and an increase in requests for the Corps to complete approved jurisdictional determinations (AJDs), rather than preliminary jurisdictional determinations (PJDs) which treat a feature as jurisdictional. These trends all reflect the narrow scope of jurisdiction in the 2020 NWPR’s definitions. Additionally, the agencies find that these indicators likely account for only a fraction of the 2020 NWPR’s impacts, because many project proponents did not seek any form of jurisdictional determination for waters that the 2020 NWPR categorically excluded, such as ephemeral features, and the Corps would not have knowledge of or ability to track such projects. A closer look at each of these indicators will help demonstrate some of the more pronounced impacts of the 2020 NWPR on paragraph (a)(1) waters than were identified for the public in the 2020 NWPR and its supporting documents. As explained in detail above, when a water falls outside the scope of the Clean Water Act, that means, among other things, that no Federal water quality standards will be established, and no Federal permit will be required to control the discharge of pollutants, including dredged or fill material, into such waters unless the pollutants reach jurisdictional waters. And since many entities did not believe that they would need to seek a

associated with alternatives to jurisdictional determinations (such as delineation concurrences or “No jurisdictional determination required” findings, where the Corps finds that a jurisdictional determination is not needed for a project), or permit request or resource impacts that are not associated with a Corps permit or enforcement action. An approved jurisdictional determination (AJD) is an official Corps document stating the presence or absence of “waters of the United States” on a parcel or a written statement and map identifying the limits of “waters of the United States” on a parcel. A preliminary jurisdictional determination (PJD) is a non-binding written indication that there may be “waters of the United States” on a parcel; an applicant can elect to use a PJD to voluntarily waive or set aside questions regarding Clean Water Act jurisdiction over a particular site and thus move forward assuming all waters will be treated as jurisdictional without making a formal determination.

jurisdictional determination under the 2020 NWPR, it is impossible to fully understand the scope of degradation the 2020 NWPR’s definition caused to paragraph (a)(1) waters.

Consistent with Executive Order 13990, EPA and Army staff have reviewed jurisdictional determinations as recorded in the Corps’ internal regulatory management database, referred to as the ORM2 database,⁷² to identify any noticeable trends in jurisdictional determinations under the past recent rules defining “waters of the United States.” The agencies found within the AJDs completed under the 2020 NWPR, the probability of finding resources to be non-jurisdictional increased precipitously. Of the 9,399 AJDs completed by the Corps under the 2020 NWPR during the first 12 months in which that rule was in effect,⁷³ the agencies found approximately 75% of AJDs completed had identified non-jurisdictional water resources and approximately 25% of AJDs completed identified jurisdictional waters.⁷⁴ Conversely, when the 1986 regulations and applicable guidance were in effect (including following the 2019 recodification of those regulations), substantially more jurisdictional waters were identified in AJDs on average per year than compared to the first twelve months of the 2020 NWPR.⁷⁵ During similar one-year calendar intervals when the 1986 regulations and applicable guidance were in effect, approximately 28% to 45% of AJDs completed identified non-jurisdictional aquatic resources, and 56% to 72% of AJDs identified jurisdictional resources.

⁷² *See supra* note 71.

⁷³ These AJDs were completed by the Corps between the 2020 NWPR’s effective date of June 22, 2020, and June 21, 2021.

⁷⁴ This excludes dryland AJDs and waters identified as jurisdictional only under section 10 of the Rivers and Harbors Act. In addition, under the 2020 NWPR, a single AJD in the Corps’ database can include both affirmative and negative jurisdictional determinations. Under prior regulatory regimes, the Corps’ database was structured such that a single AJD could be either affirmative, or negative, but not both. To account for this change in the structure of the database, a 2020 NWPR jurisdictional determination that includes both affirmative and negative jurisdictional resources was normalized and counted as two separate AJDs, one affirmative and one negative. The total number of AJDs considered after this process was carried out was 9,399. Prior to this normalization, the total number of AJDs considered was 7,769. More details on the agencies’ analysis can be found in the Technical Support Document section II.B.i.

⁷⁵ The time periods evaluated were June 22, 2016 to June 21, 2017; June 22, 2017 to June 21, 2018; and December 23, 2019 to June 21, 2020. The date ranges here constitute periods of time when the 1986 regulations (including the 2019 Repeal Rule’s recodification of those regulations) and applicable guidance were in effect nationally. 2015 Clean Water Rule determinations were not part of this analysis.

The change from a range of 28% to 45% non-jurisdictional AJD findings prior to the 2020 NWPR to 75% non-jurisdictional findings after issuance of the 2020 NWPR indicates that substantially fewer waters were protected by the Clean Water Act under the 2020 NWPR (see Technical Support Document section II.B.i for additional discussion). Again, as commenters on the proposed rule noted, these numbers do not account for the many entities that did not seek AJDs because they believed their features were excluded under the 2020 NWPR.

When evaluating the effect of the 2020 NWPR on the number of individual aquatic resources (as opposed to the AJDs completed), the agencies found a similar substantial reduction in protections provided by the Clean Water Act. Within the first twelve months of implementation of the 2020 NWPR, between June 22, 2020, and June 21, 2021, the Corps documented the jurisdictional status of 48,313 individual aquatic resources or water features through AJDs completed; of these individual aquatic resources, approximately 75% were found to be non-jurisdictional by the Corps. More specifically, 70% of streams and wetlands evaluated were found to be non-jurisdictional, including 11,044 ephemeral features (mostly streams) and 15,675 wetlands. Ditches were also frequently found to be non-jurisdictional (4,706 individual exclusions), which is likely the result of the narrowed definition of tributary under the 2020 NPWR and the requirement that a ditch was only jurisdictional as a tributary if it was originally built in a tributary or adjacent wetland, as those terms are defined in the 2020 NWPR. By comparison, only 45% of aquatic resources were found to be non-jurisdictional during similar year-long calendar intervals between 2016 and 2020 under the pre-2015 regulatory regime.⁷⁶ This increase in non-jurisdictional determinations, so that approximately 75% of water bodies are non-jurisdictional under the 2020 NWPR as opposed to only 45% under the prior regulations, undermined the agencies' ability to provide a baseline of Federal protection for the integrity of the nation's waters.

Of particular concern to the agencies is the 2020 NWPR's disproportionate effect on arid regions of the country, as the aquatic resources in these regions predominantly consist of ephemeral features. Under the 2020 NWPR, more permittees across the country, including

⁷⁶ Based on the average annual percentage of non-jurisdictional findings.

in the arid West, sought AJDs rather than PJDs, particularly for ephemeral features. Many more streams were evaluated and determined to be non-jurisdictional through AJDs in the arid West, while the number of individual stream reaches considered under PJDs declined precipitously. As mentioned previously, project proponents who request an AJD obtain an official Corps document that states either that there are no "waters of the United States" present on a parcel, or a statement that "waters of the United States" are present, accompanied by a map identifying their extent. In contrast, an applicant can elect to use a PJD to voluntarily waive or set aside questions regarding Clean Water Act jurisdiction over a particular site and thus move forward assuming all waters will be treated as jurisdictional without making a formal determination. There are time savings and sometimes cost savings associated with requesting a PJD in lieu of an AJD. A decline in the proportion of PJDs being requested under the 2020 NWPR indicates that fewer project proponents requested that aquatic resources on their project site be treated as if they were jurisdictional.

In Arizona, the annual average number of individual stream reaches considered under PJDs and similar alternatives to AJDs between 2016 to 2020 was 941, while under the 2020 NWPR in 2020–2021 it was only 45.⁷⁷ Compared to pre-2015 regulatory practice, under the 2020 NWPR, Arizona experienced an approximate 95% decrease in individual stream reaches being considered via PJDs and a 9-fold increase in individual stream reaches being considered via AJDs. Similar metrics for New Mexico show an 84% decrease in individual streams being considered via PJDs and a 28-fold increase in individual streams being considered via AJDs under the 2020 NWPR.

The number of stream reaches assessed in Arizona under AJDs compared to the number of evaluations completed nationwide was disproportionately high under the 2020 NWPR. The number of stream reaches assessed in Arizona constituted 9% of the total stream reaches assessed nationally and 13% of the ephemeral reaches assessed nationally over the first

⁷⁷ The AJD values associated with the 2020 NWPR fall outside of the 95% confidence interval calculated for annual data from 2016–2020. Note that in New Mexico and Arizona, the 2015 Clean Water Rule was never implemented due to litigation stays. The PJD values associated with the 2020 NWPR do not fall outside of the 95% confidence interval calculated for annual data from 2016–2020; this is likely a product of scale. See the Technical Support Document section II.B.i for more analysis.

twelve months in which the 2020 NWPR was implemented.⁷⁸ This increase in the number of AJDs sought in Arizona under the 2020 NWPR compared to the number of AJDs sought in Arizona between 2016 and 2020 likely reflects the desire of landowners to confirm that features on their property were ephemeral or otherwise excluded under that rule, though it is possible the pace of landowners seeking AJDs would have slowed to some extent over time. The agencies understand the drastic decline in the number of PJDs requested compared to AJDs in the arid West, and the simultaneous increase in the number of AJD non-jurisdictional findings in the arid West, to have been driven largely by the categorical exclusion of ephemeral streams from jurisdiction. PJDs assume jurisdiction, and under the 2020 NWPR project proponents were less likely to assume that ephemeral streams were jurisdictional.

The Corps' data show that in New Mexico, of the 263 streams assessed via AJDs in the first twelve months of implementation of the 2020 NWPR (*i.e.*, between June 22, 2020, to June 21, 2021), 100% were found to be non-jurisdictional ephemeral features.⁷⁹ In Arizona, of the 1,525 streams assessed in AJDs in the first year of implementation of the 2020 NWPR, 1,518, or 99.5%, were found to be non-jurisdictional ephemeral resources. Eliminating these streams from jurisdiction under the 2020 NWPR also typically eliminated jurisdiction over wetlands which otherwise might meet adjacency criteria.

Some commenters asserted that the low percentage of jurisdictional AJD findings in Arizona under the 2020 NWPR does not have a statistically significant difference from the percentages of jurisdictional findings under the pre-2015 regulatory regime. The agencies agree that of Corps AJDs completed between 2016 and 2020, high percentages of streams in Arizona were found to be non-jurisdictional between 2016 and 2020. Proportionally, the non-jurisdictional findings via AJDs between 2016–2020 and the 2020 NWPR are similar. However, because the volume of streams assessed under AJDs in the arid West increased so substantially, there was a 10-fold increase in non-jurisdictional findings for streams in Arizona and a 36-fold increase in non-jurisdictional findings for streams in

⁷⁸ There were a total of 16,787 stream reaches assessed via AJDs nationwide between June 22, 2020 and June 21, 2021.

⁷⁹ These non-jurisdictional ephemeral resources are predominantly ephemeral streams, but a small portion may be swales, gullies, or pools.

New Mexico following implementation of the 2020 NWPR. The average annual number of individual stream resources considered in AJDs in Arizona between 2016–2020 was 147 (of which 138 were determined non-jurisdictional), compared to 1,525 stream reaches assessed under the 2020 NWPR (of which 1,521 were determined non-jurisdictional accounting for all exclusions). Assessed together, the statistically significant increase in overall resources assessed via AJD combined with the shift away from requests for PJDs, as well as the consistent proportion of AJDs with non-jurisdictional findings indicates that many more project proponents viewed resources on their land as no longer “waters of the United States” under the 2020 NWPR. The agencies’ analysis also reflects the scope of the streams that the 2020 NWPR left unprotected, which in many cases are vitally important to desert aquatic ecosystems and to the hydrologic integrity of watersheds. See section IV.A.2.c.i of this preamble.

The Corps identified at least 368 projects from June 22, 2020, to June 21, 2021, through its ORM2 database that would have needed a Clean Water Act section 404 permit prior to the 2020 NWPR, but no longer did under the 2020 NWPR’s definition of “waters of the United States.”⁸⁰ Moreover, in comparing 2020–2021 to similar annual data from 2016–2020 from implementation of the 1986 regulations consistent with Supreme Court case law, there was an average increase of over 100% in the number of projects determined to not require section 404 permits under the Clean Water Act due to activities not occurring in “waters of the United States” or activities occurring in waters that were deemed no longer “waters of the United States” due to the 2020 NWPR. The number of projects that did not require a section 404 permit under the 2020 NWPR was likely much greater than these numbers indicate because project proponents did not need to notify the Corps if they had already received an AJD that concluded waters in the review area were not “waters of the United States,” and because many project proponents would not have sought a jurisdictional determination or applied for a permit at

⁸⁰ This tracking method only applies when 100% of jurisdiction is lost under the 2020 NWPR (*i.e.*, if even 1 aquatic resource out of 100 that is proposed to be impacted remains jurisdictional, this method is not used). Additionally, this tracking method was a new database feature, which was not yet implemented uniformly across the United States, and is likely under-representative even for those cases in which 100% of jurisdiction was lost under the 2020 NWPR.

all if they believed their aquatic resources were non-jurisdictional under the 2020 NWPR. Many projects could have occurred without consultation with the Corps due to the 2020 NWPR’s narrow definition of “waters of the United States” and expansive non-jurisdictional categories. Therefore, while the Corps’ ORM2 data shed light on the trend and magnitude of impacts to the scope of jurisdiction under the 2020 NWPR, it is fair to assume that these impacts are an underestimate.⁸¹

Many commenters cited the impacts referenced above as reasons to reject the 2020 NWPR’s definition of “waters of the United States.” In addition, many commenters cited national-scale assessments of the number of waterbodies that lost protection under the 2020 NWPR as evidence of environmental harm. Some commenters noted that 51% of wetlands and 18% of streams lost protections.⁸² Other commenters stated that 4.8 million miles of streams and 16.3 million acres of non-floodplain wetlands would be left without Federal level protections under the 2020 NWPR.⁸³

Commenters provided many potential examples of the harms caused by the 2020 NWPR around the country. One commenter stated that in the Northwest, an estimated 9,165 miles of ephemeral streams in Oregon’s Rogue River Basin that provide drinking water for the region, as well as habitat and spawning grounds for Federal threatened Southern Oregon/Northern California Coast coho

⁸¹ Requests for AJDs and the jurisdictional dispositions of the aquatic resources evaluated as part of those AJDs are imperfect measures of activities that might affect those jurisdictional or non-jurisdictional aquatic resources. The AJD data in the Corps ORM2 database generally contain only records for situations in which landowners or project proponents have requested jurisdictional determinations from the Corps or that are associated with an enforcement action, and thus do not represent all aquatic resources that exist within the United States. The proportion and specific types of aquatic resources evaluated for jurisdiction via AJDs varies both geographically and from year to year. In addition, the ORM2 data collected from AJDs conducted under different regulatory regimes have some metrics that are not directly comparable. Notwithstanding these limitations, the volume of ORM2 data on AJDs and associated aquatic resources is large and is tracked in a reasonably accurate fashion, and thus provides a reasonable estimate of overall trends and conditions on the ground. It represents the best data available to the agencies at this time.

⁸² Contained in the Resource and Programmatic Assessment for the Proposed Revised Definition of “Waters of the United States” (Docket ID No. EPA–HQ–OW–2021–0602–0039).

⁸³ Commenters cited to the following scientific paper as support: C.R. Lane and E. D’Amico. *Identification of putative geographically isolated wetlands of the conterminous United States*, 52 J Am Water Resource Association 705(2016); K. Fesenmyer et al., *Large portion of USA streams lose protection with new interpretation of Clean Water Act*, February 2021. *Freshwater Science* 40(1).

salmon and steelhead, would have lost protection under the 2020 NWPR.

Another commenter stated that in the Midwest, protection would have been lost for an estimated 500 to 1,000 miles of ephemeral and ditched streams that flow into the Niagara River, the channel that connects Lake Erie and Lake Ontario. The commenter also noted that following promulgation of the 2020 NWPR, two Great Lakes states finalized legislative action to further reduce protections under State law for waters excluded by the 2020 NWPR. One commenter asserted that up to 202,244 acres of wetlands located behind levees in Missouri would have been excluded from jurisdiction under the 2020 NWPR because they are separated from jurisdictional waters by “upland or by dikes, barriers, or similar structures.” The commenter stated that these wetlands provide flood control, habitats, and improve water quality. In the Mountain West, a commenter stated that over half of Colorado’s streams and 22% of that State’s remaining wetlands would have been excluded from jurisdiction under the 2020 NWPR. With respect to the Southeast, a commenter cited analyses demonstrating that 162,149 acres of wetlands in Georgia’s Chattahoochee watershed were vulnerable to losing protection under the 2020 NWPR. The same commenter noted that, in the Mid-Atlantic, over 100,000 acres of wetlands would have lost protection under the 2020 NWPR in Virginia’s James River and Rappahannock River watersheds, which are vital to water quality in the Chesapeake Bay. Finally, in the Southwest, comments from the State of New Mexico estimated that under the 2020 NWPR, 25–45% of its Clean Water Act stormwater general permits and 50% of its individual permits would no longer be required. In Arizona, a commenter stated that 94% of all wetlands and flowlines in Arizona’s Upper San Pedro Watershed would have lost protection under the 2020 NWPR.

The agencies have not conducted an independent analysis to verify each of these comments but have carefully reviewed the concerns identified and the underlying analyses that commenters cited and found them generally consistent with the agencies’ own findings about the impacts of the 2020 NWPR. These examples illustrate the quality and importance of the waters that lost protection under the 2020 NWPR. As commenters emphasized, waters that the 2020 NWPR categorically excluded, such as ephemeral streams and their associated wetlands and wetlands that did not

meet the 2020 NWPR's adjacency criteria, provide critical ecosystem services. The absence of Clean Water Act protections for such resources and any subsequent unregulated and unmitigated impacts to such resources would have caused cascading, cumulative, and substantial downstream harm. Commenters stated that, specifically, the 2020 NWPR would have reduced the extent to which waters filter out pollutants before they reach traditional navigable waters; reduced flood protections and water storage services, and increased flooding; harmed fisheries and hunting sites; destroyed bird and wildlife habitat, including habitats relied on by endangered species; and reduced the quality of drinking water. Commenters also stated that the reduction in federally protected waters under the 2020 NWPR could increase water pollution near low-income communities and communities of color in particular and that they could experience associated increases in health risk.

The 2020 NWPR's removal of Federal protections from the nation's waters, and the resulting detriment to the services they provide, undermines the objective of the Clean Water Act, as discussed in section IV.A.2 of this preamble.

ii. Tribes and States Did Not Fill the Regulatory Gap Left by the 2020 NWPR

Some commenters asserted that the diminished scope of "waters of the United States" would not necessarily reduce protections for waters because Tribes, States, and local entities may regulate discharges even in the absence of Clean Water Act regulation. See section IV.A.3.b of this preamble. This perspective is consistent with the 2020 NWPR's emphasis that, in the face of a narrower scope of "waters of the United States," "the controls that States, Tribes, and local entities choose to exercise over their land and water resources" would help to achieve the objective of the Clean Water Act. 85 FR 22259 (April 21, 2020). Yet while some Tribes and States regulate "waters of the Tribe" or "waters of the State" more broadly than the Federal Government under their own laws, many newly non-jurisdictional waters under the 2020 NWPR were on Tribal lands or in States that do not regulate waters beyond those covered by the Clean Water Act. Under the 2020 NWPR, discharges into these waters could have occurred without any restriction.

As discussed in the Economic Analysis for the Final Rule, many Tribes and States do not regulate waters more broadly than the Clean Water Act. See

Economic Analysis for the Final Rule, Chapter II; 2020 NWPR Economic Analysis at 30–31. Contrary to the predictions made in the 2020 NWPR Economic Analysis, during the year in which the 2020 NWPR was in effect, the net change made by States was deregulatory in nature. Two States which had previously protected State waters beyond the scope of "waters of the United States" removed these expansive protections, and no States that lacked these broader protections established them. See 2020 NWPR Economic Analysis at 39–41 (estimating that certain States are likely to continue their current permitting practices for dredged and fill material) and the Economic Analysis for the Final Rule, Chapter II (indicating that two of those States reduced the scope of State clean water protections after the 2020 NWPR was finalized, and none of them formally expanded protections as a direct result of the 2020 NWPR).

The agencies understand that revising State regulations and/or laws takes time, and the agencies do not know how some States might have responded if the 2020 NWPR had been in place for more than a year, but the agencies have no basis to expect that more States that currently lack protections beyond the 2020 NWPR Federal floor would have established them. Indeed, the External Environmental Economics Advisory Committee has stated that the model that the 2020 NWPR used to forecast State responses to that rule was overly optimistic with respect to the likelihood that States would address a Federal regulatory gap, in part based on the agencies' failure to fully consider States' responses to past changes to the definition of "waters of the United States" (e.g., only three States directly increased protective regulations in response to the decision in *SWANCC* that the use of "isolated" non-navigable intrastate ponds by migratory birds was not by itself a sufficient basis for the exercise of Federal authority under the Clean Water Act, and the agencies' resulting change in implementation of the Act).⁸⁴ Moreover, commenters,

⁸⁴ Prior to the 2016 Trump Administration, EPA's Science Advisory Board (SAB) had a subcommittee on environmental economics known as the Environmental Economics Advisory Committee (EEAC). When this committee was disbanded under the 2016 Administration, its members created an ad-hoc external committee. This External Environmental Economics Advisory Committee (E-EEAC) carried out an assessment of the economic analysis associated with the 2020 NWPR. See Keiser, D., S. Olmstead, K. Boyle, V. Flatt, B. Keeler, D. Phaneuf, J. Shapiro, and J. Shimshack (2020). *Report on the Repeal of the Clean Water Rule and its Replacement with the Navigable Waters Protection Rule to Define Waters of the United States (WOTUS)*. December 2020. As of today, the

including State entities, asserted that the Federal Government provided no assistance or support for overburdened State agencies trying to compensate for the sudden suspension in Federal protections under the 2020 NWPR. Finally, States asserted that in the absence of robust Federal protections, even if they were to expend substantial resources addressing discharges within their borders, they would not be able to limit pollutants flowing in from other States that may not have established such controls.

The agencies are also not aware of any Tribes that expanded their clean water protections to compensate for a reduction in protections under the 2020 NWPR. During the agencies' Tribal consultation and coordination for this rulemaking process, Tribes overwhelmingly indicated they lack the independent resources and expertise to protect their waters and therefore rely on Clean Water Act protections. See Summary of Tribal Consultation and Coordination, available in the docket for this rule. This feedback is consistent with the concerns expressed during the 2020 NWPR rulemaking process. See, e.g., 85 FR 22336–22337, April 21, 2020 ("[M]any Tribes may lack the capacity to create a [T]ribal water program under [T]ribal law, to administer a program, or to expand programs that currently exist. Other Tribes may rely on the Federal government for enforcement of water quality violations . . .").

Given the limited capacity of many Tribes and States to regulate waters more broadly than the Federal Government and limited authority under Tribal and State law, the narrowing of Federal jurisdiction would mean that many discharges into the newly non-jurisdictional waters would no longer be subject to regulation, including permitting processes and mitigation requirements designed to protect the chemical, physical, and biological integrity of the nation's waters. The agencies have heard concerns from a broad array of co-regulators and stakeholders, including Tribes, States, scientists, and non-governmental organizations, that corroborated the agencies' data and indicated that the 2020 NWPR's reduction in the jurisdictional scope of the Clean Water Act would cause substantial environmental harms, including to the quality of paragraph (a)(1) waters, that Tribes and States lack the authority or resources to address.

EPA's SAB has reinstated the EEAC, which assessed the proposed rule's economic analysis as part of the SAB's review of the rule.

In conclusion, the agencies do not find that the 2020 NWPR is a suitable alternative to this rule.

C. This Rule

1. Summary of This Rule

This rule establishes the definition of “waters of the United States” for purposes of the Clean Water Act. For clarity, this rule is divided into three parts: jurisdictional waters, exclusions, and definitions. This section of the preamble addresses each provision of the rule and provides an explanation of the rule text, a response to significant comments, and the agencies’ interpretation and implementation of the provisions of the rule.

The “waters of the United States” are defined in paragraph (a) of this rule: (1) traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters (“paragraph (a)(1) waters”); (2) impoundments of “waters of the United States” (“paragraph (a)(2) impoundments”); (3) tributaries to traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, interstate waters, or paragraph (a)(2) impoundments when the tributaries meet either the relatively permanent standard or the significant nexus standard (“jurisdictional tributaries”); (4) wetlands adjacent to paragraph (a)(1) waters; wetlands adjacent to and with a continuous surface connection to relatively permanent paragraph (a)(2) impoundments or to jurisdictional tributaries when the jurisdictional tributaries meet the relatively permanent standard; and wetlands adjacent to paragraph (a)(2) impoundments or jurisdictional tributaries when the wetlands meet the significant nexus standard (“jurisdictional adjacent wetlands”); and (5) intrastate lakes and ponds, streams, or wetlands not identified in paragraphs (a)(1) through (4) that meet either the relatively permanent standard or the significant nexus standard (“paragraph (a)(5) waters”).

The “relatively permanent standard” means relatively permanent, standing or continuously flowing waters connected to paragraph (a)(1) waters, and waters with a continuous surface connection to such relatively permanent waters or to paragraph (a)(1) waters. The “significant nexus standard” means waters that, either alone or in combination with similarly situated waters in the region, significantly affect the chemical, physical, or biological integrity of traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, or interstate waters.

Paragraph (b) of this rule contains the longstanding exclusions from the pre-

2015 regulations, as well as additional exclusions based on well-established practice, from the definition of “waters of the United States.” Paragraph (c) of this rule provides definitions for terms used in this rule.

Paragraph (a): Jurisdictional Waters

Paragraph (a)(1). This rule defines “waters of the United States” to include traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters. The agencies are not making changes to the text or substance of the provisions of the 1986 regulations covering traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters. The agencies are consolidating these three categories of waters into one paragraph at the beginning of the regulatory text. While combined into one paragraph, each category will remain distinct in separate subparagraphs. The agencies have concluded that this non-substantive change streamlines the regulatory text and increases clarity. This streamlining is not a substantive change and does not alter the agencies’ longstanding interpretation and implementation of these provisions.

Paragraph (a)(2). This rule defines “waters of the United States” to include impoundments of “waters of the United States.” Impoundments are created by discrete structures (often human-built) like dams or levees that typically have the effect of raising the water surface elevation, creating or expanding the area of open water, or both. In this rule, the paragraph (a)(2) impoundments category provides that “waters of the United States” do not lose their jurisdictional status simply because they are impounded. In a change from the 1986 regulations, waters that are jurisdictional under paragraph (a)(5) and that are subsequently impounded do not retain their jurisdictional status by rule under the paragraph (a)(2) impoundments provision, but may still be determined to be jurisdictional if they meet the requirements of a category of “waters of the United States” other than paragraph (a)(2) at the time of assessment (*i.e.*, as a traditional navigable water, the territorial seas, interstate water, jurisdictional tributary, jurisdictional adjacent wetland, or paragraph (a)(5) water).

Paragraph (a)(3). This rule defines “waters of the United States” to include tributaries of traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, interstate waters, or paragraph (a)(2) impoundments when the tributaries meet either the relatively permanent standard or the significant nexus standard. As compared to the 1986

regulations, this rule adds the territorial seas to the list of waters to which a water may be a tributary and deletes intrastate lakes and ponds, streams, or wetlands not identified in paragraphs (a)(1) through (4) (the (a)(3) “other waters” provision under the 1986 regulations) from the list.

Paragraph (a)(4). Aquatic resources that meet this rule’s definitions of “wetlands” and “adjacent” with regard to another jurisdictional water are assessed under this provision. The rule defines “waters of the United States” to include: (1) wetlands adjacent to traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, or interstate waters; (2) wetlands adjacent to and with a continuous surface connection to relatively permanent paragraph (a)(2) impoundments or jurisdictional tributaries when the jurisdictional tributaries meet the relatively permanent standard; or (3) wetlands adjacent to paragraph (a)(2) impoundments or jurisdictional tributaries when the wetlands meet the significant nexus standard (“jurisdictional adjacent wetlands”).

Paragraph (a)(5). This rule defines “waters of the United States” to include intrastate lakes and ponds, streams, or wetlands not identified in paragraphs (a)(1) through (4) that meet either the relatively permanent standard or the significant nexus standard. In this paragraph, the agencies are retaining the category from the 1986 regulations sometimes referred to as “(a)(3) waters” or “other waters,” but with changes to reflect the agencies’ determination of the statutory limits on the scope of “waters of the United States” informed by the law, the science, and agency expertise, in addition to consideration of extensive public comment on the proposed rule. Of particular importance, the agencies have replaced the 1986 regulation’s broad Commerce Clause basis for jurisdiction for waters not identified in other provisions of the definition, with the relatively permanent standard and the significant nexus standard. In addition, the agencies have deleted the non-exclusive list of “other waters” in the 1986 regulation. Under this provision in the rule, only “intrastate lakes and ponds, streams, or wetlands not identified in paragraphs (a)(1) through (4)” can be assessed for jurisdiction under the relatively permanent standard or significant nexus standard.

Paragraph (b): Exclusions

The agencies are promulgating a number of exclusions from the definition of “waters of the United States,” including longstanding

exclusions for prior converted cropland and waste treatment systems, and exclusions for features that were generally considered non-jurisdictional under the pre-2015 regulatory regime. The agencies are listing these exclusions in the regulatory text in a new paragraph (b), which consolidates the exclusions together in a single regulatory section. Under this rule, where a feature satisfies the terms of an exclusion, it is excluded from jurisdiction even where the feature would otherwise be jurisdictional under paragraphs (a)(2) through (5) of this rule. Paragraph (a)(1) waters are not subject to the exclusions. The exclusions are:

- (1) Waste treatment systems, including treatment ponds or lagoons, designed to meet the requirements of the Clean Water Act;
- (2) Prior converted cropland designated by the Secretary of Agriculture. The exclusion would cease upon a change of use, which means that the area is no longer available for the production of agricultural commodities. Notwithstanding the determination of an area's status as prior converted cropland by any other Federal agency, for the purposes of the Clean Water Act, the final authority regarding Clean Water Act jurisdiction remains with EPA;
- (3) Ditches (including roadside ditches) excavated wholly in and draining only dry land and that do not carry a relatively permanent flow of water;
- (4) Artificially irrigated areas that would revert to dry land if the irrigation ceased;
- (5) Artificial lakes or ponds created by excavating or diking dry land to collect and retain water and which are used exclusively for such purposes as stock watering, irrigation, settling basins, or rice growing;
- (6) Artificial reflecting or swimming pools or other small ornamental bodies of water created by excavating or diking dry land to retain water for primarily aesthetic reasons;
- (7) Waterfilled depressions created in dry land incidental to construction activity and pits excavated in dry land for the purpose of obtaining fill, sand, or gravel unless and until the construction or excavation operation is abandoned and the resulting body of water meets the definition of waters of the United States; and
- (8) Swales and erosional features (e.g., gullies, small washes) characterized by low volume, infrequent, or short duration flow.

Paragraph (c): Definitions

Paragraph (c) of this rule provides definitions for purposes of the rule. This rule contains several defined terms unchanged from the 1986 regulations: the definitions of “wetlands,” “adjacent,” “high tide line,” “ordinary high water mark,” and “tidal water.” This rule defines the term “significantly affect” for purposes of determining whether a water meets the significant nexus standard to mean “a material influence on the chemical, physical, or biological integrity of” a paragraph (a)(1) water. Under this rule, waters, including wetlands, are evaluated either alone, or in combination with other similarly situated waters in the region, based on the functions the evaluated waters perform. This rule identifies specific functions that will be assessed and identifies specific factors that will be considered when determining whether the functions provided by the water, either alone or in combination, have a material influence on the integrity of a traditional navigable water, the territorial seas, or an interstate water. These factors include the distance from a paragraph (a)(1) water; hydrologic factors, such as the frequency, duration, magnitude, timing, and rate of hydrologic connections, including shallow subsurface flow; the size, density, or number of waters that have been determined to be similarly situated; landscape position and geomorphology; and climatological variables such as temperature, rainfall, and snowpack. The functions in this rule are indicators that are tied to the chemical, physical, or biological integrity of paragraph (a)(1) waters, including contribution of flow; trapping, transformation, filtering, and transport of materials (including nutrients, sediment, and other pollutants); retention and attenuation of floodwaters and runoff; modulation of temperature in paragraph (a)(1) waters; or provision of habitat and food resources for aquatic species located in paragraph (a)(1) waters.

Section IV.C of this preamble also provides guidance on implementation of each provision of this rule. In implementing this rule, the agencies generally will consider first if a water qualifies as a paragraph (a)(1) water (i.e., a traditional navigable water, the territorial seas, or an interstate water). If a waterbody is determined to be a paragraph (a)(1) water, then it is jurisdictional with no need for further evaluation. If a water is not a paragraph (a)(1) water, the agencies generally will consider next whether any of the exclusions in paragraph (b) of this rule

apply to the water. The exclusions in this rule do not apply to paragraph (a)(1) waters, and therefore, a traditional navigable water, the territorial seas, or an interstate water cannot be excluded under this rule, even if the water would otherwise meet the criteria for an exclusion.⁸⁵ If a water does not qualify as a paragraph (a)(1) water and the agencies determine that an exclusion is applicable (e.g., waters that meet the waste treatment system exclusion, wetlands that qualify as prior converted cropland), the water would not be jurisdictional under this rule. If the water is not a paragraph (a)(1) water, and an exclusion under paragraph (b) does not apply, then the agencies generally will determine next if the water can be assessed under paragraphs (a)(2) through (4) of this rule. If the water does not meet the criteria for paragraphs (a)(1) through (4), the agencies generally will assess next if the water is jurisdictional under paragraph (a)(5) of this rule. When assessing the jurisdictional status of waters after the effective date of the final rule, regulators and the public should use the definition of “waters of the United States” established by this rule. For example, when assessing whether a stream is a jurisdictional tributary, regulators and the public should consider the provisions related to tributaries in the final rule.⁸⁶ If a water is not jurisdictional under paragraphs (a)(1) through (5) of this rule, then the water does not meet the definition of “waters of the United States.”

It is important to note that some aquatic resources can potentially be assessed for jurisdiction under multiple categories of this rule. For example, certain streams, rivers, lakes, ponds, wetlands, and impoundments can be assessed as traditional navigable waters or interstate waters under paragraph (a)(1)(i) or (a)(1)(iii) of this rule. Other streams, rivers, lakes, ponds, and impoundments are situated such that they are part of the tributary system and can be assessed under paragraph (a)(3) of this rule. The agencies will assess intrastate lakes and ponds, streams, and

⁸⁵ See also discussion of the waste treatment system exclusion in section IV.C.7.b of this preamble, *infra*.

⁸⁶ The agencies will continue to evaluate potential enforcement actions using the regulations in place when the alleged violation occurred. For example, if a person excavated a ditch while the pre-2015 regulatory regime was in effect and the person complied with the terms of the pre-2015 regulatory regime, today's final rule does not create new liability. See *United States v. Lucero*, 989 F.3d 1088 (9th Cir. 2021) (explaining that the 2020 NWPR did not apply retroactively to the defendant's violations, which occurred before the 2020 NWPR became effective).

wetlands under paragraph (a)(5) of this rule only if they do not fall within paragraphs (a)(1) through (4). In any case, the agencies will identify the provision or provisions of the rule under which a determination of jurisdiction is made.

Section IV.C of this preamble provides increased clarity and substantial guidance to assist in implementing the relatively permanent standard and significant nexus standard. *See* sections IV.C.4, IV.C.5, and IV.C.6 of this preamble for additional information on how the agencies will implement these standards for tributaries, adjacent wetlands, and waters assessed under paragraph (a)(5) (these sections include guidance on identifying waterbodies on the landscape, determining which waters are “relatively permanent, standing or continuously flowing,” identifying waters with a “continuous surface connection” under the relatively permanent standard, and identifying which waters are “similarly situated” and “in the region” under the significant nexus standard).

As is typical after a rule is promulgated, the agencies have entered into a joint agency coordination memorandum to ensure the consistency and thoroughness of the agencies’ implementation of this rule, which is available in the docket for the final rule. *See* Docket ID No. EPA-HQ-OW-2021-0602. As part of these coordination procedures, EPA and Corps field staff will coordinate on all draft approved jurisdictional determinations based on the significant nexus standard, and the agencies will follow a process for elevating a subset of these determinations to EPA and Corps headquarters for review as necessary. That coordination will be enhanced for waters assessed under paragraph (a)(5), and headquarters at the agencies will review all draft approved jurisdictional determinations⁸⁷ for paragraph (a)(5) waters based on the significant nexus standard. After nine months, the agencies will reevaluate this requirement and assess the implementation and coordination memorandum approach. *See* section IV.C.6 of this preamble for additional discussion.

The agencies note that Congress exempted or excluded certain discharges from the Clean Water Act or from specific permitting requirements. This rule will not affect any of the

exemptions, including exemptions from section 404 permitting requirements provided by section 404(f), such as those for normal farming, ranching, and silviculture activities. 33 U.S.C. 1344(f); 40 CFR 232.3; 33 CFR 323.4. This rule will also not affect the existing statutory or regulatory exemptions or exclusions from section 402 NPDES permitting requirements, such as for agricultural stormwater discharges and return flows from irrigated agriculture, or the status of water transfers. 33 U.S.C. 1342(j)(1), (j)(2); 33 U.S.C. 1362(14); 40 CFR 122.2, 122.3(f). In addition, where waters are covered by the Clean Water Act, the agencies have adopted measures to simplify compliance with the Act such as general permits and tools for expediting the permitting process (*e.g.*, mitigation banks, in-lieu fee programs, and functional/conditional assessment tools). The agencies intend to continue to develop general permits and other simplified procedures to ensure that projects, particularly those that offer environmental or public benefits, can proceed with the necessary environmental safeguards while minimizing permitting delays.

Finally, with respect to determining whether a water meets the definition of “waters of the United States,” under case law and the Corps’ existing regulations “[u]nauthorized discharges into waters of the United States do not eliminate Clean Water Act jurisdiction, even where such unauthorized discharges have the effect of destroying waters of the United States.” 33 CFR 323.2 (1987). Thus, for example, an unpermitted discharge of fill material into a jurisdictional adjacent wetland that destroys all wetland characteristics does not render that water no longer jurisdictional. Nor does an authorized discharge, filling in a part of a tributary, for example, sever jurisdiction upstream, provided that the upstream waters meet the definition of “waters of the United States” absent the unauthorized discharge.

2. Traditional Navigable Waters, the Territorial Seas, and Interstate Waters

a. This Rule

The agencies are not making changes to the text or substance of the provisions of the 1986 regulations covering traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters. The agencies are consolidating these three categories of waters into one paragraph at the beginning of the regulatory text. While combined into one paragraph, each category will remain distinct in separate subparagraphs. The agencies have

concluded that this non-substantive change streamlines the regulatory text and increases clarity. This consolidation requires corresponding changes to cross references and the numbering of other provisions in the rule. These changes increase clarity by reducing the number of cross references necessary and make practical sense because the jurisdictional status of other categories of waters relies on their connection to traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, or interstate waters. For example, the definition of “significantly affect” refers simply to “the chemical, physical, or biological integrity of waters identified in paragraph (a)(1) of this section” rather than requiring multiple cross-references to three separate paragraphs. This streamlining is not a substantive change and does not alter the agencies’ longstanding interpretation and implementation of these provisions.

b. Summary of the Agencies’ Consideration of Public Comments and Rationale for This Rule

The agencies have concluded that the non-substantive change consolidating traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters into paragraph (a)(1) streamlines the regulatory text and increases clarity. These changes increase clarity by reducing the number of cross references necessary and make practical sense because the jurisdictional status of other categories of waters relies on their connection to traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, or interstate waters. The rationale for retaining each of these three water types is provided in the relevant subsections below.

Some commenters expressed support for the categorical protection and consolidation of traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters. One commenter stated that the consolidation is “consistent with the history and text of the law.” Several commenters opposed the consolidation of the traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters provisions into one jurisdictional category, arguing that the categories of waters are distinct and therefore should remain separate. The agencies agree that each of these provisions is a distinct category but disagree that consolidating them into one paragraph has any effect on distinguishing the types of waters which fall within each category. Further, the agencies have kept the text of each category the same as in the 1986 regulations and have established separate subparagraphs for each category to ensure there is no confusion. The jurisdictional standards for each of

⁸⁷ An approved jurisdictional determination is a Corps document stating the presence or absence of “waters of the United States” on a parcel or a written statement and map identifying the limits of “waters of the United States” on a parcel. *See* 33 CFR 331.2.

the three categories are different, so the agencies will clearly identify the subparagraph under which a particular water is jurisdictional. A water which meets the test for traditional navigable waters under the Clean Water Act, for example, will be identified as jurisdictional under paragraph (a)(1)(i). Note that some waters may fall into more than one category of paragraph (a)(1) waters (e.g., a water may be both a traditional navigable water and an interstate water, such as Lake Tahoe, or a water may be both a traditional navigable water and part of the territorial seas, such as the Pacific Ocean).

A commenter stated that the protection of traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters should not be affected by any exclusions that the agencies may include in this rule. The agencies agree and the text of this rule is clear that the exclusions do not apply to paragraph (a)(1) waters. See also section IV.C.7 of this preamble. The Clean Water Act fundamentally protects these three categories of waters: traditional navigable waters are clearly encompassed within the defined term “navigable waters”; the territorial seas are explicitly mentioned in the definition of “navigable waters”; and, as discussed further below, interstate waters, by definition, are waters of the “several States” and are unambiguously “waters of the United States.” While the agencies have authority to draw lines excluding some aquatic features from the definition of “waters of the United States,” the Clean Water Act provides no such authority to the agencies to exclude waters in these three unambiguous types of “waters of the United States” under the statute. Even if jurisdiction over one or all of these categories of waters were ambiguous, the agencies have concluded that since these are the fundamental waters that Congress intended to protect under the Clean Water Act, and that have had longstanding and unequivocal protection, with the exception of the 2020 NWPR, it is reasonable to establish unequivocal jurisdiction over these waters. Further, the agencies have concluded that there are no policy, practical, or technical bases to apply the exclusions to these paragraph (a)(1) waters given their crucial role in the statutory regime.

Some commenters expressed support for consolidating just traditional navigable waters and territorial seas into a single category of jurisdictional waters. A commenter added that this approach is logical because these two types of waters are the only types of

waters that are explicitly referenced in the operative sections of the Clean Water Act. The commenter asserted that combining these waters into one category would make the rule clearer and easier to administer. Similarly, a couple of commenters expressed concerns that the proposed rule too broadly categorized what is considered a “foundational” water. The 2020 NWPR consolidated the categories of traditional navigable waters and the territorial seas in the definition of “waters of the United States” into a single paragraph in the regulatory text in order to streamline the text but deleted the interstate waters category. 85 FR 22280, 22338, 22340 (April 21, 2020). The agencies agree that combining these waters into one category makes the rule clearer and easier to administer. However, the agencies have also combined interstate waters into the same paragraph because, as discussed above, protecting all three categories of waters is a fundamental aim of the Clean Water Act. See section IV.C.2.b.iii of this preamble (discussing protection under the Clean Water Act of interstate waters in the same manner as traditional navigable waters and the territorial seas). Under this rule, the jurisdictional status of the other categories of waters relies on their connection to any one of these three categories of waters—a traditional navigable water, the territorial seas, or an interstate water (and, where required, meeting either the relatively permanent standard or the significant nexus standard). Therefore, the agencies have concluded that streamlining the rule by including all three categories of these waters in one paragraph is reasonable and appropriate.

A commenter suggested that the agencies provide a definition of “foundational waters.” The commenter suggested that “if the common shorthand is that the waters used for commerce, the interstate waters[,] and the territorial seas are the ‘foundational waters[,]’ then the additional term ‘foundational waters’ should be defined as such.” The commenter asserted that this would make the rule text easier to understand and use. The agencies are not providing a definition for “foundational waters” because they are not using the term “foundational waters” in the rule text. The agencies used the phrase “foundational waters” in the preamble to the proposed rule simply for convenience and readability rather than writing the phrase “traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters” repeatedly. As discussed above in this

preamble, in light of the new consolidated paragraph that groups those three categories of waters together, the agencies will simply refer to those waters as “paragraph (a)(1) waters” in this preamble.

i. Traditional Navigable Waters

(1) This Rule

The Clean Water Act, the 1986 regulations, the 2015 Clean Water Rule, the 2019 Repeal Rule, and the 2020 NWPR all include within the scope of “waters of the United States” traditional navigable waters, defined by regulation as “all waters which are currently used, or were used in the past, or may be susceptible to use in interstate or foreign commerce, including all waters which are subject to the ebb and flow of the tide.” E.g., 33 CFR 328.3(a)(1) (2014). With respect to traditional navigable waters, the text of the 1986 regulations and the text of the 2020 NWPR are identical. The agencies did not propose to amend the longstanding text defining “traditional navigable waters” and are not making changes to the text in this rule. As discussed above, the agencies are consolidating three categories of waters into one paragraph at the beginning of the regulatory text, and with this consolidation, “traditional navigable waters” are identified in paragraph (a)(1)(i) of this rule.

The agencies also are not making changes to their longstanding interpretation of traditional navigable waters for purposes of Clean Water Act jurisdiction. Thus, these paragraph (a)(1)(i) waters include all of the “navigable waters of the United States,” defined in 33 CFR part 329 and by numerous decisions of the Federal courts, plus all other waters that are navigable-in-fact (e.g., the Great Salt Lake, Utah and Lake Minnetonka, Minnesota). To determine whether a waterbody constitutes a paragraph (a)(1)(i) water under the regulations, relevant considerations include the agencies’ regulations; prior determinations by the Corps, by EPA, and by the Federal courts; and case law. The agencies will determine whether a particular waterbody is a traditional navigable water based on application of those considerations to the specific facts in each case.

As noted above, the paragraph (a)(1)(i) waters include, but are not limited to, the “navigable waters of the United States.” A water body qualifies as a “navigable water of the United States” if it meets any of the tests set forth in 33 CFR part 329 (e.g., the waterbody is (a) subject to the ebb and flow of the tide, and/or (b) the waterbody is

presently used, or has been used in the past, or may be susceptible for use (with or without reasonable improvements) to transport interstate or foreign commerce).

Traditional navigable waters also include “all waters that are currently used, or were used in the past, or may be susceptible to use in interstate or foreign commerce, including all waters which are subject to the ebb and flow of the tide.” Some examples of waters that will be considered traditional navigable waters, and thus jurisdictional under this provision of this rule include: waters currently being used for commercial navigation, including commercial waterborne recreation (for example, boat rentals, guided fishing trips, or water ski tournaments); waters that have historically been used for commercial navigation, including commercial waterborne recreation; or waters that are susceptible to being used in the future for commercial navigation, including commercial waterborne recreation. See “Waters that Qualify as Traditional Navigable Waters Under Section (a)(1) of the Agencies’ Regulations,”⁸⁸ available at <https://www.epa.gov/wotus/waters-qualify>

⁸⁸ “Waters that Qualify as Traditional Navigable Waters Under Section (a)(1) of the Agencies’ Regulations,” began as “Waters that Qualify as Waters of the United States Under Section (a)(1) of the Agencies’ Regulations” in Appendix D to the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers Jurisdictional Determination Form Instructional Guidebook (available at <https://usace.contentdm.oclc.org/utills/getfile/collection/p16021coll1/id/2316>) that was published in 2007 concurrently with the 2007 *Rapanos* Guidance and thus is often simply referred to as “Appendix D.” The *Rapanos* Guidance was updated in 2008, but Appendix D has remained unchanged since 2007. Paragraph (a)(1)(i) of this rule was paragraph (a)(1) of the regulations in place when the guidance was issued, but the text of that provision has not changed through the various rulemakings defining “waters of the United States,” and the agencies have continued to use the guidance for determining whether a water is a “traditional navigable water.” See 80 FR 37054, 37074 (June 29, 2015) (2015 Clean Water Rule); 85 FR 22250, 22281 (April 21, 2020) (2020 NWPR). There have been no substantive changes to the guidance since it was issued on May 30, 2007. In 2021, EPA and the Army established “Waters that Qualify as Waters of the United States Under Section (a)(1) of the Agencies’ Regulations,” as a standalone guidance document when rescinding a memorandum on traditional navigable waters finalized after the 2020 NWPR. However, for clarity the agencies have updated the title to “Waters that Qualify as Traditional Navigable Waters Under Section (a)(1) of the Agencies’ Regulations” and deleted references to the *Rapanos* Guidance. The agencies will continue to use this guidance to determine whether a water is a “traditional navigable water” for the purposes of the Clean Water Act and the agencies’ implementing regulations. This document is available at <https://www.epa.gov/wotus/waters-qualify-traditional-navigable-waters-under-section-a1-agencies-regulations>.

traditional-navigable-waters-under-section-a1-agencies-regulations.

2) Summary of the Agencies’ Consideration of Public Comments and Rationale for This Rule

Supreme Court decisions have not questioned the inclusion of traditional navigable waters in the definition of “waters of the United States.” See, e.g., *SWANCC*, 531 U.S. at 172 (“The term ‘navigable’ has at least the import of showing us what Congress had in mind as its authority for enacting the CWA: its traditional jurisdiction over waters that were or had been navigable in fact or which could reasonably be so made.”).

Some commenters voiced support for the agencies’ decision to interpret the scope of traditional navigable waters consistent with the agencies’ longstanding approach in the document known as “Waters that Qualify as Waters of the United States Under Section (a)(1) of the Agencies’ Regulations.” A commenter added that such an interpretation is consistent with the agencies’ longstanding guidance and is familiar to Tribal and State co-regulators as well as the general public. Another commenter stated that the agencies’ reference to “Waters that Qualify as Waters of the United States Under Section (a)(1) of the Agencies’ Regulations” would create additional confusion during the implementation of this rule. The agencies are maintaining their longstanding approach to traditional navigable waters for purposes of the Clean Water Act as reflected in this well-established document. The agencies have used this guidance since 2007 and through a number of rulemakings. The 2020 NWPR continued use of this guidance, stating, “because the agencies have not modified the definition of ‘traditional navigable waters,’ the agencies are retaining [‘Waters that Qualify as Waters of the United States Under Section (a)(1) of the Agencies’ Regulations’] to help inform implementation of that provision of this final rule.” 85 FR 22281 (April 21, 2020). Given the longstanding use of the guidance, the agencies do not think it will cause confusion to continue to use it. To provide additional clarity, however, the agencies are maintaining this document as standalone guidance titled “Waters that Qualify as Traditional Navigable Waters Under Section (a)(1) of the Agencies’ Regulations,” with minor edits to the title and to reflect that the *Rapanos* Guidance is no longer in effect, simultaneously with this rule.

After the 2020 NWPR was promulgated, the agencies issued a coordination memorandum that created

some confusion. “U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (Corps) Process for Elevating and Coordinating Specific Draft Determinations under the Clean Water Act (CWA)” (hereinafter, “TNW Coordination Memorandum”). The memorandum established an implementation process by which the agencies elevate to their headquarters certain case-specific and stand-alone Clean Water Act traditional navigable water determinations concluding that a water is “susceptible to use” solely based on evidence of recreation-based commerce. *Id.* The TNW Coordination Memorandum merely required enhanced coordination for such determinations and did not state that a “susceptible to use” determination could not be solely based on evidence of recreation-based commerce. On November 17, 2021, the agencies rescinded the TNW Coordination Memorandum but kept in place the “Waters that Qualify as Waters of the United States Under Section (a)(1) of the Agencies’ Regulations.”⁸⁹ A few commenters asserted that recreational activities are sufficient evidence to demonstrate that a water is susceptible to being used in the future for commercial navigation, thereby qualifying waters supporting recreational activities as traditional navigable waters for purposes of the Clean Water Act. Alternatively, several commenters asserted that recreational activities are not sufficient evidence to demonstrate that a water is a traditional navigable water. The Supreme Court has been clear that “[e]vidence of recreational use, depending on its nature, may bear upon susceptibility of commercial use.” *PPL Montana v. Montana*, 565 U.S. 576, 600–01 (2012) (in the context of navigability at the time of statehood); *id.* at 601 (“[P]ersonal or private use by boats demonstrates the availability of the stream for the simpler types of commercial navigation.” (quoting *United States v. Appalachian Elec. Power Co.*, 311 U.S. 377, 416 (1940))); *id.* (noting that the “fact that actual use has ‘been more of a private nature than of a public, commercial sort . . . cannot be regarded as controlling” (quoting *United States v. Utah*, 283 U.S. 64, 82

⁸⁹ U.S. Environmental Protection Agency and U.S. Department of the Army. “Rescission of June 30, 2020 Memorandum ‘U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (Corps) Process for Elevating and Coordinating Specific Draft Determinations under the Clean Water Act (CWA).’” November 17, 2021. Available at https://www.epa.gov/system/files/documents/2021-11/nwpr-tnw-coordination-rescission-memo_signed-11.17.2021.pdf.

(1931))). Therefore, the agencies are maintaining their longstanding position that commercial waterborne recreation (for example, boat rentals, guided fishing trips, or water ski tournaments) can be considered when determining if a water is a traditional navigable water.

Some commenters stated that the agencies must ensure that traditional navigable waters are not limited to just the waters that the agencies have determined to be “navigable waters of the United States” under section 10 of the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899. Other commenters stated that the agencies should limit the scope of traditional navigable waters to the section 10 waters under the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899. The agencies are not changing their longstanding position that the traditional navigable waters for purposes of the Clean Water Act include, but are not limited to, the section 10 waters under the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899, and include any of the waters that constitute traditional navigable waters under relevant judicial decisions. See “Waters that Qualify as Waters of the United States Under Section (a)(1) of the Agencies’ Regulations.”⁹⁰ The scope of the Rivers and Harbor Act of 1899 is generally narrower than the scope of the Clean Water Act. See, e.g., *1902 Atlantic Ltd. v. Hudson*, 574 F. Supp. 1381, 1392–93 (E.D. Va. 1983) (explaining that “[t]he term ‘navigable waters of the United States’ as used in the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899 has a substantially different, and more limited, meaning than the term as used in the Clean Water Act” and that “the term has a more limited meaning, consistent with the concepts of ‘navigation’ and ‘navigability’ as of 1899”). The scope of “navigable waters of the United States” under the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899 is thus more limited than the scope of traditional navigable waters for purposes of the Clean Water Act and as established in paragraph (a)(1)(i) of this rule. The Corps’ regulations reflect the difference and under the Corps’ regulations, “navigable waters of the United States” (i.e., waters that are subject to section 10 of the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899) are limited to “those waters that are subject to the ebb and flow of the tide and/or are presently used, or have been used in the past, or may be susceptible for use to transport interstate or foreign commerce.” 33 CFR 329.4. Therefore, there are numerous waters that have been determined to be traditional navigable waters for purposes of the Clean Water Act, or navigable for other purposes under Federal law, but which

are not “navigable waters of the United States” under section 10 of the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899. For example, the Supreme Court has found that the Great Salt Lake met the test for navigability for purposes of the ownership of the bed of the Lake at the time of Utah’s statehood, even though it was not part of a continuous waterborne highway of interstate commerce, but the Court of Appeals for the Tenth Circuit found that evidence insufficient to establish that the Lake is covered by the Rivers and Harbors Act of 1899. See *Utah v. United States*, 403 U.S. 9 (1971); *Hardy Salt Co. v. Southern Pacific Trans. Co.*, 501 F.2d 1156 (10th Cir. 1974). The Corps has determined the lake to be a traditional navigable water for purposes of the Clean Water Act based on the Supreme Court’s finding that the water in the past met the test for navigability. The distinction the agencies have drawn between section 10 waters and traditional navigable waters for purposes of the Clean Water Act is entirely consistent with Supreme Court case law. The Supreme Court in *Kaiser Aetna* rejected the notion “that the concept of ‘navigable waters of the United States’ has a fixed meaning that remains unchanged in whatever context it is being applied.” *Kaiser Aetna v. United States*, 444 U.S. 164, 170 (1979). Instead, the Court cautioned that “any reliance upon judicial precedent must be predicated upon a careful appraisal of the purpose for which the concept of ‘navigability’ was invoked in a particular case.” *Id.* at 171 (internal quotation marks omitted) (emphasis in original). The Supreme Court further stated that the “cases that discuss Congress’ paramount authority to regulate waters used in interstate commerce are consequently best understood when viewed in terms of more traditional Commerce Clause analysis than by reference to whether the stream, in fact, is capable of supporting navigation or may be characterized as [a] ‘navigable water of the United States.’” *Id.* at 174. More recently, the Supreme Court has cautioned “that the test for navigability is not applied in the same way in [different] types of cases[.]” referring, for example, to cases arising under the Federal Power Act, Clean Water Act, and title disputes. *PPL Montana v. Montana*, 565 U.S. 576, 592 (2012).

A number of commenters stated that the agencies’ interpretation of traditional navigable waters was inconsistent with the test for navigability in *The Daniel Ball*, 77 U.S. 557 (1870), with the discussion of navigability in SWANCC, and with the

plurality and Justice Kennedy’s opinions in *Rapanos*. The agencies disagree. None of the opinions in *Rapanos* addressed the test for traditional navigable waters; rather, they simply cited to *The Daniel Ball*—the beginning of a long line of cases addressing navigability. As the Supreme Court has explained: “The *Daniel Ball* formulation has been invoked in considering the navigability of waters for purposes of assessing federal regulatory authority under the Constitution, and the application of specific federal statutes, as to the waters and their beds.” *PPL Montana*, 565 U.S. at 592 (citing *The Montello*, 20 Wall. 430, 439 (1874); *United States v. Appalachian Elec. Power Co.*, 311 U.S. 377, 406 & n.21 (1940) (Federal Power Act); *Rapanos*, 547 U.S. at 730–31 (plurality opinion) (Clean Water Act); *id.* at 761 (Kennedy, J., concurring in judgment) (same)). In *PPL Montana*, the Supreme Court was clear that the test for navigability has evolved since *The Daniel Ball*; it depends upon the authority being exercised by the Federal Government and is a case-specific inquiry. “It should be noted, however, that the test for navigability is not applied in the same way in these distinct types of cases.” 565 U.S. at 592. Of particular relevance for traditional navigable waters for the Clean Water Act, “federal regulatory authority encompasses waters that only recently have become navigable, see, e.g., *Philadelphia Co. v. Stimson*, 223 U.S. 605, 634–635, 32 S.Ct. 340, 56 L.Ed. 570 (1912), were once navigable but are no longer, see *Economy Light & Power Co. v. United States*, 256 U.S. 113, 123–124, 41 S.Ct. 409, 65 L.Ed. 847 (1921), or are not navigable and never have been but may become so by reasonable improvements, see *Appalachian Elec. Power Co.*, *supra*, at 407–408, 61 S.Ct. 291. With respect to the Federal commerce power, the inquiry regarding navigation historically focused on interstate commerce. See *The Daniel Ball*, *supra*, at 564. And, of course, the commerce power extends beyond navigation. See *Kaiser Aetna v. United States*, 444 U.S. 164, 173–174, 100 S.Ct. 383, 62 L.Ed.2d 332 (1979). . . . Indeed, [e]ach application of [the *Daniel Ball*] test . . . is apt to uncover variations and refinements which require further elaboration.” *Appalachian Elec. Power Co.*, *supra*, at 406, 61 S.Ct. 291.” *PPL Montana*, 565 U.S. at 592–93. Thus, the agencies’ interpretation of traditional navigable waters for purposes of the Clean Water Act is consistent with *The Daniel Ball* as applied by the Supreme Court.

⁹⁰ See *supra* note 88.

ii. Territorial Seas

(1) This Rule

The Clean Water Act defines “navigable waters” to include “the territorial seas” in section 502(7). The Clean Water Act then defines the “territorial seas” in section 502(8) as “the belt of the seas measured from the line of ordinary low water along that portion of the coast which is in direct contact with the open sea and the line marking the seaward limit of inland waters, and extending seaward a distance of three miles.” The territorial seas establish the seaward limit of “waters of the United States” and are clearly jurisdictional under the Clean Water Act.

The Clean Water Act, the 1986 regulations, the 2015 Clean Water Rule, the 2019 Repeal Rule, and the 2020 NWPR all included “the territorial seas” as “waters of the United States.” This rule makes no changes to “the territorial seas” provision and retains the provision in the regulatory text, consolidated in paragraph (a)(1).

(2) Summary of the Agencies’ Consideration of Public Comments and Rationale for This Rule

As described above, the Clean Water Act explicitly defines the agencies’ jurisdiction to include “the territorial seas.” This rule confirms the agencies’ jurisdiction over these waters, consistent with Congress’s direction. A commenter stated that if the agencies combine traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters into one category of waters in this rule, the agencies should clarify that the territorial seas represent a distinct basis for jurisdiction and are not a type of traditional navigable water. The agencies agree with this commenter that the territorial seas are an independent category of jurisdictional waters. However, in the preamble to the proposed rule, the agencies also stated that the territorial seas are a type of traditional navigable water. While most portions of the territorial seas are also traditional navigable waters, the agencies are clarifying in this rule that portions of the territorial seas that may not be navigable or capable of being used in interstate or foreign commerce are still jurisdictional if they meet the definition of the “territorial seas” in the Clean Water Act. The agencies did not intend to exclude any portion of the territorial seas as the term is defined in Clean Water Act section 502(8), 33 U.S.C. 1362(8). To avoid any confusion, this rule continues to list traditional navigable waters and the territorial seas

as separate categories of jurisdictional waters.

iii. Interstate Waters

(1) This Rule

This rule retains the longstanding categorical protections for interstate waters, regardless of their navigability, that were established by the earliest predecessors to the 1972 Clean Water Act and remained in place except during the time period the 2020 NWPR was in effect. Interstate waters are, by definition, waters of the “several States,” U.S. Const. Article I, section 8, and are unambiguously “waters of the United States.” In addition, categorical protection of interstate waters is the construction of the Clean Water Act that is most consistent with the text of the statute, including section 303(a), its purpose and history, Supreme Court case law, and the agencies’ charge to implement a “comprehensive regulatory program” that protects the chemical, physical, and biological integrity of the nation’s waters.

The agencies interpret interstate waters under this rule to mean “all rivers, lakes, and other waters that flow across, or form a part of, State boundaries” based on precursor water protection statutes and practice. *See* 33 U.S.C. 466i(e) (1952) (codifying Pub. L. 80–845 section 10(e), 62 Stat. 1161 (1948)). Interstate waters thus include waters that cross or form a part of State boundaries with other States and with other countries (Canada and Mexico). Examples of such waters include portions of the Amargosa River, which flows from Nevada into a dry playa in Death Valley, California, and the Great Dismal Swamp, a wetland which crosses the border between Virginia and North Carolina. The Amargosa River is not a traditional navigable water and does not otherwise flow to a traditional navigable water or the territorial seas, but under the agencies’ pre-2015 regulations and the final rule, the portion of the Amargosa River that crosses the California/Nevada border is an interstate water. Tributaries to interstate waters like the Amargosa River and wetlands adjacent to interstate waters and their tributaries are critical sources of life in desert climates. Interstate waters also include waters that meet the definition of a traditional navigable water or are tributaries of traditional navigable waters or the territorial seas, such as the portions of the Ohio River and Mississippi River that cross or serve as State boundaries; the portions of the Rio Grande that cross State boundaries (Colorado/New Mexico) or that cross the border or serve

as the border between the United States and Mexico; and Lake Champlain, which crosses the New York/Vermont border and crosses the border between the United States and Canada.

Because, as explained below, the Clean Water Act unambiguously includes interstate waters, they are fundamental to the Act in the same manner as traditional navigable waters and the territorial seas. Even if the text of the Clean Water Act does not unambiguously resolve the question of jurisdiction over interstate waters, the agencies have concluded that it is reasonable to construe the statute to protect interstate waters without need for further assessment based on the history of the statute, Supreme Court case law interpreting the Act, the legislative history, and the objective of the Act to restore and maintain the integrity of the nation’s waters. Therefore, this rule, like the 1986 regulations, provides Clean Water Act protections for interstate waters in the same manner as for traditional navigable waters and the territorial seas, and the following waters that meet the relatively permanent standard or significant nexus standard based on their connection to interstate waters are “waters of the United States”: tributaries to interstate waters, wetlands adjacent to interstate waters or to their jurisdictional tributaries, and paragraph (a)(5) waters.

Interstate waters may be streams, lakes or ponds, or wetlands. The longstanding definition of “waters of the United States” includes interstate wetlands. As discussed in section IV.A.2.b.ii of this preamble, the Clean Water Act’s statutory text, structure, and history establish that adjacent wetlands are “waters of the United States” covered by the Act. And, while the Supreme Court’s focus in *Riverside Bayview* was on adjacent wetlands, the Court’s unanimous conclusion that section 404(g)(1) provides express textual evidence “that the term ‘waters’ included adjacent wetlands,” 474 U.S. at 138, is informative for interstate wetlands as well. For more than 45 years the agencies have concluded that waters, for purposes of the Clean Water Act, include wetlands. The agencies have also, for more than 45 years, concluded that some of those wetlands are “waters of the United States,” and among those wetlands are interstate wetlands. Because the agencies consider wetlands to be waters, the rationale for covering interstate waters based on the history of the statute, Supreme Court case law interpreting the Act, legislative history, and the objective of the Act applies with full force to interstate wetlands.

Under this provision of the rule, consistent with the pre-2015 regulatory regime, lakes, ponds, impoundments, and similar lentic (or still) water resources, as well as wetlands, crossing State boundaries are jurisdictional as interstate waters through the entirety of their delineated extent.

For streams and rivers, the agencies will determine the upstream and downstream extent of the stream or river crossing a State boundary or serving as a State boundary that should be considered the “interstate water” using stream order. Stream order is a common, longstanding scientific concept of assigning whole numbers to indicate the branches of a stream network. Under this method, for rivers and streams, the “interstate water” extends upstream and downstream of the State boundary for the entire length that the water is of the same stream order. See section IV.C.4.c.ii.1 of this preamble for additional information about stream order.

(2) Summary of the Agencies’ Consideration of Public Comments and Rationale for This Rule

Until 1972, the predecessors of the Clean Water Act explicitly protected interstate waters independent of their navigability. The 1948 Water Pollution Control Act declared that the “pollution of interstate waters” and their tributaries is “a public nuisance and subject to abatement.” 33 U.S.C. 466a(d)(1) (1952) (codifying Pub. L. 80–845 section 2(d)(1), 62 Stat. 1156 (1948)). Interstate waters were defined without reference to navigability: “all rivers, lakes, and other waters that flow across, or form a part of, State boundaries.” 33 U.S.C. 466i(e) (1952) (codifying Pub. L. 80–845 section 10(e), 62 Stat. 1161 (1948)).

In 1961, Congress broadened the 1948 statute and made the pollution of “interstate or navigable waters” subject to abatement, retaining the definition of “interstate waters.” 33 U.S.C. 466g(a) (1964) (codifying Pub. L. 87–88 section 8(a), 75 Stat. 204, 208 (1961)). In 1965, Congress required States to develop water quality standards for “interstate waters or portions thereof within such State.” 33 U.S.C. 1160(c)(1) (1970) (codifying Pub. L. 89–234 section 5, 79 Stat. 903, 908 (1965)); see also 33 U.S.C. 1173(e) (1970) (retaining definition of “interstate waters”). In the 1972 Clean Water Act, Congress abandoned the “abatement” approach initiated in the 1948 statute in favor of a focus on permitting for discharges of pollutants.

While the term “navigable waters” is ambiguous in some respects, interstate waters are waters that are clearly

covered by the plain language of the definition of “navigable waters.” Congress defined “navigable waters” to mean “the waters of the United States, including the territorial seas.” Interstate waters are, by definition, waters of the “several States,” U.S. Const. section 8, and consequently, are unambiguously “waters of the United States.” The 1972 Clean Water Act thus reflects Congress’s recognition that the degradation of water resources in one State may cause substantial harms in other States. The Supreme Court has recognized that “the power conferred by the Commerce Clause [is] broad enough to permit congressional regulation of activities causing air or water pollution, or other environmental hazards that may have effects in more than one State.” *Hodel v. Virginia Surface Mining & Reclamation Ass’n*, 452 U.S. 264, 282 (1981).

In addition, the text of the 1972 Clean Water Act specifically addresses “interstate waters” regardless of their navigability. Namely, section 303(a) of the 1972 Clean Water Act uses the term “interstate waters” and provides that pre-existing water quality standards for “interstate waters” remain in effect unless EPA determined that they were inconsistent with any applicable requirements of the pre-1972 version of the Act. 33 U.S.C. 1313(a)(1). That plain language is a clear indication that Congress intended the agencies to continue to protect the water quality of interstate waters without reference to their navigability. Excluding “interstate waters” as an independent category of Clean Water Act jurisdiction would disregard the plain language of section 303(a).

The Supreme Court has concluded that the 1972 Clean Water Act was “not merely another law ‘touching interstate waters,’” but rather “occupied the field through the establishment of a comprehensive regulatory program supervised by an expert administrative agency.” *City of Milwaukee v. Illinois*, 451 U.S. 304, 317 (1981) (“*City of Milwaukee*”). Thus, the 1972 amendments superseded the Federal common law of nuisance as a means to protect interstate waters in favor of a statutory “all-encompassing program of water pollution regulation,” *id.* at 318, and they did not curtail the scope of protected waters.

Even if the text and history of the statute and Supreme Court case law interpreting the Clean Water Act do not unambiguously resolve the issue, the situation addressed by the Supreme Court in the *City of Milwaukee* case highlights the reasonableness of the agencies’ interpretation that the Act

protects interstate waters. The *City of Milwaukee* litigation involved alleged discharges of inadequately treated sewage from Milwaukee, Wisconsin sewer systems directly into Lake Michigan, which also borders Illinois. As the Supreme Court noted, prior to passage of the Clean Water Act, these discharges would have had to be resolved through litigation, in which the courts must apply “often vague and indeterminate nuisance concepts and maxims of equity jurisprudence.” *Id.* at 317. However, the Clean Water Act replaced this unpredictable and inefficient approach with “a comprehensive regulatory program supervised by an expert administrative agency.” *Id.* The Court reiterated that view in *Arkansas v. Oklahoma*, stating in the context of an NPDES permit for a discharge of pollutants to interstate waters that, while the Clean Water Act may place some limits on downstream States’ participation in the permitting process, those limits “do not in any way constrain the EPA’s authority to require a point source to comply with downstream water quality standards.” 503 U.S. 91, 106 (1992) (emphasis in original).

The potential for interstate harm, and the consequent need for Federal regulation, is particularly clear with respect to waterbodies that span more than one State. The alternative interpretation would leave interstate waters that do not fall within any other provisions in the definition of “waters of the United States” without Federal protection. Parties in different States would need to resolve concerns about upstream discharges in non-jurisdictional waters through litigation using “often vague and indeterminate nuisance concepts and maxims of equity jurisprudence.” *City of Milwaukee*, 451 U.S. at 317; see also 85 FR 22286 (April 21, 2020) (acknowledging in the 2020 NWPR that “remedies for pollution disputes among States that do not implicate CWA sections 319(g), 401, or 402 would likely derive from federal common law under the Supreme Court’s original jurisdiction. Remedies for disputes between a State and a public or private party would likely derive from State or federal common law and be heard by State or Federal courts” (citations omitted)). Restoration of longstanding protections for interstate waters, regardless of whether they are navigable-in-fact, enables the agencies to address interstate water quality issues efficiently and effectively. The agencies interpret interstate waters to encompass all waters that Congress has sought to protect since 1948: all rivers, lakes, and

other waters that flow across, or form a part of, State boundaries. Public Law 80–845, sec. 10, 62 Stat. 55, at 1161 (1948). These waters need not meet the relatively permanent standard or significant nexus standard to be jurisdictional under the final rule.

EPA has interpreted the Clean Water Act to cover interstate waters, with the exception of the 2020 NWPR, since 1973. 38 FR 13528 (May 22, 1973) (providing that the term “waters of the United States” includes “interstate waters and their tributaries, including adjacent wetlands”). In the final rule promulgated in 1977, the Corps adopted EPA’s definition and included “interstate waters and their tributaries, including adjacent wetlands” within the definition of “waters of the United States.” The preamble to that rule provided an explanation for the inclusion of interstate waters: “The affects [*sic*] of water pollution in one state can adversely affect the quality of the waters in another, particularly if the waters involved are interstate. Prior to the FWPCA amendments of 1972, most federal statutes pertaining to water quality were limited to interstate waters. We have, therefore, included this third category consistent with the Federal government’s traditional role to protect these waters from the standpoint of water quality and the obvious effects on interstate commerce that will occur through pollution of interstate waters and their tributaries.” 42 FR 37122, 37127 (July 19, 1977).

Because the Clean Water Act unambiguously includes interstate waters, they are fundamental to the Act in the same manner that traditional navigable waters and the territorial seas are. Traditional navigable waters, the territorial seas, and interstate waters cannot be protected without also protecting the waters that have a significant nexus to those waters. This rule protects interstate waters in the same manner as it protects traditional navigable waters and the territorial seas. Thus, the following waters that meet the relatively permanent standard or significant nexus standard based on their connection to interstate waters are “waters of the United States”: tributaries to interstate waters, wetlands adjacent to interstate waters or to their jurisdictional tributaries, and paragraph (a)(5) waters. The agencies received multiple comments on the proposed rule in favor of the categorical inclusion of interstate waters as “waters of the United States,” as well as multiple comments arguing that categorical inclusion of interstate waters is inconsistent with the Clean Water Act. Several commenters asserted that

asserting categorical jurisdiction over interstate waters is legally permissible, with some arguing that the statutory language unambiguously demonstrates that the Clean Water Act protects all interstate waters. One commenter stated that the agencies’ failure to protect all interstate waters in the 2020 NWPR “was an abdication of a core premise of the Clean Water Act’s cooperative federalism.” One commenter added that Federal jurisdiction over interstate waters protects State sovereignty, rather than threatening it, and quoted Justice Scalia’s plurality opinion in *Rapanos* that “the Act protects downstream States from out-of-state pollution that they cannot themselves regulate.” 547 U.S. at 777. Several of the commenters discussed downstream pollution to demonstrate their general support for including interstate waters as a jurisdictional category. Many of these commenters added that including interstate waters in the definition of “waters of the United States” helps reduce the burden of increased pollutants from out-of-state, upstream discharges.

Commenters opposed to the categorical inclusion of interstate waters stated that such an approach unlawfully reads the notion of navigability out of the Clean Water Act. A few commenters asserted that pursuant to *SWANCC*, *Riverside Bayview*, and *Rapanos*, interstate waters or interstate wetlands can only be jurisdictional if they are navigable or connected to navigable waters. In support of their arguments, some commenters cited the 2020 NWPR and the order of the U.S. District Court for the Southern District of Georgia remanding the 2015 Clean Water Rule. *Georgia v. Wheeler*, 418 F. Supp. 3d 1336, 1358–59 (S.D. Ga. 2019) (concluding that the categorical inclusion of interstate waters exceeds the agencies’ statutory authority because it “reads the term navigability out of the CWA”). For the reasons articulated above, the agencies conclude that the interpretation of the agencies’ authority over interstate waters articulated in the 2020 NWPR and in *Georgia v. Wheeler* is inconsistent with both the text and the history of the Clean Water Act, as well as Supreme Court case law.

A few commenters disagreed with the agencies’ proposal to determine jurisdiction over tributaries to interstate waters, wetlands adjacent to interstate waters or their jurisdictional tributaries, and paragraph (a)(5) waters, by applying the relatively permanent or significant nexus standards to analyze their connection to the interstate water. Alternatively, a few commenters supported interstate waters being

treated like traditional navigable waters and the territorial seas for purposes of determining the jurisdictional status of tributaries to interstate waters, wetlands adjacent to interstate waters or their jurisdictional tributaries, and paragraph (a)(5) waters. The agencies have concluded that, since interstate waters are clearly jurisdictional under the statute, the statute requires the same protections for them as the Clean Water Act does for traditional navigable waters and the territorial seas. As the scientific support for protecting tributaries, adjacent wetlands, and paragraph (a)(5) waters that satisfy the relatively permanent or significant nexus standard is the same for interstate waters as it is for traditional navigable waters and the territorial seas, the agencies have reasonably defined “waters of the United States” to protect such tributaries, adjacent wetlands, and paragraph (a)(5) waters.

In the proposed rulemaking, the agencies requested comment on approaches for implementing the interstate waters provision, including approaches for determining the upstream and downstream extent of a stream or river crossing a State boundary or serving as a State boundary that should be considered the “interstate water.” Several commenters stated that the entire length of a waterbody that is of the same stream order as the point that crosses State lines should be considered an interstate water, and therefore jurisdictional. These commenters added that where a river or stream itself forms the boundary, the entire length of stream forming the boundary should be considered an interstate water, and therefore jurisdictional. These commenters also added that any additional reach of the stream that is the same stream order as the portion forming the boundary should also be jurisdictional. One commenter stated that this stream order approach is well-understood and consistent with the longstanding pre-2015 regulatory regime and stated that it is also consistent with longstanding accepted scientific practice. Alternatively, a few commenters voiced opposition or concern for using stream order to determine the reach of an interstate water, with one commenter stating that the approach is restrictive and another stating that it could be too expansive. The agencies agree with commenters who stated that stream order is an appropriate approach for determining the upstream and downstream limits of an interstate water that is a stream or river. The agencies conclude that this

approach is reasonable and provides a method that is transparent, well-understood, predictable, and easy to implement. This approach is consistent with longstanding practice under the pre-2015 regulatory regime and thus is familiar to the agencies and the public. Additionally, this method is consistent with the agencies' approach to characterizing tributary reaches based on stream order for purposes of applying the relatively permanent standard in this rule (*see* section IV.C.4.c.ii of this preamble), and the agencies' approach to characterizing tributary reaches based on stream order to delineate the catchment for purposes of applying the significant nexus standard in this rule (*see* section IV.C.4.c.iii of this preamble).

(3) Waters That Cross a State-Tribal Boundary

The agencies requested comment in the proposed rule on whether interstate waters should encompass waters that flow across, or form a part of, boundaries of federally recognized Tribes where these waters simultaneously flow across, or form a part of, State boundaries. *See* Public Law 80–845, sec. 10, 62 Stat. 1155, at 1161 (1948). The agencies also sought comment on how to identify “Tribal boundaries” for purposes of implementing the interstate waters provision, such as boundaries associated with a Tribe’s reservation or boundaries associated with the term “Indian country” as defined at 18 U.S.C. 1151.

Multiple commenters expressed support for treating waters that cross or serve as State/Tribal boundaries as interstate waters, with some commenters stating that waters that cross or serve as boundaries between the lands of different Tribes (*i.e.*, Tribal/Tribal boundaries) should also be deemed interstate waters under the rule. Other commenters did not support treating waters that cross or serve as State/Tribal boundaries as interstate waters. Some commenters provided input on which boundary should be considered a Tribal boundary for purposes of the interstate waters category, with many of those commenters expressing a preference for using “Indian country” as defined at 18 U.S.C. 1151 to delineate Tribal boundaries. A few commenters suggested that a category broader than “Indian country” should be used to adequately reflect Tribal interests and rights.

As evidenced by the feedback the agencies have received, the issue of how to address “Tribal boundaries” for

purposes of implementing the interstate waters provision is of great importance to Tribes as well as various stakeholders. The agencies recognize the range of views expressed on this issue to date, including support for interpreting Tribal boundaries to include all waters that flow across, or form a part of, Indian country boundaries; support for finding that interstate waters include waters outside of Indian country that flow into areas where Tribes exercise treaty or other rights; opposition to interstate waters generally including waters that flow across, or form part of, Tribal boundaries; and views in between. The agencies also acknowledge commenters who raised questions regarding implementation of potential interpretations of interstate waters as applied to Tribal boundaries.

The agencies have considered the input received during pre-proposal Tribal consultation and the public comment period for the proposed rule and, at this time, are continuing to evaluate the issue of interstate waters and Tribal boundaries, including what should appropriately be considered “Tribal boundaries” for purposes of identifying interstate waters under the Clean Water Act. The agencies have weighed the benefits of addressing this issue now, based on the record currently before them, versus undertaking additional analysis and outreach to Tribes to gain a better understanding of Tribal boundaries as related to interstate waters and related implications via a separate process, described below, to avoid delaying the entire rule.

Based on the agencies' evaluation of the comments received and the benefits of further analysis and outreach, the agencies have decided to conduct additional analysis and outreach to inform a future action related to considering designating waters that cross a State/Tribal boundary as interstate waters under the definition of “waters of the United States.” The agencies recognize the importance of this issue to Tribes and are fully committed to directly engaging with Tribal governments as the agencies continue to evaluate this aspect of the scope of “waters of the United States.”

Accordingly, the agencies will address this issue in a subsequent action after completing additional analysis and essential outreach and engagement activities with Tribes and interested stakeholders. Although the agencies are not taking a position on this specific issue at this time, a water that crosses a State/Tribal boundary may be jurisdictional if it otherwise falls within

this rule’s definition of “waters of the United States.”

3. Impoundments

a. This Rule

Consistent with the proposal, this rule retains the provision in the 1986 regulations that defines “waters of the United States” to include impoundments of “waters of the United States.” Impoundments are distinguishable from natural lakes and ponds because they are created by discrete structures (often human-built) like dams or levees that typically have the effect of raising the water surface elevation, creating or expanding the area of open water, or both. Impoundments can be natural (like beaver ponds) or artificial (like reservoirs).

The agencies' implementation of the paragraph (a)(2) impoundments category⁹¹ is based on two primary principles. First, as a matter of policy, law, and science, impoundments do not render “waters of the United States” no longer “waters of the United States.” Second, as a matter of policy and science, if an impounded water has the characteristics of another jurisdictional water, then the impoundment is jurisdictional. Based on these principles, in implementing this rule the agencies consider paragraph (a)(2) impoundments to include (1) impoundments created by impounding one of the “waters of United States” that was jurisdictional under this rule’s definition at the time the impoundment was created, and (2) impoundments of waters that at the time of assessment meet the definition of “waters of the United States” under paragraph (a)(1), (a)(3), or (a)(4) of this rule, regardless of the water’s jurisdictional status at the time the impoundment was created. Waters that are jurisdictional under paragraph (a)(5) are the exception to these two implementing principles. The text of this regulation states that they are not covered by paragraph (a)(2). Therefore, waters that are jurisdictional under paragraph (a)(5) do not categorically retain their jurisdictional status as “waters of the United States”

⁹¹ Impounded waters may be jurisdictional under provisions other than the paragraph (a)(2) impoundments provision. For example, they may be impoundments that are traditional navigable waters and would be jurisdictional under paragraph (a)(1), or they may be impounded adjacent wetlands and meet the requirements to be jurisdictional under the paragraph (a)(4) adjacent wetlands provision. To provide clarity in this preamble, when the agencies are discussing the subsection of impoundments that are jurisdictional under paragraph (a)(2) because they are impoundments of “waters of the United States,” the agencies will refer to “paragraph (a)(2) impoundments.”