**BEFORE THE PUBLIC UTILITIES COMMISSION
OF THE STATE OF SOUTH DAKOTA**

**IN THE MATTER OF THE APPLICATION OF
CROWNED RIDGE, LLC FOR A FACILITIES PERMIT TO
CONSTRUCTION 300 MEGAWATT WIND FACILITY**

Docket No. EL19-003

REBUTTAL TESTIMONY AND EXHIBITS

OF RICHARD LAMPETER

May 24, 2019

INTRODUCTION AND QUALIFICATIONS

Q. PLEASE STATE YOUR NAME AND BUSINESS ADDRESS.

A. My name is Richard Lampeter. My business address is 3 Mill & Main Place, Suite 250, Maynard, MA 01754.

Q. BY WHOM ARE YOU EMPLOYED AND IN WHAT CAPACITY?

A. I am employed at Epsilon Associates, Inc. ("Epsilon"). I am an Associate at the company and manage the Acoustics Group.

Q. PLEASE DESCRIBE YOUR BACKGROUND AND QUALIFICATIONS

A. I have over 15 years of experience in conducting impact assessments for various developments across the United States. Prior to joining Epsilon, I graduated from Lyndon State College in Vermont with a B.S. in Environmental Science. While at Epsilon, I have been involved in approximately 90 wind energy projects evaluating potential impacts from sound and/or shadow flicker. The projects I have worked on ranged in size from 1.5 megawatts ("MW") to over 300 MW. I utilize the WindPRO software package to calculate shadow flicker durations in the vicinity of a project on both a worst-case and expected basis. As part of project evaluations, I have assisted in refinements in wind turbine layouts to minimize shadow flicker at residences, evaluated curtailment options, and analyzed the impact of existing vegetation to modeled shadow flicker durations. My other areas of expertise include the measurement of ambient sound levels, modeling sound levels from proposed developments, evaluation of conceptual mitigation, and compliance sound level measurements. I have conducted impact assessments for power generating facilities, commercial developments, industrial facilities, and transfer stations. In addition to conducting and/or managing the impact assessments, I have presented the results of the analyses at public meetings to county and township boards. Additional detail regarding my education, background and experience is contained in my curriculum vitae, which is attached as Exhibit RL-R-1.

Q. HAS THIS TESTIMONY BEEN PREPARED BY YOU OR UNDER YOUR DIRECT SUPERVISION?

A. Yes.

Q. HAVE YOU PREVIOUSLY TESTIFIED BEFORE THE SOUTH DAKOTA PUBLIC UTILITIES COMMISSION?

A. No.

Q. PLEASE DESCRIBE THE PURPOSE OF YOUR REBUTTAL TESTIMONY.

A. The purpose of my testimony is to respond to Staff witness David Hessler and the Intervenors' proposed conditions as set forth in Staff witness Darren Kearney's Exhibit DK-8.

<u>SOUND STUDY</u>

Q. STAFF WITNESS HESSLER'S TESTIMONY AT PAGE 3, LINES 11-22 ASSERTS THAT CROWNED RIDGE WIND, LLC ("CRW") SHOULD HAVE CONDUCTED A BASELINE SOUND SURVEY(S) TO INFORM THE DESIGN OF THE WIND PROJECT. DO YOU AGREE?

A. I do not agree with Mr. Hessler that a baseline sound level of existing conditions should have been conducted. The applicable sound level limits in the counties are based on sound generated from wind turbines at either the property line or at a non-participating structure (residence, business, or government building). Collecting baseline ambient sound levels would be of minimal value as it is not applicable to these limits. This is because to evaluate the limits one simply compares the modeling sound pressure level to the sound level limit stated in the regulation. It would not involve combining the existing sound levels with predicted future sound levels due to the wind turbines or calculating a delta between total future sound levels (Project + Existing) and the existing ambient sound levels. Therefore, sound level modeling is sufficient to evaluate these limits. In addition, evaluating an increase over background limit is problematic as there are many factors which impact sound levels, making it difficult to assign one number as the background sound level. For example, sound levels will vary over time and will vary under differing wind conditions. In addition, ambient sound can be presented using different metrics, which in turn results in different sound levels. This type of limit, i.e., increase over background, leads to greater uncertainty for the developer\owner\operator as compared a static Project Only sound level limit.

INFRASOUND

Q. THE INTERVENORS' PROPOSED CONDITIONS 6, 7, AND 23 (KEARNEY EXHIBIT DK-8) INCLUDE REQUIREMENTS FOR CRW TO MEASURE INFRASOUND. DO YOU AGREE INFRASOUND SHOULD BE MEASURED?

A. I do not agree. Low frequency noise and infrasound are present in the environment due to other sources besides wind turbines. For example, refrigerators, air conditioners, and washing machines generate infrasound and low frequency sound, as do natural sources such as ocean waves. The frequency range of low frequency sound is generally from 20 hertz ("Hz") to 200 Hz, and the range below 20 Hz is often described as infrasound. However, audibility can extend to frequencies below 20 Hz if the energy is high enough. Since there is no sharp change in hearing at 20 Hz, the division between low frequency noise and infrasound should only be considered practical and conventional. The threshold of hearing is standardized for frequencies down to 20 Hz (Acoustics - Normal equal-loudness-level contours, International Standard ISO 226:2003, International Organization for Standardization, Geneva, Switzerland, (2003)).

Also, the Massachusetts Department of Environmental Protection ("MA DEP") and the Massachusetts Department of Public Health commissioned an expert panel who found that: "Claims infrasound from wind turbines directly impacts the vestibular system have not been demonstrated scientifically. Available evidence shows that the infrasound levels near wind turbines cannot impact the vestibular system." (*Wind Turbine Health Impact Study: Review of Independent Expert Panel,* Massachusetts Department of Environmental Protection and Massachusetts Department of Public Health, January 2012.) (attached as Exhibit RL-R-2).

As noted in a report prepared for the National Association of Regulatory Utility Commissioners ("NARUC") in 2011, "the widespread belief that wind turbines produce elevated or even harmful levels of low frequency and infrasonic sound is utterly untrue as proven repeatedly and independently by numerous investigators…" (Assessing Sound Emissions from Proposed Wind Farms & Measuring the Performance of Completed Projects, NARUC, prepared by Hessler Associates, Inc., October 2011.) (attached as Exhibit RL-R-3).

The findings presented in the peer reviewed journal article I co-authored (*Low frequency noise and infrasound from wind turbines,* R. O'Neal et al, Noise Control Engineering J., 59(2), 2011.), which is attached as Exhibit RL-R-4, found for the wind turbines studied that there was no audible infrasound either outside or inside homes at 1,000 feet from a wind turbine. Additional findings included that sound levels met the American National Standards Institute ("ANSI") standard for low frequency noise in bedrooms, classrooms, and hospitals, met the ANSI standard for thresholds of annoyance from low frequency noise, and met the ANSI standard for vibration of light-weight walls or ceilings. In homes there may be slightly audible low frequency noise beginning at around 50 Hz (depending on other sources of low frequency noise); however, the levels are below criteria and recommendations for low frequency noise within homes.

SOUND MONITORING

Q. THE INTERVENORS' PROPOSED CONDITION 6 (KEARNEY EXHIBIT DK-8) WOULD REQUIRE A PRECONSTRUCTION SOUND STUDY ANALYSIS, INCLUDING INFRASOUND, OF NON-PARTICIPATING PROPERTIES, OUTSIDE AND INSIDE THE PRINCIPLE STRUCTURE TO BE CONDUCTED BY A THIRD-PARTY. DO YOU AGREE WITH SUCH AN APPROACH?

A. A pre-construction sound study as described is not necessary. A pre-construction sound study sufficient to address the regulatory requirements has already been conducted. That study, submitted by CRW witness Jay Haley, modeled future operational sound levels and compared those sound levels to each county's sound level limit. Since the sound level limit in each county is a single sound pressure level and not individual limits for particular frequencies, the collection of specific infrasound measurements is unnecessary to evaluate compliance with respect to these sound level limits.

A pre-construction measurement program would not be needed for the reasons discussed previously in the response to Hessler's comment regarding pre-construction sound level measurements.

Q. THE INTERVENORS' PROPOSED CONDITION 7 (KEARNEY EXHIBIT DK-8) WOULD REQUIRE CRW TO CONDUCT SOUND MONITORING, INCLUDING

INFRASOUND, DURING CONSTRUCTION. DO YOU AGREE THAT SOUND MONITORING, INCLUDING INFRASOUND, SHOULD BE COMPLETED DURING CONSTRUCTION?

A. I am unaware of any specific applicable state or county sound limit during construction. In my experience, sound level limits for the construction of wind energy facilities are atypical. Nonetheless, I understand that CRW witness Mark Thompson will address how CRW will implement measures to mitigate sound during construction.

Q. THE INTERVENORS' PROPOSED CONDITION 7 (KEARNEY EXHIBIT DK-8) WOULD REQUIRE CRW TO CONDUCT SOUND MONITORING, INCLUDING INFRASOUND, DURING OPERATION AND MAINTENANCE. DO YOU AGREE THAT SOUND MONITORING, INCLUDING MONITORING OF INFRASOUND, SHOULD BE COMPLETED DURING OPERATION AND MAINTENANCE?

A. I agree that a condition on post-construction sound monitoring of operating conditions would be appropriate, but do not agree that a condition requiring sound monitoring during maintenance or that monitoring of infrasound is necessary or appropriate. The Commission's past permits require post-construction sound monitoring. For example, in Dakota Range I and II, Crocker Wind Farm, and most recently in Dakota Range III, the Commission ordered the following: "The Project, exclusive of all unrelated background noise, shall not generate a long-term average sound pressure level (equivalent continuous sound level, L_{eq}), as measured over a period of at least two weeks, defined by Commission Staff, that includes all integer wind speeds from cut in to full power . . . ."

Inclusion of this condition in the facility permit for the CRW wind facility would address the monitoring of sound during operation. Since the sound level limit in each county is a single sound pressure level and not individual limits for particular frequencies, the collection of specific infrasound measurements is unnecessary to evaluate compliance with respect to these sound level limits.

Sound level limits are typically applied to standard operating conditions. Therefore, the sound limits, such as those presented in the county ordinances and implemented by the Commission in past cases, would not be applicable to limited and intermittent maintenance sounds that occur over the course of the project's life.

Q. THE INTERVENORS' PROPOSED CONDITION 7 (KEARNEY EXHIBIT DK-8) WOULD REQUIRE CRW TO CONDUCT SOUND MONITORING, INCLUDING INFRASOUND, DURING DECOMMISSIONING. DO YOU AGREE THAT SOUND MONITORING, INCLUDING INFRASOUND, SHOULD BE COMPLETED DURING DECOMMISSIONING?

A. No, I do not. Similar to construction, I am unaware of any state or county limit on sound during decommissioning. Therefore, the monitoring of sound during this temporary condition would be unnecessary.

POST CONSTRUCTION SOUND MONITORING METHODOLOGY AND REPORTING

Q. THE INTERVENORS' PROPOSED CONDITIONS 19, 20, AND 21 (KEARNEY EXHIBIT DK-8) WOULD REQUIRE CRW TO MEASURE SOUND DBA AT L_{10}. DO YOU AGREE WITH THIS APPROACH?

A. I do not. Based on my experience, the L_{eq}, or equivalent sound level, is the most widely used metric in the United States and the appropriate sound level metric for evaluating sound level impacts from wind energy facilities. As I stated previously, three recent permits in South Dakota have required post construction sound level monitoring using the L_{eq} metric.

In addition, the L_{eq} is directly comparable to the model output of pre-construction predictive models provided by CRW witness Jay Haley, as the modeling incorporates the L_{eq} sound power levels provided by the wind turbine manufacturers.

The L_{10}, or the sound level exceeded 10 percent of the time, is more susceptible to wind gusts and other extraneous events than the L_{eq}, which can result in elevated sound levels unrelated to the operation of the wind turbines.

Q. THE INTERVENORS' PROPOSED CONDITION 19 (KEARNEY EXHIBIT DK-8) WOULD REQUIRE CRW TO ENGAGE A THIRD PARTY TO MEASURE SOUND EVERY YEAR OUTSIDE AND INSIDE NON-PARTICIPATING LANDOWNERS' HOMES WITHIN 2 MILES OF THE BOUNDARY FOOTPRINT AND THE WAVERLY SCHOOL. DO YOU AGREE WITH UTILIZING SUCH AN APPROACH?

A. No. A condition to require sound level measurements every year at all non-participating homes is onerous and unnecessary. All compliance sound level evaluations are done at a reasonable subset of possible monitoring locations considering distance, modeled sound levels, turbine types, and proximity to other monitoring locations in order to determine compliance for the facility as a whole.

As the sound level limits are exterior limits, there is no additional value in attempting to collect sound levels within a residence, which would be more difficult to obtain, subject to extraneous noise (conversations, television, etc.), and would be lower than sound levels measured at the exterior of the home. In other words, Mr. Haley's modeling would only indicate what would be experienced outdoors, and, therefore, the sound level experienced indoors due to the wind turbines would be less due to the sound transmission loss of the house itself.

Q. THE INTERVENORS' PROPOSED CONDITION 19 (KEARNEY EXHIBIT DK-8) WOULD REQUIRE CRW TO CONDUCT SOUND MONITORING DURING EVEN NUMBERED YEARS IN THE SPRING AND FALL FOR 14 DAYS 24 HOURS CONTINUOUS. DURING THE ODD NUMBERED YEARS THE MEASUREMENT WOULD BE IN THE SUMMER AND WINTER FOR 14 DAYS 24 HOURS CONTINUOUSLY. DO YOU AGREE WITH SUCH AN APPROACH?

A. I disagree with the approach proposed. One properly designed sound level measurement program of an adequate duration is sufficient to determine compliance with respect to sound at the wind energy facility.

SOUND THRESHOLDS

Q. THE INTERVENORS' PROPOSED CONDITIONS 19, 20, AND 21 (KEARNEY EXHIBIT DK-8) WOULD REQUIRE THAT NOISE NOT EXCEED 40 DBA L_{10} AT THE PROPERTY LINE OF A NON-PARTICIPATING PROPERTY, INCLUDING DURING CONSTRUCTION, MAINTENANCE, OPERATION, AND DECOMMISSIONING. THE REQUIREMENT WOULD BE ENFORCED IN ALL AREAS WITHIN 2 MILES OF THE PROJECT BOUNDARY FOOTPRINT AND

WITHIN 2 MILES OF ANY HAUL ROAD FOR THE LIFE OF THE PROJECT. DO YOU AGREE WITH SUCH AN PROPOSAL?

A. I disagree with the proposed sound level limit. This proposal is unnecessarily more restrictive on multiple levels as compared to either of the Grant or Codington county sound level requirements. Further, the Intervenors have provided no support for lowering the sound limit to a 40 dBA threshold for non-participants at their property line. Also, this proposal incorporates the L_{10} sound level metric, which as described earlier, is not the preferred metric from a technical standpoint and is more restrictive. Thus, the Intervenors condition is not supported or appropriate.

Q. THE INTERVENORS' PROPOSED CONDITION 19 (KEARNEY EXHIBIT DK-8) WOULD REQUIRE SOUND TO BE MEASURED AT 40 DBA L_{10} BY A THIRD PARTY EVERY YEAR OUTSIDE AND INSIDE NON-PARTICIPATING LANDOWNERS' HOMES WITHIN 2 MILES OF THE BOUNDARY FOOTPRINT AND THE WAVERLY SCHOOL. DO YOU AGREE WITH SUCH A PROPOSAL?

A. I disagree with this proposed requirement. As stated previously, 40 dBA and L_{10} are inconsistent with the Grant and Codington county requirements, and there is no support provided by the Intervenors for imposing a 40 dBA limit. Further, compliance sound level evaluations are done at a reasonable subset of possible monitoring locations considering distance, modeled sound levels, turbine types, and proximity to other monitoring locations in order to determine compliance for the facility as a whole. Since the sound level limits are exterior limits, there is no additional value in attempting to collect sound levels within a residence given that they are more difficult to obtain, subject to extraneous noise (conversations, tv, etc.), and would be lower than sound levels measured at the exterior of the home. Thus, I do not support the Intervenors' proposed condition.

Q. DOES THIS CONCLUDE YOUR TESTIMONY?

A. Yes.

STATE OF MASSACHUSETTS)
) ss
COUNTY OF MIDDLESEX)

I, Richard Lampeter, being duly sworn on oath, depose and state that I am the witness identified in the foregoing prepared testimony and I am familiar with its contents, and that the facts set forth are true to the best of my knowledge, information and belief.

Richard Lampeter

Subscribed and sworn to before me this 24 th day of May, 2019.

SEAL

Notary Public
ERIK R. REXFORD
My Commission Expires July 29, 2022

Epsilon ASSOCIATES INC.

EDUCATION

B.S., Environmental Science, Lyndon State College, 2001

PROFESSIONAL SUMMARY

Mr. Lampeter has more than 15 years of experience in conducting community sound level impact assessments. His areas of expertise include the measurement of ambient sound levels, modeling sound levels from proposed developments, evaluation of conceptual mitigation, and compliance sound level measurements. Mr. Lampeter has conducted impact assessments for power generating facilities, commercial developments, industrial facilities, and transfer stations. Richard's understanding of acoustical standards and modeling software has allowed him to provide accurate and reliable modeling results to developers and communities.

Since 2004, Mr. Lampeter has been involved in approximately 90 wind energy projects. In addition to performing numerous sound level impact assessments for wind energy facilities, Mr. Lampeter has conducted shadow flicker analyses for approximately 50 wind energy projects across the United States. Mr. Lampeter frequently presents key aspects of analyses to boards and committees and has provided sworn expert testimony.

Mr. Lampeter utilizes his diverse skill set as he serves in a variety of rolls on projects, ranging from project manager, to modeler, to field scientist. Richard is adept at using Larson Davis, Norsonic, RION, and CEL sound level meters and various modeling software packages including, Cadna/A and WindPRO.

Mr. Lampeter also has experience in air quality modeling and meteorological monitoring. Richard has used a variety of air dispersion models including CAL3QHCR, AERMOD, and CALPUFF and has displayed expertise in working with HOBO and NovaLynx portable weather stations.

Mr. Lampeter has co-authored several papers ranging in topics from wind energy to metal shredders, one of which appeared in a peer-reviewed journal. Mr. Lampeter has been a speaker at CanWEA's annual conference on the topic of low frequency noise from wind turbines and presented shadow flicker guidance and a regulatory update in a New England Wind Energy Education Project webinar.

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Noise Impact Assessment – Power Projects – Renewable Energy

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Tuscola Wind II, Tuscola County, MI.* Project Manager for pre- and post-construction sound level impact assessments for a 100 megawatt (MW) wind energy facility composed of 59 GE wind turbines. Modeling was performed in order to demonstrate compliance with the sound level limits in each community. During multiple public hearings, Mr. Lampeter responded to questions and comments. Following construction, operational sound levels were measured in each of the four townships per ordinance requirements.

- *Boreal Renewable Energy Development – Christopher House Wind Turbine Generator Project, Worcester, MA.* Project Manager for a sound level impact assessment prepared for a wind turbine feasibility study. Measured ambient background sound levels and modeled wind turbine sound levels under two scenarios. Impacts were compared to the local zoning ordinance and the Massachusetts Department of Environmental Protection (MassDEP) Noise Policy.

- *Palmer Renewable Energy Project, Springfield, MA*. Predicted future sound levels from a proposed 38 MW renewable biomass energy plant using the Cadna/A software package. Impacts were compared to state and local regulations with the results presented in the Environmental Notification Form.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Pheasant Run Wind Energy Center, Huron County, MI*. Project Manager for a post-construction sound level compliance evaluation for a wind power generation facility composed of 88 wind turbines and an electrical substation. Sound levels were measured and evaluated at 15 residential locations. Following the submittal of a comprehensive report, results were presented to the Huron County Planning Commission.

- *Zotos International, Inc. – Two Wind Turbine Project, Geneva, NY.* Conducted a sound level impact assessment for two proposed wind turbines at the existing Zotos International facility. Calculated future sound levels using the Cadna/A noise calculation software. Prepared a comprehensive report comparing modeled sound levels to local regulations and relevant criteria. Presented the sound level assessment to the City of Geneva Planning Board.

- *FPL Energy (now NextEra Energy Resources) – Horse Hollow Wind Energy Center, Taylor County, TX*. Assisted in the development and execution of multiple sound level measurement programs for the 735 MW wind farm which at the time of its in-service date it was the world's largest wind farm. Analyzed sound level data in conjunction with power output data provided by NextEra Energy Resources and assisted in the preparation for legal proceedings.

- *Iberdrola Renewables – Groton Wind, Groton, NH.* Assisted in the collection of pre-construction ambient sound levels for a proposed 48 MW wind energy facility. Conducted post-construction sound level measurement programs in order to address the requirements of the State of New Hampshire Site Evaluation Committee Order and the Certificate of Site and Facility with Conditions for the Groton Wind Project. Analyzed the data collected for the evaluation of applicable limits.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Lake Benton II Wind Project, Pipestone County, MN*. Project Manager for a sound level assessment for a repower project in Minnesota. The assessment consisted of an ambient measurement program and sound level modeling of the proposed wind turbines and existing wind turbines in the vicinity of the project. The findings were presented in a comprehensive report.

- *Heritage Sustainable Energy – Big Turtle Wind Farm Phase 2, Huron County, MI.* Project Manager for a pre- and post-construction sound level assessment for a wind energy facility to consisting of 14 Gamesa wind turbines. Sound levels were evaluated with respect to limits in the Huron County Wind Energy Facility Overlay Zoning Ordinance. Presented the results of the post-construction compliance evaluation to the Huron County Planning Commission.

- *Confidential Project, OK*. Project Manager for a sound level impact analysis. Developed and executed sound level measurement program in response to complaints made by a resident living adjacent to the wind farm. Data were compared to a generally accepted guideline and presented in a letter report.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Golden West Wind Energy Center, El Paso County, CO.* Project Manager for a post-construction sound level evaluation of 249.4 MW wind power generation facility composed of 145 GE wind turbines. Collected attended and unattended sound level and meteorological data during two measurement programs. Presented the findings of the study to the Board of County Commissioners.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Eight Point Wind Energy Center, Steuben County, NY.* Assisted in the sound level modeling for the pre-construction impact assessment required as part of the NY State Article 10 process. Sounds levels were modeled using Cadna/A and incorporated CONCAWE meteorology.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Lee/DeKalb Wind Energy Center, Lee and DeKalb Counties, IL*. Developed and executed a post-construction sound level measurement program for a 217.5 MW wind farm consisting of 145 GE 1.5xle wind turbines. Over 5,000 hours were collected over a 5-week period at 16 locations. The results of this program found that sound levels due to the wind turbines under worst-case conditions were at or below the Illinois Pollution Control Board noise limits.

- *FPL – St. Lucie Wind Turbine Generation Project, St. Lucie County, FL*. Assisted in the development and execution of an extensive sound level measurement and modeling program for a proposed wind farm in St. Lucie County, FL. Collected ambient sound level data and meteorological data. Calculated the sound levels resulting from the operation of the wind turbines using the WindPRO modeling software. Six wind turbines were proposed to be constructed along a beach in Florida.

- *Boreal Renewable Energy Development – Nauset Regional High School Wind Turbine Generator Project, Eastham, MA.* Conducted a sound level impact assessment for a wind turbine feasibility study. Prepared a comprehensive letter report comparing modeled sound levels to the MassDEP Noise Policy.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Tuscola Bay Wind Energy Center, Tuscola, Bay, & Saginaw Counties, MI*. Managed a sound level impact assessment project for a proposed 120 MW wind power generation facility composed of 75 wind turbines. Modeling was performed in order to demonstrate compliance with the sound level limits in each community. During multiple public hearings, Mr. Lampeter responded to questions and comments. Following construction, operational sound levels were measured as required by the township's ordinance.

- *NextEra Energy Resources - Waymart Wind Farm, Waymart, PA*. Executed multiple post-construction sound level measurement programs around the 65 MW wind turbine facility. Analyzed pre- and post-construction sound level data. Summarized data in succinct letter reports.

- *Iberdrola Renewables – Wild Meadows, Alexandria & Danbury, NH.* Measured ambient sound levels for a proposed 75.9 MW wind energy facility. Sound levels were measured at eight locations representative of nearby residences in various directions from the proposed wind turbines.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Pegasus Wind Energy Center, Tuscola County, MI*. Project Manager for a pre-construction acoustic study for a 62 wind turbine project. Both ambient sound level measurements and sound level modeling were components of the project. Presented analysis findings and responded to questions and comments during multiple public hearings.

- *John Deere Wind Energy – Michigan Wind 1 Wind Farm, Huron County, MI.* Measured and analyzed post-construction sound level data collected to assess compliance with the Huron County noise ordinance and address complaints. The wind farm is a 69 MW project consisting of 46 GE 1.5sle wind turbines. Sound levels were measured at 14 different locations over a 20-day period. Over 4,000 hours of data were collected and analyzed for this program.

- *Heritage Sustainable Energy – Big Turtle Wind Farm, Huron County, MI.* Project Manager for a sound level compliance evaluation for an existing 20 MW wind energy facility composed of 10 Gamesa wind turbines. Measured sound levels were evaluated with respect to limits in the Huron County Wind Energy Facility Overlay Zoning Ordinance.

- *Confidential Project, IA*. Project Manager for a sound level impact assessment for a wind farm in Iowa. Predicted future sound levels due to the operation of the wind turbines in areas surrounding the wind farm. Data were presented in tabular format and overlaid onto aerial photography.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Osborn Wind Energy Center, MO.* Provided expert opinions regarding proposed amendments to the Clinton County Zoning Ordinance with respect to sound from a Wind Energy Conversion System. Provided sworn testimony under direct and cross examination at a Clinton County Planning & Zoning Commission hearing.

Noise Impact Assessment – Power Projects

- *Medical Area Total Energy Plant (MATEP), Boston, MA*. Managed multiple sound level measurement programs for the plant following the installation of two combustion turbines, gas compressors, and cooling towers. These programs included background sound level measurements, compliance operational sound level measurements, and evaluations of noise mitigation. The results of these measurement programs have been summarized in reports submitted to Veolia Energy and regulatory agencies. Assisted in the sound level modeling of a proposed 14.4 MW combustion turbine with a Heat Recovery Steam Generator. Collected sound level data for various rooftop equipment. Conducted post-construction sound level measurements for the evaluation of the MassDEP Noise Policy.

- *Lean Flame, Watervliet Arsenal, NY.* Project Manager for a sound level impact assessment for a proposed GE Frame 5 gas turbine on land leased from the Watervliet Arsenal. Developed and executed an ambient sound level measurement program. Calculated sound levels at various locations surrounding the site using modeling software. Presented the analysis in a comprehensive report.

- *Hollingsworth & Vose, Inc. Combined Heat & Power Project, West Groton, MA.* Conducted a sound level impact assessment for the proposed CHP. Sound levels were modeled using the Cadna/A noise calculation software. Evaluated multiple project designs. Presented the analysis to the local planning board.

- *National Grid – East Main Street Substation, Westborough, MA.* Managed a sound level impact assessment for the proposed expansion of a substation. The expansion included the installation of a 115/13.8 kV transformer. Predicted future sound levels were compared to existing sound levels for evaluation with the MassDEP Noise Policy. Presented the analysis in a concise report.

- *St. Joseph's Hospital Combined Heat & Power Project, Syracuse, NY.* Measured existing sound levels and conducted a modeling analysis for a project including a Solar Turbines Mercury 50 gas turbine with an electrical output of 4.5 MW and a Heat Recovery Steam Generator capable of producing 45,000 lbs. of steam. Sound levels were evaluated both in the community and in a patient room above the project. Summarized the results of the post-construction sound level measurement program in a concise letter report.

- *Advanced Power, Brockton Power Project, Brockton, MA.* Performed acoustical modeling for the 350 MW power generating facility using a noise prediction software package. Completed a Best Available Noise Control Technology (BANCT) Analysis which evaluated various noise control options. Assisted in the preparation for the Energy Facilities Siting Board (EFSB) hearings.

- *Braintree Electric Light Department – Thomas A. Watson Generating Station, Braintree, MA.* Measured sound levels at various locations for a proposed 116 MW natural gas and oil-fired simple cycle electric power generation facility. Assisted in the acoustical modeling, including several rounds of mitigation analyses. Team member for compliance sound level measurement programs.

- *Milford Power Company, Milford, CT.* Executed an ambient sound level measurement program over a three-day period for a combined cycle electric generating facility proposed in southern Connecticut. Participated in an additional sound level measurement program while construction was under way to collect sound level data during periods of steam venting.

- *Union College Combined Heat & Power Project, Schenectady, NY.* Conducted an analysis of the sound associated with the operation of a proposed gas-turbine based CHP plant for Bette & Cringe, LLC. The proposed plant will include a gas turbine generator package with an expected nominal gross power output of 1,804 kW. The NY DEC guidance document's 6 dBA increase over ambient limit was used as a guideline in evaluating noise impacts from the project.

- *Franklin Energy Center, Franklin, MA*. Conducted an ambient sound level measurement program around the Garelick Farms facility in Franklin to establish background sound levels before the construction of the cogeneration plant at the facility. Following construction of the plant, post-construction sound level measurements were taken. Drafted a sound level measurement letter report presenting the results of the program with respect to the Massachusetts Noise Policy.

- *FPL Energy - Jamaica Bay Peaking Facility, Far Rockaway, NY*. Participated in a sound level measurement program. Short-term and continuous measurements were made at the nearest residences.

- *Billerica Energy, Billerica, MA*. Assisted in the acoustical modeling using Cadna/A for a 480 MW simple cycle turbine facility. Modeled impacts under various scenarios and analyzed noise impacts at multiple locations.

- *Weaver's Cove Energy, Fall River, MA*. Assisted in the development and implementation of an extensive sound measurement program. Over a three-day period continuous and/or short-term measurements were taken at seven locations around the proposed liquefied natural gas (LNG) terminal. Obtained permission from local residences to install temporary noise equipment. Collected and organized the sound data for this project. Participated in an additional sound level measurement program to collect background sound level data in four communities which were in the vicinity of the proposed offshore berth.

- *Clifton Street Substation, Marblehead, MA*. Participated in multiple sound level measurement programs. Conducted a baseline noise measurement survey around the existing substation. Conducted a second survey after the existing transformer was replaced to assess compliance with permit conditions. Prepared a letter report summarizing the results.

Noise Impact Assessment – Quarries / Sand & Gravel / Asphalt

- *Aggregate Industries, Peabody, MA*. Project Manager for sound level measurement programs developed as part of the Special Permit requirements for the quarry and asphalt plant. Gathered data before and after mitigation measures were implemented, analyzed potential impacts due to a proposed relocation of equipment, and presented results at a Peabody Board of Health Meeting.

- *McCullough Crushing, Calais, VT*. Collected reference sound level data at an operating sand and gravel pit. Modeled future sound levels due to sand and gravel extraction and processing using Cadna/A. Prepared a comprehensive report evaluating potential community noise impacts.

- *Dalrymple Gravel & Contracting Co., Inc., Erwin, NY*. Measured reference sound levels for an off-road haul truck and associated hopper-loading activities at the existing Scudder Sand and Gravel Pit.

- *Massachusetts Broken Stone Company, Berlin, MA*. Executed a sound measurement program for an existing asphalt company. Measured sound levels during operational and background conditions. Prepared a letter report summarizing the results.

- *Ambrose Brothers Inc., Sandwich, NH*. Executed two sound level programs at a sand and gravel excavation site. The first program involved measuring sound levels at the house of a concerned neighbor with a portable crusher at its original location. The second program involved measuring sound levels at the same residence with the crusher at a new location. Prepared letter reports for each of the measurement programs.

Noise Impact Assessment – Industrial

- *General Electric Company, Hudson River PCBs Superfund Site, Hudson River, NY*. Assisted in the Phase 1 RAM through the routine collection of sound level data in the community surrounding the dredging activity and processing facility. Collected reference sound level data of noise sources for the project.

- *Cianbro Corporation – Metal Fabrication Plant, Georgetown, MA*. Conducted an operational sound level measurement program around the existing facility during which sound levels were continuously measured at a property line and sound levels associated with individual operations/equipment were measured at a reference distance. Summarized the program and identified mitigation options in a letter report.

- *Berwick Iron and Metal Recycling, Berwick, ME*. Modeled a proposed metal shredder at an existing metal recycling facility using Cadna/A and proposed mitigation to minimize sound level impacts to the community. Participated in a post-construction sound level measurement program to assess compliance with respect to local sound level limits.

- *Former Coal Tar Processing Facility, Island End River, Everett, MA*. Participated in multiple sound measurement programs at a former industrial facility. Measured sound levels under existing conditions before and after a pilot study. Measured sound levels at nine locations during a pilot program to generate information about the relationships between dredging operations and their effects on area sound levels. Took individual reference measurements for each of the various types of equipment operated during the pilot study. Collected sound level data during periods of pile driving activity during the sheet pile wall installation phase of the project.

- *Excel Recycling, Freetown MA*. Conducted attended sound level measurements and detailed sound level modeling to evaluate potential mitigation options for an existing metal shredding and processing facility.

- *FedEx Distribution Facility, Billerica, MA*. Conducted a third-party review of a noise study for a proposed distribution facility. The review was performed for BETA Group who was hired by the Town of Billerica. Presented findings at a Billerica Board of Health meeting.

Noise Impact Assessment –Transfer Stations / Landfills

- *Casella Waste Systems, Inc. - Juniper Ridge Landfill, Old Town, ME.* Conducted a sound level impact assessment for the proposed expansion of the existing Juniper Ridge Landfill. The analysis included mobile noise sources associated with the management of solid waste and a new stationary source, the proposed landfill gas to energy facility. Modeled sound levels were evaluated against both state and local regulations.

- *Holliston Solid Waste Transfer Station, Holliston, MA*. Participated in a sound level measurement program at a solid waste transfer station in Massachusetts. Coordinated with the transfer station and with local residences on the placement of noise equipment. Weekday and weekend measurements (short-term and continuous) were taken at up to six locations around the facility. Participated in additional sound level measurement programs following the enclosure of the C&D facility to evaluate various mitigation options.

- *Hardwick Landfill, Hardwick, MA*. Conducted multiple sound level measurement programs around an existing landfill. Sound levels were measured to evaluate the effectiveness of backup alarm mitigation and to compare levels with and without a gas flare operating. Presented the results of the measurement programs in concise letter reports.

- *Resource Recovery of Cape Cod Inc., Sandwich, MA*. Participated in a group effort in conducting two consecutive 12-hour ambient sound level measurements and one 5-hour ambient sound level measurement at multiple locations for a construction & demolition transfer station in Cape Cod. The study was conducted to establish background sound levels around the facility.

Noise Impact Assessment – Institutional

- *Town Hall Renovation, Orleans, MA*. Project Manager for a sound level impact analysis for the renovation of a town hall. Measured existing sound levels at several locations and calculated future sound levels from the proposed mechanical equipment at multiple evaluation points. Following construction and the installation of the new equipment, additional measurements were collected to compare current operational sound levels to background sound levels. All findings were summarized in concise letter reports.

- *Institute of Contemporary Art, Boston, MA*. Conducted a sound level measurement program at the future site of the ICA to determine the maximum noise impacts from airplanes taking off from Logan Airport. Coordinated with the Massport Noise Abatement Office to ensure that the desired runway was being used. Gathered detailed information characterizing the noise environment of the site.

- *Phillips Academy, Andover, MA*. Measured sound levels with and without the compressor system operating at the new ice hockey facility. Prepared a letter report comparing the results to the Massachusetts Noise Policy.

- *Harvard University, Boston, MA*. Conducted an ambient sound level measurement program. Sound levels were measured around the proposed Northwest Laboratory.

♦ *Northeastern University, Boston, MA*. Conducted an ambient sound level measurement program. The college was interested in constructing an additional building on campus and was concerned about the noise issues related to the project.

Noise Impact Assessment – Commercial / Residential

♦ *Stop & Shop Supermarkets*. Executed ambient sound level programs at numerous supermarket locations in New England. Gathered reference sound level data for mechanical equipment at an existing store. Analyzed the potential for impacts at residences due to the addition of mechanical equipment using the Cadna/A noise prediction software.

♦ *Washington Village Project, Boston, MA*. Evaluated predicted sound levels for the proposed redevelopment of an approximately 4.89-acre site in the South Boston neighborhood. The redevelopment will include eight new residential buildings with most containing ground floor retail, as well as new streets, plazas, and green spaces. Results of the analysis were presented in an Expanded Project Notification Form (PNF).

♦ *110 Broad Street Project, Boston, MA*. Conducted a sound level modeling analysis for the redevelopment of 7,680 square foot site. The project includes the restoration of the historic Bulfinch Building at 102 Broad Street and the construction of a new residential building with ground floor commercial/café space at 110-112 Broad Street. The predicted sound levels were evaluated with respect to the City of Boston noise standards with the results presented in an Expanded PNF.

♦ *55 India Street Project, Boston, MA*. Modeled and evaluated sound levels for mechanical equipment associated with a proposed 67,000 square foot building with ground floor commercial space and 44 residential units above. Results were presented in the Expanded PNF.

♦ *Parcel 1 Project, Boston, MA*. Analyzed sound level impacts from the mechanical equipment associated with the proposed residential/commercial development located in Boston's historic Bulfinch Triangle. Modeling was performed using Cadna/A with the results presented in the Expanded PNF.

♦ *Big Y Supermarket, Northampton, MA*. Measured sound levels during normal operations at the supermarket and gathered background sound levels without the supermarket operating.

♦ *Crosby's Market, Hamilton, MA*. Measured sound levels around the existing market at the nearest residences in response to concerns by neighbors over the renovation and expansion of the market.

♦ *Condominiums, Marblehead, MA*. Measured sound levels during the operation of condenser units located at a condominium. Prepared a letter report comparing the results to the town noise ordinance.

- *Banquet Hall, Whately, MA.* Conducted a sound level analysis for a proposed seasonal banquet hall. The noise source of concern was music being played during functions at the hall. Prepared a letter report comparing the modeling results to the MassDEP Noise Policy.

Noise Impact Assessment – Additional Projects

- *Chestnut Ridge Rod and Gun Club, Dover, NY.* Project Manager for a sound level impact analysis at an existing rod and gun club. Devised and executed a sound level measurement program. Developed mitigation strategies and calculated potential future noise impacts. Summarized all findings in a comprehensive letter report.

- *Storrow Drive Tunnel Reconstruction Project, Boston, MA.* Collected sound level data at various points along Storrow Drive. Presented the noise impact analysis during an Advisory Committee Meeting.

- *TMR Preserve, Dover, NY.* Conducted two sound level programs at a proposed sporting club. Took ambient measurements to document existing conditions in the area. Future conditions were simulated as individuals discharged several types of firearms at various shooting locations in the preserve. Compared measurements taken during these conditions to the existing conditions along with state and local noise regulations.

Shadow Flicker

- *Iberdrola Renewables – Desert Wind, Perquimans and Pasquotank Counties, NC.* Managed a shadow flicker impact assessment for a proposed wind power generation facility to be located in North Carolina. Shadow flicker from the 150 Gamesa G97 2.0 MW wind turbines was calculated. Separate reports were prepared for each county. Gave sworn testimony to the Board of Commissioners in each county.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Tuscola Bay Wind Energy Center, Tuscola, Bay, & Saginaw Counties, MI.* Project Manager for a shadow flicker analysis for a proposed 120 MW wind power generation facility composed of 75 wind turbines. The expected duration of shadow flicker was calculated at sensitive receptors in the vicinity of the project. Responded to questions and comments at multiple public hearings.

- *Confidential Project, MA.* Calculated the duration of shadow flicker from a proposed wind turbine to be located in Massachusetts using the WindPRO shadow module.

- *State of Connecticut Siting Council, CT.* Contributor to the Epsilon project team providing professional consulting services for renewable energy projects to the Siting Council in CT. Examined analyses conducted, including shadow flicker, for a proposed wind energy project in CT. Reviewed submittals provided by the council and submitted comments.

- *State of New Hampshire, Concord, NH.* Conducted an independent review of the shadow flicker analysis for the proposed 24 MW Lempster Mountain Wind Power Project in Lempster, NH. Calculated the duration of shadow flicker using WindPRO software and compared the results to the developer's analysis.

- *Pioneer Green Energy – Great Bay Wind I, Somerset County, MD.* Calculated the expected annual duration of shadow flicker from a 25-wind turbine project. Multiple layouts and wind turbine types were evaluated for the project. Reductions in shadow flicker due to vegetation were calculated for individual residences. A scaling factor due to curtailments was incorporated into the analysis. The results were presented in a stand-alone report.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Golden West Wind Energy Center, El Paso County, CO.* Project Manager for a shadow flicker modeling analysis of an operating 249.4 MW wind power generation facility composed of 145 GE wind turbines. Presented the findings of the study to the Board of County Commissioners.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Lake Benton II Wind Project, Pipestone County, MN*. Project Manager for a shadow flicker modeling analysis for a repower project in Minnesota. Shadow flicker modeling was conducted for 44 proposed wind turbines and four alternates.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Eight Point Wind Energy Center, Steuben County, NY.* Conducted the shadow flicker analysis for the proposed wind energy project required as part of the NY State Article 10 process. The shadow flicker analysis was performed to determine the location and duration of shadow flicker resulting from the proposed 31 GE wind turbines.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Pegasus Wind Energy Center, Tuscola County, MI*. Project Manager for a pre-construction shadow flicker modeling study for a 62 wind turbine project. Provided recommendations for layout adjustments to reduce shadow flicker. Presented analysis findings and responded to questions and comments during multiple public hearings.

- *Eolian Renewable Energy – Antrim Wind, Antrim, NH.* Conducted a shadow flicker analysis for a proposed 28.8 MW wind power generation facility to be composed of nine (9) Siemens SWT-3.2-113 3.2 MW wind turbines. There were no federal, state, or local regulations limiting the amount of shadow flicker resulting from the operation of the proposed wind turbines for this Project. However, the predicted shadow flicker at occupied buildings in the vicinity of the project were put into context by comparing the annual duration of shadow flicker to a value of 30 hours per year.

- *Heritage Sustainable Energy – Big Turtle Wind Farm Phase 2, Huron County, MI.* Project Manager for a shadow flicker analysis for a proposed wind energy facility. Shadow flicker resulting from the operation of 15 Gamesa wind turbines was calculated at discrete modeling points and isolines were generated from a grid encompassing the area surrounding the wind turbines.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Tuscola Wind II, Tuscola County, MI*. Project Manager for a shadow flicker analysis for a proposed 100 MW wind power generation facility composed of 59 wind turbines. Results were presented in reports for each of the four townships which would have a wind turbine. Responded to questions and comments at multiple public hearings.

- *Iberdrola Renewables – Blue Creek Wind Farm, Van Wert and Paulding Counties, OH*. Project Manager for a shadow flicker analysis for a proposed wind farm in Ohio consisting of Gamesa

G90 2.0 MW wind turbines. Results were presented in a comprehensive report which was submitted to the Ohio Power Siting Board.

- *First Wind - Weaver Wind, Hancock County, ME.* Sub-consultant to Normandeau Associates for a wind energy project consisting of approximately 15 wind turbines. Shadow flicker modeling was conducted for two options with the results compared to local regulations. The results of the analyses were presented at an Open House for the project.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Montezuma Wind Farm, Solano County, CA*. Performed an analysis to estimate the hours per year of shadow flicker in the area surrounding the proposed wind farm. Impacts were presented visually as isolines overlaid onto an aerial image which was included in a concise letter report summarizing the results.

- *FPL – St. Lucie Wind Turbine Generation Project, St. Lucie County, FL*. Evaluated the potential for shadow flicker impacts at the nearest residences resulting from the operation of six wind turbines proposed as part of this project. Presented the results in a clear and concise report.

- *NextEra Energy Resources – Osborn Wind Energy Center, MO.* Provided expert opinions regarding proposed amendments to the Clinton County Zoning Ordinance with respect to shadow flicker from a Wind Energy Conversion System. Provided sworn testimony under direct and cross examination at a Clinton County Planning & Zoning Commission hearing.

Air Quality Modeling

- *Besicorp Empire Development Company, Rensselaer, NY*. Worked on modeling predicting $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations from truck and rail traffic associated with a newsprint facility and a cogeneration facility using CAL3QHCR. Produced graphics showing the estimated concentrations in the nearby area.

- *Alcoa Eastalco Works, Frederick, MD*. Assisted in the modeling of an existing aluminum facility. Worked closely with project managers in developing strategies to accurately address the numerous sources throughout the facility. Assisted in the running of CALMET, CALPUFF, and CALPOST. Developed various graphics to illustrate to the client the results of the modeling.

- *Storrow Drive Tunnel Reconstruction Project, Boston, MA*. Assisted in a microscale analysis using EPA MOBILE6 and CAL3QHC. Analyzed various reconfiguration scenarios. Presented the mesoscale and microscale analyses during an Advisory Committee Meeting.

- *Bangor-Hydro Electric Company, Bangor, ME*. Assisted in the renewal process for existing air permits for the Medway, Eastport, and Bar Harbor facilities of the Bangor-Hydro Electric Company. Utilized Satellite i-Steps for generating annual air emission statements.

- *JAMALCO, Jamaica*. Assisted with the modeling analysis for the Clarendon Alumina Works in Jamaica. ISCST3 was used to model various operating scenarios. Prepared graphics illustrating pollutant concentrations around the facility.

- *FPL Energy.* Assisted in AERMOD, CALMET, and CALPUFF modeling for a project in Virginia. Gathered and processed data for the project. Helped to create many of the model runs used in the analysis. Created several figures used in the report.

- *Columbus Center, Boston, MA.* Assisted in the microscale analysis of seven intersections around a proposed development over the Massachusetts Turnpike. Used ISC-Prime to estimate impacts from point sources and volume sources from proposed buildings and tunnels. Used CAL3QHCR to estimate impacts from mobile sources. These models were used to evaluate each of the four building alternatives. Provided graphics for the project.

Air Quality Monitoring

- *Massachusetts Broken Stone Company, Berlin, MA.* Participated in an air quality monitoring program for an existing asphalt plant. Assisted in the installation of a meteorological tower. Made routine trips to the facility to maintain and download data from the H_2S monitor.

- *Former Coal Tar Processing Facility, Island End River, Everett, MA.* Participated in an air quality monitoring program for a former industrial facility. Gathered data before and after a pilot study to document existing conditions. Used various types of sampling equipment including SUMMA Canisters and PUF samplers to collect samples during the pilot study.

Meteorological Monitoring

- *Wheelabrator Millbury Municipal Waste Combustor Facility, Millbury, MA.* Routinely collected data from a meteorological tower at a municipal waste facility. Assisted in the maintenance and calibration of the equipment. Provided quarterly reports.

PUBLICATIONS

- "Low frequency sound and infrasound from wind turbines." Noise Control Engineering Journal, Institute of Noise Control Engineering, Volume 59, Number 2, March-April 2011. O'Neal, R.D., Hellweg, Jr., R.D. and R. M. Lampeter.

- "Sound Defense for a Wind Turbine Farm." North American Windpower, Zackin Publications, Volume 4, Number 4, May 2007. O'Neal, R.D., and R.M. Lampeter.

CONFERENCE PAPERS

- "Evaluating and controlling noise from a metal shredder system." INTER-NOISE 2012, New York City, NY, August 19-22, 2012. O'Neal, R.D., Lampeter, R.M., Emil, C.B. and B.A. Gallant.

- "Low frequency sound and infrasound from wind turbines – a status update." NOISE-CON 2010, Baltimore, MD, April 19-21, 2010. O'Neal, R.D., Hellweg, Jr., R.D. and R. M. Lampeter.

- "Nuisance noise and the defense of a wind farm." INTER-NOISE 2009, Ottawa, Canada, August 23-26, 2009. O'Neal, R.D., and R.M. Lampeter.

PRESENTATIONS

- "Sound Levels and the Evolving Regulatory Landscape." AWEA WINDPOWER 2016 Poster Presentation, May 23-26, 2016.
- "How to Address Post-Construction Sound Level Measurement Requirements." AWEA WINDPOWER 2015 Poster Presentation, May 18-21, 2015.
- "Evaluating Shadow Flicker in the Current Regulatory Environment." Massachusetts Wind Working Group, October 30, 2013.
- "Shadow Flicker Regulations and Guidance: New England and Beyond." New England Wind Energy Education Project Webinar, February 10, 2011
- "Low Frequency Sound and Infrasound from Wind Turbines." CanWEA 2010, Montreal, Canada, November 1-3, 2010. O'Neal, R.D., Hellweg, Jr., R.D. and R. M. Lampeter.

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Institute of Noise Control Engineering (INCE)

PREVIOUS EMPLOYERS

NYC Department of Environmental Protection, June - August 2000.
Meyer Strong and Jones Engineers, P.C., May – August 1999.

Wind Turbine Health Impact Study:

Report of Independent Expert Panel

January 2012

Prepared for:

Massachusetts Department of Environmental Protection

Massachusetts Department of Public Health

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The Panel Charge

The Expert Panel was given the following charge by the Massachusetts Department of Environmental Protection (MassDEP) and Massachusetts Department of Public Health (MDPH):

1. Identify and characterize attributes of concern (e.g., noise, infrasound, vibration, and light flicker) and identify any scientifically documented or potential connection between health impacts associated with wind energy turbines located on land or coastal tidelands that can impact land-based human receptors.
2. Evaluate and discuss information from peer-reviewed scientific studies, other reports, popular media, and public comments received by the MassDEP and/or in response to the *Environmental Monitor Notice* and/or by the MDPH on the nature and type of health complaints commonly reported by individuals who reside near existing wind farms.
3. Assess the magnitude and frequency of any potential impacts and risks to human health associated with the design and operation of wind energy turbines based on existing data.
4. For the attributes of concern, identify documented best practices that could reduce potential human health impacts. Include examples of such best practices (design, operation, maintenance, and management from published articles). The best practices could be used to inform public policy decisions by state, local, or regional governments concerning the siting of turbines.
5. Issue a report within 3 months of the evaluation, summarizing its findings.

   To meet its charge, the Panel conducted a literature review and met as a group a total of three times. In addition, calls were also held with Panel members to further clarify points of discussion.

Executive Summary

The Massachusetts Department of Environmental Protection (MassDEP) in collaboration with the Massachusetts Department of Public Health (MDPH) convened a panel of independent experts to identify any documented or potential health impacts of risks that may be associated with exposure to wind turbines, and, specifically, to facilitate discussion of wind turbines and public health based on scientific findings.

While the Commonwealth of Massachusetts has goals for increasing the use of wind energy from the current 40 MW to 2000 MW by the year 2020, MassDEP recognizes there are questions and concerns arising from harnessing wind energy. The scope of the Panel's effort was focused on health impacts of wind turbines *per se*. The panel was *not* charged with considering any possible benefits of avoiding adverse effects of other energy sources such as coal, oil, and natural gas as a result of switching to energy from wind turbines.

Currently, "regulation" of wind turbines is done at the local level through local boards of health and zoning boards. Some members of the public have raised concerns that wind turbines may have health impacts related to noise, infrasound, vibrations, or shadow flickering generated by the turbines. The goal of the Panel's evaluation and report is to provide a review of the science that explores these concerns and provides useful information to MassDEP and MDPH and to local agencies that are often asked to respond to such concerns. The Panel consists of seven individuals with backgrounds in public health, epidemiology, toxicology, neurology and sleep medicine, neuroscience, and mechanical engineering. All of the Panel members are considered independent experts from academic institutions.

In conducting their evaluation, the Panel conducted an extensive literature review of the scientific literature as well as other reports, popular media, and the public comments received by the MassDEP.

ES 1. Panel Charge

1. Identify and characterize attributes of concern (e.g., noise, infrasound, vibration, and light flicker) and identify any scientifically documented or potential connection between health impacts associated with wind turbines located on land or coastal tidelands that can impact land-based human receptors.
2. Evaluate and discuss information from peer reviewed scientific studies, other reports, popular media, and public comments received by the MassDEP and/or in response to the *Environmental Monitor Notice* and/or by the MDPH on the nature and type of health complaints commonly reported by individuals who reside near existing wind farms.
3. Assess the magnitude and frequency of any potential impacts and risks to human health associated with the design and operation of wind energy turbines based on existing data.
4. For the attributes of concern, identify documented best practices that could reduce potential human health impacts. Include examples of such best practices (design, operation, maintenance, and management from published articles). The best practices could be used to inform public policy decisions by state, local, or regional governments concerning the siting of turbines.
5. Issue a report within 3 months of the evaluation, summarizing its findings.

ES 2. Process

To meet its charge, the Panel conducted an extensive literature review and met as a group a total of three times. In addition, calls were also held with Panel members to further clarify points of discussion. An independent facilitator supported the Panel's deliberations. Each Panel member provided written text based on the literature reviews and analyses. Draft versions of the report were reviewed by each Panel member and the Panel reached consensus for the final text and its findings.

ES 3. Report Introduction and Description

Many countries have turned to wind power as a clean energy source because it relies on the wind, which is indefinitely renewable; it is generated "locally," thereby providing a measure of energy independence; and it produces no carbon dioxide emissions when operating. There is interest in pursuing wind energy both on-land and offshore. For this report, however, the focus is on land-based installations and all comments are focused on this technology. Land-based wind turbines currently range from 100 kW to 3 MW (3000 kW). In Massachusetts, the largest turbine is currently 1.8 MW.

The development of modern wind turbines has been an evolutionary design process, applying optimization at many levels. An overview of the characteristics of wind turbines, noise, and vibration is presented in Chapter 2 of the report. Acoustic and seismic measurements of noise and vibration from wind turbines provide a context for comparing measurements from epidemiological studies and for claims purported to be due to emissions from wind turbines. Appendices provide detailed descriptions and equations that allow a more in-depth understanding of wind energy, the structure of the turbines, wind turbine aerodynamics, installation, energy production, shadow flicker, ice throws, wind turbine noise, noise propagation, infrasound, and stall vs. pitch controlled turbines.

Extensive literature searches and reviews were conducted to identify studies that specifically evaluate human population responses to turbines, as well as population and individual responses to the three primary characteristics or attributes of wind turbine operation: noise, vibration, and flicker. An emphasis of the Panel's efforts was to examine the biological plausibility or basis for health effects of turbines (noise, vibration, and flicker). Beyond traditional forms of scientific publications, the Panel also took great care to review other non-peer reviewed materials regarding the potential for health effects including information related to "Wind Turbine Syndrome" and provides a rigorous analysis as to whether there is scientific basis for it. Since the most commonly reported complaint by people living near turbines is sleep disruption, the Panel provides a robust review of the relationship between noise, vibration, and annoyance as well as sleep disturbance from noises and the potential impacts of the resulting sleep deprivation.

In assessing the state of the evidence for health effects of wind turbines, the Panel followed accepted scientific principles and relied on several different types of studies. It considered human studies of the most important or primary value. These were either human epidemiological studies specifically relating to exposure to wind turbines or, where specific exposures resulting from wind turbines could be defined, the panel also considered human experimental data. Animal studies are critical to exploring biological plausibility and understanding potential biological mechanisms of different exposures, and for providing information about possible health effects when experimental research in humans is not ethically or practically possible. As such, this literature was also reviewed with respect to wind turbine exposures. The non-peer reviewed material was considered part of the weight of evidence. In all cases, data quality was considered; at times, some studies were rejected because of lack of rigor or the interpretations were inconsistent with the scientific evidence.

ES 4. Findings

The findings in Chapter 4 are repeated here.

Based on the detailed review of the scientific literature and other available reports and consideration of the strength of scientific evidence, the Panel presents findings relative to three factors associated with the operation of wind turbines: noise and vibration, shadow flicker, and ice throw. The findings that follow address specifics in each of these three areas.

ES 4.1 Noise

ES 4.1.a Production of Noise and Vibration by Wind Turbines

1. Wind turbines can produce unwanted sound (referred to as noise) during operation. The nature of the sound depends on the design of the wind turbine. Propagation of the sound is primarily a function of distance, but it can also be affected by the placement of the turbine, surrounding terrain, and atmospheric conditions.
    a. Upwind and downwind turbines have different sound characteristics, primarily due to the interaction of the blades with the zone of reduced wind speed behind the tower in the case of downwind turbines.
    b. Stall regulated and pitch controlled turbines exhibit differences in their dependence of noise generation on the wind speed
    c. Propagation of sound is affected by refraction of sound due to temperature gradients, reflection from hillsides, and atmospheric absorption. Propagation effects have been shown to lead to different experiences of noise by neighbors.
    d. The audible, amplitude-modulated noise from wind turbines (“whooshing”) is perceived to increase in intensity at night (and sometimes becomes more of a “thumping”) due to multiple effects: i) a stable atmosphere will have larger wind gradients, ii) a stable atmosphere may refract the sound downwards instead of upwards, iii) the ambient noise near the ground is lower both because of the stable atmosphere and because human generated noise is often lower at night.

2. The sound power level of a typical modern utility scale wind turbine is on the order of 103 dB(A), but can be somewhat higher or lower depending on the details of the design and the rated power of the turbine. The perceived sound decreases rapidly with the distance from the wind turbines. Typically, at distances larger than 400 m, sound pressure levels for modern wind turbines are less than 40 dB(A), which is below the level associated with annoyance in the epidemiological studies reviewed.
3. Infrasound refers to vibrations with frequencies below 20 Hz. Infrasound at amplitudes over 100–110 dB can be heard and felt. Research has shown that vibrations below these amplitudes are not felt. The highest infrasound levels that have been measured near turbines and reported in the literature near turbines are under 90 dB at 5 Hz and lower at higher frequencies for locations as close as 100 m.
4. Infrasound from wind turbines is not related to nor does it cause a “continuous whooshing.”
5. Pressure waves at any frequency (audible or infrasonic) can cause vibration in another structure or substance. In order for vibration to occur, the amplitude (height) of the wave has to be high enough, and only structures or substances that have the ability to receive the wave (resonant frequency) will vibrate.

ES 4.1.b Health Impacts of Noise and Vibration

1. Most epidemiologic literature on human response to wind turbines relates to self-reported “annoyance,” and this response appears to be a function of some combination of the sound itself, the sight of the turbine, and attitude towards the wind turbine project.
   a. There is limited epidemiologic evidence suggesting an association between exposure to wind turbines and annoyance.
   b. There is insufficient epidemiologic evidence to determine whether there is an association between noise from wind turbines and annoyance independent from the effects of seeing a wind turbine and vice versa.

2. There is limited evidence from epidemiologic studies suggesting an association between noise from wind turbines and sleep disruption. In other words, it is possible that noise from some wind turbines can cause sleep disruption.
3. A very loud wind turbine could cause disrupted sleep, particularly in vulnerable populations, at a certain distance, while a very quiet wind turbine would not likely disrupt even the lightest of sleepers at that same distance. But there is not enough evidence to provide particular sound-pressure thresholds at which wind turbines cause sleep disruption. Further study would provide these levels.
4. Whether annoyance from wind turbines leads to sleep issues or stress has not been sufficiently quantified. While not based on evidence of wind turbines, there is evidence that sleep disruption can adversely affect mood, cognitive functioning, and overall sense of health and well-being.
5. There is insufficient evidence that the noise from wind turbines is *directly (i.e., independent from an effect on annoyance or sleep)* causing health problems or disease.
6. Claims that infrasound from wind turbines directly impacts the vestibular system have not been demonstrated scientifically. Available evidence shows that the infrasound levels near wind turbines cannot impact the vestibular system.
    a. The measured levels of infrasound produced by modern upwind wind turbines at distances as close as 68 m are well below that required for non-auditory perception (feeling of vibration in parts of the body, pressure in the chest, etc.).
    b. If infrasound couples into structures, then people inside the structure could feel a vibration. Such structural vibrations have been shown in other applications to lead to feelings of uneasiness and general annoyance. The measurements have shown no evidence of such coupling from modern upwind turbines.
    c. Seismic (ground-carried) measurements recorded near wind turbines and wind turbine farms are unlikely to couple into structures.
    d. A possible coupling mechanism between infrasound and the vestibular system (via the Outer Hair Cells (OHC) in the inner ear) has been proposed but is not yet fully understood or sufficiently explained. Levels of infrasound near wind turbines have been shown to be high enough to be sensed by the OHC. However, evidence does not

exist to demonstrate the influence of wind turbine-generated infrasound on vestibular-mediated effects in the brain.

e. Limited evidence from rodent (rat) laboratory studies identifies short-lived biochemical alterations in cardiac and brain cells in response to short exposures to emissions at 16 Hz and 130 dB. These levels exceed measured infrasound levels from modern turbines by over 35 dB.

7. There is no evidence for a set of health effects, from exposure to wind turbines that could be characterized as a "Wind Turbine Syndrome."
8. The strongest epidemiological study suggests that there is not an association between noise from wind turbines and measures of psychological distress or mental health problems. There were two smaller, weaker, studies: one did note an association, one did not. Therefore, we conclude the weight of the evidence suggests no association between noise from wind turbines and measures of psychological distress or mental health problems**.**
9. None of the limited epidemiological evidence reviewed suggests an association between noise from wind turbines and pain and stiffness, diabetes, high blood pressure, tinnitus, hearing impairment, cardiovascular disease, and headache/migraine.

ES 4.2 Shadow Flicker

ES 4.2.a Production of Shadow Flicker

Shadow flicker results from the passage of the blades of a rotating wind turbine between the sun and the observer.

1. The occurrence of shadow flicker depends on the location of the observer relative to the turbine and the time of day and year.
2. Frequencies of shadow flicker elicited from turbines is proportional to the rotational speed of the rotor times the number of blades and is generally between 0.5 and 1.1 Hz for typical larger turbines.
3. Shadow flicker is only present at distances of less than 1400 m from the turbine.

ES 4.2.b Health Impacts of Shadow Flicker

1. Scientific evidence suggests that shadow flicker does not pose a risk for eliciting seizures as a result of photic stimulation.

2. There is limited scientific evidence of an association between annoyance from prolonged shadow flicker (exceeding 30 minutes per day) and potential transitory cognitive and physical health effects.

ES 4.3 Ice Throw

ES 4.3.a Production of Ice Throw

Ice can fall or be thrown from a wind turbine during or after an event when ice forms or accumulates on the blades.

1. The distance that a piece of ice may travel from the turbine is a function of the wind speed, the operating conditions, and the shape of the ice.
2. In most cases, ice falls within a distance from the turbine equal to the tower height, and in any case, very seldom does the distance exceed twice the total height of the turbine (tower height plus blade length).

ES 4.3.b Health Impacts of Ice Throw

1. There is sufficient evidence that falling ice is physically harmful and measures should be taken to ensure that the public is not likely to encounter such ice.

ES 4.4 Other Considerations

In addition to the specific findings stated above for noise and vibration, shadow flicker and ice throw, the Panel concludes the following:

1. Effective public participation in and direct benefits from wind energy projects (such as receiving electricity from the neighboring wind turbines) have been shown to result in less annoyance in general and better public acceptance overall.

ES 5. Best Practices Regarding Human Health Effects of Wind Turbines

The best practices presented in Chapter 5 are repeated here.

Broadly speaking, the term “best practice” refers to policies, guidelines, or recommendations that have been developed for a specific situation. Implicit in the term is that the practice is based on the best information available at the time of its institution. A best practice may be refined as more information and studies become available. The panel recognizes that in countries which are dependent on wind energy and are protective of public health, best practices have been developed and adopted.

In some cases, the weight of evidence for a specific practice is stronger than it is in other cases. Accordingly, best practice* may be categorized in terms of the evidence available, as follows:

Descriptions of Three Best Practice Categories

Category	**Name**	**Description**
1	Research Validated Best Practice	A program, activity, or strategy that has the highest degree of proven effectiveness supported by objective and comprehensive research and evaluation.
2	Field Tested Best Practice	A program, activity, or strategy that has been shown to work effectively and produce successful outcomes and is supported to some degree by subjective and objective data sources.
3	Promising Practice	A program, activity, or strategy that has worked within one organization and shows promise during its early stages for becoming a best practice with long-term sustainable impact. A promising practice must have some objective basis for claiming effectiveness and must have the potential for replication among other organizations.

**These categories are based on those suggested in "Identifying and Promoting Promising Practices." Federal Register, Vol. 68. No 131. 131. July 2003.*
www.acf.hhs.gov/programs/ccf/about_ccf/gbk_pdf/pp_gbk.pdf

ES 5.1 Noise

Evidence regarding wind turbine noise and human health is limited. There is limited evidence of an association between wind turbine noise and both annoyance and sleep disruption, depending on the sound pressure level at the location of concern. However, there are no research-based sound pressure levels that correspond to human responses to noise. A number of countries that have more experience with wind energy and are protective of public health have developed guidelines to minimize the possible adverse effects of noise. These guidelines consider time of day, land use, and ambient wind speed. The table below summarizes the guidelines of Germany (in the categories of industrial, commercial and villages) and Denmark (in the categories of sparsely populated and residential). The sound levels shown in the table are for nighttime and are assumed to be taken immediately outside of the residence or building of concern. In addition, the World Health Organization recommends a maximum nighttime sound pressure level of 40 dB(A) in residential areas. Recommended setbacks corresponding to these values may be calculated by software such as WindPro or similar software. Such calculations are normally to be done as part of feasibility studies. The Panel considers the guidelines shown below to be Promising Practices (Category 3) but to embody some aspects of Field Tested Best Practices (Category 2) as well.

Promising Practices for Nighttime Sound Pressure Levels by Land Use Type

Land Use	**Sound Pressure Level, dB(A) Nighttime Limits**
Industrial	70
Commercial	50
Villages, mixed usage	45
Sparsely populated areas, 8 m/s wind*	44
Sparsely populated areas, 6 m/s wind*	42
Residential areas, 8 m/s wind*	39
Residential areas, 6 m/s wind*	37

**measured at 10 m above ground, outside of residence or location of concern*

The time period over which these noise limits are measured or calculated also makes a difference. For instance, the often-cited World Health Organization recommended nighttime noise cap of 40 dB(A) is averaged over one year (and does not refer specifically to wind turbine noise). Denmark's noise limits in the table above are calculated over a 10-minute period. These limits are in line with the noise levels that the epidemiological studies connect with insignificant reports of annoyance.

The Panel recommends that noise limits such as those presented in the table above be included as part of a statewide policy regarding new wind turbine installations. In addition, suitable ranges and procedures for cases when the noise levels may be greater than those values should also be considered. The considerations should take into account trade-offs between environmental and health impacts of different energy sources, national and state goals for energy independence, potential extent of impacts, etc.

The Panel also recommends that those involved in a wind turbine purchase become familiar with the noise specifications for the turbine and factors that affect noise production and noise control. Stall and pitch regulated turbines have different noise characteristics, especially in high winds. For certain turbines, it is possible to decrease noise at night through suitable control measures (e.g., reducing the rotational speed of the rotor). If noise control measures are to be considered, the wind turbine manufacturer must be able to demonstrate that such control is possible.

The Panel recommends an ongoing program of monitoring and evaluating the sound produced by wind turbines that are installed in the Commonwealth. IEC 61400-11 provides the standard for making noise measurements of wind turbines (International Electrotechnical Commission, 2002). In general, more comprehensive assessment of wind turbine noise in populated areas is recommended. These assessments should be done with reference to the broader ongoing research in wind turbine noise production and its effects, which is taking place internationally. Such assessments would be useful for refining siting guidelines and for developing best practices of a higher category. Closer investigation near homes where outdoor measurements show A and C weighting differences of greater than 15 dB is recommended.

ES 5.2 Shadow Flicker

Based on the scientific evidence and field experience related to shadow flicker, Germany has adopted guidelines that specify the following:

1. Shadow flicker should be calculated based on the astronomical maximum values (i.e., not considering the effect of cloud cover, etc.).
2. Commercial software such as WindPro or similar software may be used for these calculations. Such calculations should be done as part of feasibility studies for new wind turbines.
3. Shadow flicker should not occur more than 30 minutes per day and not more than 30 hours per year at the point of concern (e.g., residences).
4. Shadow flicker can be kept to acceptable levels either by setback or by control of the wind turbine. In the latter case, the wind turbine manufacturer must be able to demonstrate that such control is possible.

The guidelines summarized above may be considered to be a Field Tested Best Practice (Category 2). Additional studies could be performed, specifically regarding the number of hours per year that shadow flicker should be allowed, that would allow them to be placed in Research Validated (Category 1) Best Practices.

ES 5.3 Ice Throw

Ice falling from a wind turbine could pose a danger to human health. It is also clear that the danger is limited to those times when icing occurs and is limited to relatively close proximity to the wind turbine. Accordingly, the following should be considered Category 1 Best Practices.

1. In areas where icing events are possible, warnings should be posted so that no one passes underneath a wind turbine during an icing event and until the ice has been shed.
2. Activities in the vicinity of a wind turbine should be restricted during and immediately after icing events in consideration of the following two limits (in meters).

For a turbine that may not have ice control measures, it may be assumed that ice could fall within the following limit:

$$x_{\max,\, throw} = 1.5\left(2R + H\right)$$

Where: R = rotor radius (m), H = hub height (m)

For ice falling from a stationary turbine, the following limit should be used:

$$x_{\max,\, fall} = U\left(R + H\right)/15$$

Where: U = maximum likely wind speed (m/s)

The choice of maximum likely wind speed should be the expected one-year return maximum, found in accordance to the International Electrotechnical Commission's design standard for wind turbines, IEC 61400-1.

Danger from falling ice may also be limited by ice control measures. If ice control measures are to be considered, the wind turbine manufacturer must be able to demonstrate that such control is possible.

ES 5.4 Public Participation/Annoyance

There is some evidence of an association between participation, economic or otherwise, in a wind turbine project and the annoyance (or lack thereof) that affected individuals may express. Accordingly, measures taken to directly involve residents who live in close proximity to a wind turbine project may also serve to reduce the level of annoyance. Such measures may be considered to be a Promising Practice (Category 3).

ES 5.5 Regulations/Incentives/Public Education

The evidence indicates that in those parts of the world where there are a significant number of wind turbines in relatively close proximity to where people live, there is a close coupling between the development of guidelines, provision of incentives, and educating the public. The Panel suggests that the public be engaged through such strategies as education, incentives for community-owned wind developments, compensations to those experiencing documented loss of property values, comprehensive setback guidelines, and public education related to renewable energy. These multi-faceted approaches may be considered to be a Promising Practice (Category 3).

Chapter 1

Introduction to the Study

The Massachusetts Department of Environmental Protection (MassDEP), in collaboration with the Massachusetts Department of Public Health (MDPH), convened a panel of independent experts to identify any documented or potential health impacts or risks that may be associated with exposure to wind turbines, and, specifically, to facilitate discussion of wind turbines and public health based on sound science. While the Commonwealth of Massachusetts has goals for increasing the use of wind energy from the current 40 MW to 2000 MW by the year 2020, MassDEP recognizes there are questions and concerns arising from harnessing wind energy. Although fossil fuel non-renewable sources have negative environmental and health impacts, it should be noted that the scope of the Panel's effort was focused on wind turbines and is not meant to be a comparative analysis of the relative merits of wind energy vs. nonrenewable fossil fuel sources such as coal, oil, and natural gas. Currently, "regulation" of wind turbines is done at the local level through local boards of health and zoning boards. Some members of the public have raised concerns that wind turbines may have health impacts related to noise, infrasound, vibrations, or shadow flickering generated by the turbines. The goal of the Panel's evaluation and report is to provide a review of the science that explores these concerns and provides useful information to MassDEP and MDPH and to local agencies who are often asked to respond to such concerns.

The overall context for this study is that the use of wind turbines results in positive effects on public health and environmental health. For example, wind turbines operating in Massachusetts produce electricity in the amount of approximately 2,100–2,900 MWh annually per rated MW, depending on the design of the turbine and the average wind speed at the installation site. Furthermore, the use of wind turbines for electricity production in the New England electrical grid will result in a significant decrease in the consumption of conventional fuels and a corresponding decrease in the production of CO_2 and oxides of nitrogen and sulfur (see Appendix A for details). Reductions in the production of these pollutants will have demonstrable and positive benefits on human and environmental health. However, local impacts of wind turbines, whether anticipated or demonstrated, have resulted in fewer turbines being installed than might otherwise have been expected. To the extent that these impacts can be ameliorated, it should be possible to take advantage of the indigenous wind energy resource more effectively.

The Panel consists of seven individuals with backgrounds in public health, epidemiology, toxicology, neurology and sleep medicine, neuroscience, and mechanical engineering. With the exception of two individuals (Drs. Manwell and Mills), Panel members did not have any direct experience with wind turbines. The Panel did an extensive literature review of the scientific literature (see bibliography) as well as other reports, popular media, and the public comments received by the MassDEP.

Chapter 2

Introduction to Wind Turbines

This chapter provides an introduction to wind turbines so as to provide a context for the discussion that follows. More information on wind turbines may be found in the appendices, particularly in Appendix A.

2.1 Wind Turbine Anatomy and Operation

Wind turbines utilize the wind, which originates from sunlight due to the differential heating of various parts of the earth. This differential heating produces zones of high and low pressure, resulting in air movement. The motion of the air is also affected by the earth's rotation. Many countries have turned to wind power as a clean energy source because it relies on the wind, which is indefinitely renewable; it is generated "locally," thereby providing a measure of energy independence; and it produces no carbon dioxide emissions when operating. There is interest in pursuing wind energy both on-land and offshore. For this report, however, the focus is on land-based installations, and all comments will focus on this technology.

The development of modern wind turbines has been an evolutionary design process, applying optimization at many levels. This section gives a brief overview of the characteristics of wind turbines with some mention of the optimization parameters of interest. Appendix A provides a detailed explanation of wind energy.

The main features of modern wind turbines one notices are the very tall towers, which are no longer a lattice structure but a single cylindrical-like structure and the three upwind, very long, highly contoured turbine blades. The tower design has evolved partly because of biological impact factors as well as for other practical reasons. The early lattice towers were attractive nesting sites for birds. This led to an unnecessary impact of wind turbines on bird populations. The lattice structures also had to be climbed externally by turbine technicians. The tubular towers, which are now more common, are climbed internally. This reduces the health risks for maintenance crews.

The power in the wind available to a wind turbine is related to the cube of the wind speed and the square of the radius of the rotor. Not all the available power in the wind can be captured by a wind turbine, however. Betz (van Kuik, 2007) showed that the maximum power that can be extracted is 16/27 times the available power (see Appendix A). In an attempt to extract the maximum power from the wind, modern turbines have very large rotors and the towers are quite high. In this way the dependence on the radius is "optimized," and the dependence on the wind speed is "optimized." The wind speed is higher away from the ground due to boundary layer effects, and as such, the towers are made higher in order to capture the higher speed winds (more information about the wind profiles and variability is found in Appendix A). It is noted here that the rotor radius may increase again in the future, but currently the largest rotors used on land are around 100 m in diameter. This upper limit is currently a function of the radius of curvature of the roads on which the trucks that deliver the turbine blades must drive to the installation sites. Clearance under bridges is also a factor.

The efficiency with which the wind's power is captured by a particular wind turbine (i.e., how close it comes to the Betz limit) is a function of the blade design, the gearbox, the electrical generator, and the control system. The aerodynamic forces on the rotor blade play a major role. The best design maximizes lift and minimizes drag at every blade section from hub to tip. The twisted and tapered shapes of modern blades attempt to meet this optimal condition. Other factors also must be taken into consideration such as structural strength, ease of manufacturing and transport, type of materials, cost, etc.

Beyond these visual features, the number of blades and speed of the tips play a role in the optimization of the performance through what is called solidity. When setting tip speeds based on number of blades, however, trade-offs exist because of the influence of these parameters on weight, cost, and noise. For instance, higher tip speeds often results in more noise.

The dominance of the 3-bladed upwind systems is both historic and evolutionary. The European manufacturers moved to 3-bladed systems and installed numerous turbines, both in Europe and abroad. Upwind systems are preferable to downwind systems for on-land installations because they are quieter. The downwind configuration has certain useful features but it suffers from the interaction noise created when the blades pass through the wake that forms behind the tower.

The conversion of the kinetic energy of the wind into electrical energy is handled by the rotor nacelle assembly (RNA), which consists of the rotor, the drive train, and various ancillary components. The rotor grouping includes the blades, the hub, and the pitch control components. The drive train includes the shafts, bearings, gearbox (not necessary for direct drive generators), couplings, mechanical brake, and generator. A schematic of the RNA, together with more detail concerning the operation of the various parts, is in Appendix A.

The rotors are controlled so as to generate electricity most effectively and as such must withstand continuously fluctuating forces during normal operation and extreme loads during storms. Accordingly, in general a wind turbine rotor does not operate at its own maximum power coefficient at all wind speeds. Because of this, the power output of a wind turbine is generally described by a relationship, known as a power curve. A typical power curve is shown in the appendix. Below the cut-in speed no power is produced. Between cut-in and rated wind speed the power increases significantly with wind speed. Above the rated speed, the power produced is constant, regardless of the wind speed, and above the cut-out speed the turbine is shut down often with use of the mechanical brake.

Two main types of rotor control systems exist: pitch and stall. Stall controlled turbines have fixed blades and operate at a fixed speed. The aerodynamic design of the blades is such that the power is self-limiting, as long as the generator is connected to the electrical grid. Pitch regulated turbines have blades that can be rotated about their long axis. Such an arrangement allows more precise control. Pitch controlled turbines are also generally quieter than stall controlled turbines, especially at higher wind speeds. Until recently, many turbines used stall control. At present, most large turbines use pitch control. Appendices A and F provide more details on pitch and stall.

The energy production of a wind turbine is usually considered annually. Estimates are usually obtained by calculating the expected energy that will be produced every hour of a representative year (by considering the turbine's power curve and the estimated wind resource) and then summing the energy from all the hours. Sometimes a normalized term known as the capacity factor (CF) is used to characterize the performance. This is the actual energy produced (or estimated to be produced) divided by the amount of energy that would be produced if the turbine were running at its rated output for the entire year. Appendix A gives more detail on these computations.

2.2 Noise from Turbines

Because of the concerns about the noise generated from wind turbines, a short summary of the sources of noise is provided here. A thorough description of the various noise sources from a wind turbine is given in the text by Wagner et al. (1996).

A turbine produces noise mechanically and aerodynamically. Mechanical noise sources include the gearbox, generator, yaw drives, cooling fans, and auxiliary equipment such as hydraulics. Because the emitted sound is associated with the rotation of mechanical and electrical equipment, it is often tonal. For instance, it was found that noise associated with a 1500 kW turbine with a generator running at speeds between 1100 and 1800 rpm contained a tone between 20 and 30 Hz (Betke et al., 2004). The yaw system on the other hand might produce more of a grinding type of noise but only when the yaw mechanism is engaged. The transmission of mechanical noise can be either airborne or structure-borne as the associated vibrations can be transmitted into the hub and tower and then radiated into the surrounding space.

Advances in gearboxes and yaw systems have decreased these noise sources over the years. Direct drive systems will improve this even more. In addition, utility scale wind turbines are usually insulated to prevent mechanical noise from proliferating outside the nacelle or tower (Alberts, 2006)

Aerodynamic sound is generated due to complex fluid-structure interactions occurring on the blades. Wagner et al. (1996) break down the sources of aerodynamic sound as follows in Table 1.

Table 1

Sources of Aerodynamic Sound from a Wind Turbine (Wagner et al., 1996*)*.

Noise Type	**Mechanism**	**Characteristic**
Trailing-edge noise	Interaction of boundary layer turbulence with blade trailing edge	Broadband, main source of high frequency noise (770 Hz < f < 2 kHz)
Tip noise	Interaction of tip turbulence with blade tip surface	Broadband
Stall, separation noise	Interaction of turbulence with blade surface	Broadband
Laminar boundary layer noise	Non-linear boundary layer instabilities interacting with the blade surface	Tonal
Blunt trailing edge noise	Vortex shedding at blunt trailing edge	Tonal
Noise from flow over holes, slits, and intrusions	Unsteady shear flows over holes and slits, vortex shedding from intrusions	Tonal
Inflow turbulence noise	Interaction of blade with atmospheric turbulence	Broadband
Steady thickness noise, steady loading noise	Rotation of blades or rotation of lifting surface	Low frequency related to blade passing frequency (outside of audible range)
Unsteady loading noise	Passage of blades through varying velocities, due to pitch change or blade altitude change as it rotates* For downwind turbines passage through tower shadow	Whooshing or beating, amplitude modulation of audible broadband noise. For downwind turbines, impulsive noise at blade passing frequency

**van den Berg 2004.*

Of these mechanisms, the most persistent and often strongest source of aerodynamic sound from modern wind turbines is the trailing edge noise. It is also the amplitude modulation of this noise source due to the presence of atmospheric effects and directional propagation effects that result in the whooshing or beating sound often reported (van den Berg, 2004). As a turbine blade rotates through a changing wind stream, the aerodynamics change, leading to differences in the boundary layer and thus to differences in the trailing edge noise (Oerlemans, 2009). Also, the direction in which the blade is pointing changes as it rotates, leading to differences in the directivity of the noise from the trailing edge. This noise source leads to what some people call the “whooshing” sound.

Most modern turbines use pitch control for a variety of reasons. One of the reasons is that at higher wind speeds, when the control system has the greatest impact, the pitch controlled turbine is quieter than a comparable stall regulated turbine would be. Appendix E shows the difference in the noise from two such systems.

When discussing noise from turbines, it is important to also consider propagation effects and multiple turbine effects. One propagation effect of interest is due to the dependence of the speed of sound on temperature. When there is a large temperature gradient (which may occur during the day due to surface warming or due to topography such as hills and valleys) the path a sound wave travels will be refracted. Normally this means that during a typical day sound is “turned” away from the earth’s surface. However, at night the sound propagates at a constant height or even be “turned” down toward the earth’s surface, making it more noticeable than it otherwise might be.

The absorption of sound by vegetation and reflection of sound from hillsides are other propagation effects of interest. Several of these effects were shown to be influencing the sound field near a few homes in North Carolina that were impacted by a wind turbine installation (Kelley et al., 1985). A downwind 2-bladed, 2 MW turbine was installed on a mountaintop in North Carolina. It created high amplitude impulsive noise due to the interaction of the blades and the tower wakes. Some homes (10 in 1000) were adversely affected by this high amplitude impulsive noise. It is shown in the report by Kelley et al. (1985) that echoes and focusing due to refraction occurred at the location of the affected homes.

In flat terrain, noise in the audible range will propagate along a flat terrain in a manner such that its amplitude will decay exactly as distance from the source (1/distance). Appendix E provides formulae for approximating the overall sound level at a given distance from a source. In the inaudible range, it has been noted that often the sound behaves as if the propagation was governed by a $1/(\text{distance})^{1/2}$ (Shepherd & Hubbard, 1991).

When one considers the noise from a wind farm in which multiple turbines are located close to each other, an estimate for the overall noise from the farm can be obtained. Appendix E describes the method for obtaining the estimate. All these estimates rely on information regarding the sound power generated by the turbine at the hub height. The power level for several modern turbines is given in Appendix D.

2.2.a Measurement and Reporting of Noise

Turbines produce multiple types of sound as indicated previously, and the sound is characterized in several ways: tonal or broadband, constant amplitude or amplitude modulated, and audible or infrasonic. The first two characterization pairs have been mentioned previously. Audible refers to sound with frequencies from 20 Hz to 20 kHz. The waves in the infrasonic range, less than 20 Hz, may actually be audible if the amplitude of the sound is high enough. Appendix D provides a brief primer on acoustics and the hearing threshold associated with the entire frequency spectrum.

Sound is simply pressure fluctuations and as such, this is what a microphone measures. However, the amplitude of the fluctuations is reported not in units of pressure (such as Pascals) but on a decibel scale. The sound pressure level (SPL) is defined by

$$\text{SPL} = 10 \log_{10} [p^2/p^2_{ref}] = 20 \log_{10}(p/p_{ref})$$

the resulting number having the units of decibels (dB). The reference pressure p_{ref} for airborne sound is 20×10^{-6} Pa (i.e., 20 μPa or 20 micro Pascals). Some implications of the decibel scale are noted in Appendix D.

When sound is broadband (contains multiple frequencies), it is useful to use averages that measure approximately the amplitude of the sound and its frequency content. Standard averaging methods such as octave and 1/3-octave band are described in Appendix D. In essence, the entire frequency range is broken into chunks, and the amplitude of the sound at frequencies in each chunk is averaged. An overall sound pressure value can be obtained by averaging all of the bands.

When presenting the sound pressure it is common to also use a filter or weighting. The A-weighting is commonly used in wind turbine measurements. This filter takes into account the threshold of human hearing and gives the same decibel reading at different frequencies that would equate to equal loudness. This means that at low frequencies (where amplitudes have to be incredibly high for the sound to be heard by people) a large negative weight would be applied. C-weighting only filters the levels at frequencies below about 30 Hz and above 4 kHz and filters them only slightly between 0 and 30 Hz. The weight values for both the A and C weightings filters are shown in Appendix D, and an example with actual wind turbine data is presented.

There are many other weighting methods. For instance, the day-night level filter penalizes nighttime noise between the hours of 10 p.m. and 7 a.m. by adding an additional 10 dB to sound produced during these hours.

When analyzing wind turbine and other anthropogenic sound there is a question as to what averaging period should be used. The World Health Organization uses a yearly average. Others argue though that especially for wind turbines, which respond to seasonal variations as well as diurnal variations, much shorter averages should be considered.

2.2.b Infrasound and Low-frequency Noise (IFLN)

The term *infrasound* refers to pressure waves with frequencies less than 20 Hz. In the infrasonic range, the amplitude of the sound must be very high for it to be audible to humans. For instance, the hearing threshold below 20 Hz requires that the amplitude be above 80 dB for it to be heard and at 5 Hz it has to be above 103 dB (O’Neal, 2011; Watanabe & Moeller, 1990). This gives little room between the audible and the pain values for the infrasound range: 165 dB at 2 Hz and 145 dB at 20 Hz cause pain (Leventhal, 2006).

The *low frequency* range is usually characterized as 20–200 Hz (Leventhal, 2006; O’Neal, 2011). This is within the audible range but again the threshold of hearing indicates that fairly high amplitude is required in this frequency range as well. The A-weighting of sound is based upon the threshold of human hearing such that it reports the measured values adjusted by -50 dB at 20 Hz, -10 dB at 200 Hz, and + 1 dB at 1000 Hz. The A-weighting curve is shown in Appendix D.

It is known that low frequency waves propagate with less attenuation than high-frequency waves. Measurements have shown that the amplitude for the airborne infrasonic waves can be cylindrical in nature, decaying at a rate inversely proportional to the square root of the distance from the source. Normally the decay of the amplitude of an acoustic wave is inversely proportional to the distance (Shepherd & Hubbard, 1991).

It is difficult to find reliable and comparable infrasound and low frequency noise (ILFN) measurement data in the peer-reviewed literature. Table 2 provides some examples of such measurements from wind turbines. For each case, the reliability of the infrasonic data is not known (the infrasonic measurement technique is not described in each report), although it is assumed that the low frequency noise was captured accurately. The method for obtaining the sound pressure level is not described for each reported data set, and some may come from averages over many day/time/wind conditions while others may be just from a single day's measurement campaign.

Table 2
Literature-based Measurements of Wind Turbines; dB alone refers to unweighted values

Turbine Rating (kW)	**Distance (m)**	**Frequency**	**Sound Pressure Level**	**Reference**
500	200	5 20	55 dB(G)[2] 35 dB(G)[2]	Jakobsen, 2005[3]
3200	68	4 20	72 dB(G)[2] 50 dB(G)[2]	Jakobsen, 2005[3]
1500	65	5 20 100	>70 dB(A) 60 dB(A) 35 dB(A)	Leventhal, 2006
2000 (2)	100	5 20 200	95 dB 65 dB 55 dB	van den Berg, 2004[3]
1500	98	1 10 20 100 200	90 dB 70 dB 68 dB 68 dB 60 dB	Jung, 2008[3]
-	450	10 100 200	75 dB 55 dB 40 dB	Palmer, 2010
2300	305	5 20 100	73 dB(A) 55 dB(A) - 95 50 dB(A) - 70	O'Neal, 2011[3]

[1]dB alone refers to un-weighted values.
[2]G weighting reflects human response to infrasound. The curve is defined to have a gain of zero dB at 10 Hz. Between 1 Hz and 20 Hz the slope is approximately 12 dB per octave. The cut-off below 1 Hz has a slope of 24 dB per octave, and above 20 Hz the slope is -24 dB per octave. Humans can hear 95 dB(G).
[3]Indicates peer-reviewed article.

When these recorded levels are taken at face value, one might conclude that the infrasonic regime levels are well below the audible threshold. In contrast, the low frequency regime becomes audible around 30 Hz. Such data have led many researchers to conclude that the infrasound and low frequency noise from wind turbines is not an issue (Leventhal, 2009; O'Neal, 2011; Bowdler, 2009). Others who have sought explanations for complaints from those living near wind turbines have pointed to ILFN as a problem (Pierpont, 2009; Branco & Alves-

Pereira, 2004). Some have declared the low frequency range to be of greatest concern (Kamperman et al., 2008; Jung, 2008).

It is important to make the clear distinction between amplitude-modulated noise from wind turbines and the ILFN from turbines. Amplitude modulation in wind turbines noise has been discussed at length by Oerlemans (2009) and van den Berg (2004). Amplitude modulation is what causes the whooshing sound referred to as swish-swish by van den Berg (that sometimes becomes a thumping sound). The whooshing noise created by modern wind turbines occurs because of variations in the trailing edge noise produced by a rotor blade as it sweeps through its path and the directionality of the noise because of the perceived pitch of the blade at different locations along its 360° rotation. The sound is produced in the audible range, and it is modulated so that it is quiet and then loud and then quiet again at a rate related to the blade passing frequency (rate blades pass the tower) which is often around 1 Hz. Van den Berg (2004) noted that the level of amplitude modulation is often greater at night because the difference between the wind speed at the top and bottom of the rotor disc can be much larger at night when there is a stable atmosphere than during the day when the wind profile is less severe. It is further argued that in a stable atmosphere there is little wind near the ground so wind noise does not mask the turbine noise for a listener near the ground. Finally, atmospheric effects can change the propagation of the sound refracting the noise towards the ground rather than away from the ground. The whooshing that is heard is NOT infrasound and much of its content is not at low frequency. Most of the sound is at higher frequency and as such it will be subject to higher atmospheric attenuation than the low frequency sound. An anecdotal finding that the whooshing sound carries farther when the atmosphere is stable does not imply that it is infrasound or heavy in low frequency content, it simply implies that the refraction of the sound is also different when the atmosphere is stable. It is important to note then that when a complaint is tied to the thumping or whooshing that is being heard, the complaint may not be about ILFN at all even if the complaint mentions low frequency noise. Kamperman et al. (2008) state that, "It is not clear to us whether the complaints about "low frequency" noise are about the audible low frequency part of the "swoosh-boom" sound, the once-per-second amplitude modulation … of the "swoosh-boom" sound, or some combination of the two."

Chapter 3

Health Effects

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 reviews the evidence for human health effects of wind turbines. Extensive literature searches and reviews were conducted to identify studies that specifically evaluate population responses to turbines, as well as population and individual responses to noise, vibration, and flicker. The biological plausibility or basis for health effects of turbines (noise, vibration, and flicker) was examined. Beyond traditional forms of scientific publications, the Panel also reviewed other non-peer reviewed materials including information related to "Wind Turbine Syndrome" and provides a rigorous analysis of its scientific basis. Since the most commonly reported complaint by people living near turbines is sleep disruption, the Panel provides a robust review of the relationship between noise, vibration, annoyance as well as sleep disturbance from noises and the potential impacts of the resulting sleep deprivation.

In assessing the state of the evidence for health effects of wind turbines, the Panel relied on several different types of studies. It considered human studies of primary value. These were either human epidemiological studies specifically relating to exposure to wind turbines or, where specific exposures resulting from wind turbines could be defined, the Panel also considered human experimental data. Animal studies are critical to exploring biological plausibility and understanding potential biological mechanisms of different exposures, and for providing information about possible health effects when experimental research in humans is not ethically or practically possible (National Research Council (NRC), 1991). As such, this literature was also reviewed with respect to wind turbine exposures. In all cases, data quality is considered. At times some studies were rejected because of lack of rigor or the interpretations were inconsistent with the scientific evidence. These are identified in the discussion below.

In the specific case of the possibility of ice being thrown from wind turbine blades, the Panel discusses the physics of such ice throw in order to provide the basis of the extent of the potential for injury from thrown ice (see Chapter 2).

3.2 Human Exposures to Wind Turbines

Epidemiologic study designs differ in their ability to provide evidence of an association (Ellwood, 1998). Typical study designs include randomized trials, cohort studies, and case-control studies and can include elements of prospective follow-up, retrospective assessments, or cross-sectional analysis where exposure and outcome data are essentially concurrent. Each of these designs has strengths and weaknesses and thus can provide varying levels of strength of evidence for causal associations between exposures and outcomes, which can also be affected by analytic choices. Thus, this literature needs to be examined in detail, regardless of study type, to determine strength of evidence for causality.

Review of this literature began with a PubMed search for “wind turbine” or “wind turbines” to identify peer-reviewed literature pertaining to health effects of wind turbines. Titles and abstracts of identified papers were then read to make a first pass determination of whether the paper was a study on health effects of exposure to wind turbines or might possibly contain relevant references to such studies. Because the peer-reviewed literature so identified was relatively limited, we also examined several non-peer reviewed papers, reports, and books that discussed health effects of wind turbines. All of this literature was examined for additional relevant references, but for the purposes of determining strength of evidence, we only considered such publications if they described studies of some sort in sufficient detail to assess the validity of the findings. This process identified four studies that generated peer-reviewed papers on health effects of wind turbines. A few other non-peer reviewed documents described data of sufficient relevance to merit consideration and are discussed below as well.

3.3 Epidemiological Studies of Exposure to Wind Turbines

The four studies that generated peer-reviewed papers on health effects of wind turbines included two from Sweden (E. Pedersen et al., 2007; E. Pedersen & Waye, 2004), one from the Netherlands (E. Pedersen et al., 2009), and one from New Zealand (Shepherd at al., 2011). The primary outcome assessed in the first three of these studies is annoyance. Annoyance *per se* is not a biological disease, but has been defined in different ways. For example, as “a feeling of resentment, displeasure, discomfort, dissatisfaction, or offence which occurs when noise interferes with someone’s thoughts, feelings or daily activities” (Passchier-Vermeer, 1993); or “a mental state characterized by distress and aversion, which if maintained, can lead to a deterioration of health and well-being” (Shepherd et al., 2010). Annoyance is usually assessed with questionnaires, and this is the case for the three studies mentioned above. There is consistent evidence for annoyance in populations exposed for more than one year to sound levels of 37 dB(A), and severe annoyance at about 42 dB(A) (Concha-Barrientos et al., 2004). In each of those studies annoyance was assessed by questionnaire, and the respondent was asked to indicate annoyance to a number of items (including wind turbines) on a five-point scale (do not notice, notice but not annoyed, slightly annoyed, rather annoyed, very annoyed). While annoyance as such is certainly not to be dismissed, in assessing global burden of disease the World Health Organization (WHO) has taken the approach of excluding annoyance as an outcome because it is not a formally defined health outcome *per se* (Concha-Barrientos et al., 2004). Rather, to the extent annoyance may cause other health outcomes, those other outcomes could be considered directly. Nonetheless, because of a paucity of literature on the association between wind turbines and other health outcomes, we consider here the literature on wind turbines and annoyance.

3.3.a Swedish Studies

Both Swedish studies were cross sectional and involved mailed questionnaires to potential participants. For the first Swedish study, 627 households were identified in one of five areas of Sweden chosen to have enough dwellings at varying distances from wind turbines and of comparable geographical, cultural, and topographical structure (E. Pedersen & Waye, 2004). There were 16 wind turbines in the study area and of these, 14 had a power of 600–650 kW, and the other 2 turbines had 500 kW and 150 kW. The towers were between 47 and 50 m in height. Of the turbines, 13 were WindWorld machines, 2 were Enercon, and 1 was a Vestas turbine. Questionnaires were to be filled out by one person per household who was between the ages of 18 and 75. If there was more than one such person, the one whose birthday was closest to May 20th was chosen. It is not clear how the specific 627 households were chosen, and of the 627, only 513 potential participants were identified, although it is not clear why the other households did not have potential participants. Of the 513 potential participants, 351 (68.4%) responded.

The purpose of the questionnaire was masked by querying the participant about living conditions in general, some questions on which were related to wind turbines. However, a later section of the questionnaire focused more specifically on wind turbines, and so the degree to which the respondent was unaware about the focus on wind turbines is unclear. A-weighted sound levels were determined at each respondent’s dwelling, and these levels were grouped into

6 categories (in dB(A): <30, 30–32.5, 32.5–35, 35–37.5, 37.5–40, and >40). Ninety-three percent of respondents could see a wind turbine from their dwelling.

The main results of this study were that there was a significant association between noise level and annoyance. This association was attenuated when adjusted for the respondent's attitude towards the visual impact of the turbines, which itself was a strong predictor of annoyance levels, but the association with noise still persisted. Further adjustment for noise sensitivity and attitude towards wind turbines in general did not change the results. The authors indicated that the reporting of sleep disturbances went up with higher noise categories, but did not report on the significance of this association. Nor did the authors report on associations with other health-related questions that were apparently on the questionnaire (such as headache, undue tiredness, pain and stiffness in the back, neck or shoulders, or feeling tensed/stressed, or irritable).

The 68% response rate in this study is reasonably good, but it is somewhat disconcerting that the response rate appeared to be higher in the two highest noise level categories (76% and 78% vs. 60–69%). It is not implausible that those who were annoyed by the turbines were more inclined to return the questionnaire. In the lowest two sound categories (<32.5 dB(A)) nobody reported being more than slightly annoyed, whereas in the highest two categories 28% (37.5–40 dB(A)) and 44% (>40 dB(A)) reported being more than slightly annoyed (unadjusted percentages). Assuming annoyance would drive returning the questionnaires, this would suggest that the percentages in the highest categories may be somewhat inflated. The limited description of the selection process in this study is a limitation as well, as is the cross sectional nature of the study. Cross-sectional studies lack the ability to determine the temporality of cause and effect; in the case of these kinds of studies, we cannot know whether the annoyance level was present before the wind turbines were operational from a cross sectional study design. Furthermore, despite efforts to blind the respondent to the emphasis on wind turbines, it is not clear to what degree this was successful.

The second Swedish study (E. Pedersen & Persson Waye, 2007) took a similar approach to the first, but in this study the selection procedures were explained in more detail and were clearly rigorous. Specific details on the wind turbines in the area were not provided, but it was noted that areas were sought with wind turbines that had a nominal power of more than 500 kW, although some of the areas also contained turbines with lower power. A later publication by these authors (Pedersen et al., 2009) indicates that the turbines in this study were up to 1.5 MW and up to 65 m high. In the areas chosen, either all households were recruited or a random sample was used. In this study 1,309 questionnaires were sent out and 754 (57.6%) were returned. The response rate by noise category level, however, was not reported. There was a clear association between noise level and hearing turbine noise, with the percentage of those hearing turbine noise steadily increasing across the noise level categories. However, despite a significant unadjusted association between noise levels and annoyance (dichotomized as more than slightly annoyed or not), and after adjusting for attitude towards wind turbines or visual aspects of the turbines (e.g., visual angle on the horizon, an indicator of how prominent the turbines are in the field of view), each of which was strongly associated with annoyance, the association with noise level category was lost. The model from which this conclusion was drawn, however, imposed a linear relation on the association between noise level category and annoyance. But in the crude percentages of people annoyed across noise level categories, it appeared that the relation might not be linear, but rather most prevalent in the highest noise. The percentage of those in the highest noise level category (>40 dB(A)) reporting annoyance (~15%) appeared to be higher than among people in the lower noise categories (<5%).

Given the more rigorous description of the selection process in this study, it has to be considered stronger than the first Swedish study. While 58% is pretty good for a questionnaire response rate, the non-response levels still leave room for bias. The authors do not report the response rate by noise level categories, but if the pattern is similar to the first Swedish study, it could suggest that the percentage annoyed in the highest noise category could be inflated. The cross sectional nature of the study is also a limitation and complicates interpretation of the effects on the noise-annoyance association of adjustment for the other factors. Regarding the loss of the association after adjustment for attitude, if one assumes that the noise levels caused a negative attitude towards wind turbines, then the loss of association between noise and annoyance after adjusting for attitude does not argue against annoyance being caused by increasing turbine noise, but rather that that is the path by which noise causes annoyance (louder noise→negative attitude→annoyance). If, on the other hand, the attitude towards turbines was not caused by the noise, then the results would suggest that noise levels did not cause the annoyance. Visual angle, however, clearly does not cause the noise level; thus, the lack of association between noise and annoyance in analyses adjusted for visual angle more strongly suggest that the turbine noise level is not causing the annoyance, but perhaps the visual intrusion instead. This is similar to the conclusion of an earlier Danish report (T. H. Pedersen & Nielsen, 1994). Either way, however, the data still suggest that there may be an association between turbine noise and annoyance when the noise levels are >40 dB(A).

A more intricate statistical model of the association between turbine noise levels and annoyance that used the data from both Swedish studies was reported separately (Pedersen & Larsman, 2008). The authors used structural equation models (SEMs) to simultaneously account for several aspects of visual attitude towards the turbines and general attitude towards the turbines. These analyses suggested a significant association between noise levels and annoyance even after considering other factors.

3.3.b Dutch Study

The Dutch study aimed to recruit households that reflected general wind turbine exposure conditions over a range of background sound levels. All areas within the Netherlands that were characterized by one of three clearly defined land-use types—built-up area, rural area with a main road, and rural area without a main road—and that had at least two wind turbines of at least 500 kW within 500 meters of each other were selected for the study. Sites dominated by industry or business were excluded. All addresses within these areas were obtained and classified into one of five wind turbine noise categories (<30, 30–35, 35–40, 40–45, and >45 dB(A)) based on characteristics of nearby wind turbines, measurements of sound from those turbines, and the International Standards Organization (ISO) standard model of wind turbine noise propagation. Individual households were randomly selected for recruitment within noise/land type categories, except for the highest noise level for which all households were selected because of the small number exposed at the wind turbine noise levels of the highest category.

As with the Swedish studies, the Dutch study was cross sectional and involved a mailed questionnaire modeled on the one used in the Swedish studies. Of 1,948 mailed surveys, 725 (37%) were returned. There was only minor variation in response rate by turbine noise category, although unlike the Swedish studies, the response rate was slightly lower in the higher noise categories. A random sample of 200 non-responders was sent an abbreviated questionnaire asking only two questions about annoyance from wind turbine noise. There was no difference in the distribution of answers to these questions among these non-responders and those who responded to the full questionnaire.

One of the more dramatic findings of this study was that among people who benefited economically from the turbines (n=100; 14%)—who were much more commonly in the higher noise categories—there was virtually no annoyance (3%) despite the same pattern of noticing the noise as those who did not benefit economically. It is possible that this is because attitude towards turbines drives annoyance, but it was also suggested that those who benefit economically are able to turn off the turbines when they become annoying. However, it is not clear how many of those who benefited economically actually had that level of control over the turbines.

Similarly, there was very little annoyance among people who could not see a wind turbine from their residence even when those people were in higher noise categories (although none were in the highest category). In models that adjusted for visibility of wind turbines and economic benefit, sound level was still a significant predictor of annoyance. However, because of the way in which sound and visibility were modeled in this analysis, the association between higher noise levels and higher annoyance could have been driven entirely by those who could see a wind turbine, while there could still have been no association between wind turbine noise level and annoyance among those who could not see a wind turbine. Thus, this study has to be considered inconclusive with respect to an association between wind turbine sound level and annoyance *independent of* the effect of seeing a wind turbine (and vice versa).

The Dutch study has the limitation of being cross sectional as were the Swedish studies, and the non-response in the Dutch study was much larger than in the Swedish studies. The results of the limited assessment of a subset of non-responders mitigate somewhat against the concerns raised by the low response rate, but not completely.

3.3.c New Zealand Study

The New Zealand study recruited participants from what the authors refer to as two demographically matched neighborhoods (an exposed group living near wind turbines and a control group living far from turbines), although supporting data for this are not presented. The area with the turbines is described as being characterized by hilly terrain, with long ridges running 250–450 m above sea level, on which 66 125 m high wind turbines are positioned. The power of the turbines is not provided. For the exposed group, participants were drawn from those 18 years and older living in 56 houses located within 2 km of a wind turbine, and for the control group participants were drawn from those 18 years and older living in 250 houses located at least 8 km from the wind turbines. It is unclear how many participants per household were recruited, but the final study sample included 39 people in the exposed group and 158 in the control group. Response rates of 34% for the exposed group and 32% for the control group are given. The outcome assessed was response to the abbreviated version of the WHO's quality of life (QOL)-BREF (WHOQOL-BREF)—a health-related QOL questionnaire. These questions were embedded within a larger questionnaire with various facets designed to mask the focus on wind turbines. Although there were no statistically significant demographic differences between the two groups, 43.6% of those in the exposed group had a university education while only 34.2% in the control group did.

The exposed group was found to have significantly worse physical QOL (in particular the sleep and energy level items of this scale) and worse environmental QOL (in particular ratings of how healthy the environment is and satisfaction with the conditions of their living space). The groups did not differ in scores on the social or psychological scales. The mean ratings for an overall QOL item was significantly lower in the exposed group. All of these analyses were adjusted for length of residence, but for no other variables.

As with the other studies discussed, this study has the limitation of being cross sectional. As with the Dutch study, the response rate in the present study is rather low, and unfortunately, there are no data in the New Zealand study on non-participants. This raises concern that self-selection into the study could differ by important factors in some way between the two groups. The difference seen in education level between the groups exacerbates this concern. It is also unclear whether appropriate statistical analysis methods were used given that there may have been multiple respondents from the same household, which is not stated but would have needed to have been accounted for in the analysis. The lack of control for other variables that may be related to reporting of QOL is also a limitation. In this regard it is important to note that a lack of a statistically significant difference in factors between groups does not rule out the possibility of those factors potentially accounting for some of the difference in outcome scores between groups, particularly when the sample size is small like in this study. Whether participants could see wind turbines was not assessed, but it is likely that most if not all in the exposed group could and most if not all in the control group could not, given their locations. Given the findings in the

Swedish and Dutch studies, this means that even if the difference in QOL scores seen are due to wind turbines, it is possible that it is driven by seeing the turbines rather than sound from the turbines. Overall, the level of evidence from this study for a causal association between wind turbines and reported QOL is limited.

3.3.d Additional Non-Peer Reviewed Documents

Papers that appear in the peer-reviewed literature have by definition undergone a level of review external to the study team by not only the editors of the journal, but also two to three (usually) scientists familiar with the field of the study and the methodology used. These hurdles provide an opportunity to identify problems with the paper—from methodology to interpretation of the results—and either provide the opportunity to address problems or reject the paper if the problems are considered fatal to the interpretation of the results. Non-peer reviewed literature is not subject to this external review scrutiny. This does not mean that all peer-reviewed literature is of high quality nor that non-peered reviewed literature is necessarily inferior to peer-reviewed literature, but it does mean that non-peered reviewed literature does not need to undergo any review process to appear. Indeed, at times studies appear in non-peer reviewed outlets precisely because they did not meet the bar of quality necessary to appear in the peer-reviewed literature. Thus, non-peer reviewed literature needs to be scrutinized with this in mind. Four such non-peer-reviewed reports are described below. In addition to those four, a few early reports of annoyance from wind turbines generally found a weak relationship between annoyance and the equivalent A-weighted SPL, although those studies were mainly based on studies of smaller turbines of less than 500 kW (T. H. Pedersen & Nielsen, 1994; Rand & Clarke, 1990; Wolsink et al., 1993).

Project WINDFARMperception: Visual and acoustic impact of wind turbine farms on residents (van den Berg et al., 2008). This report describes the study upon which the Dutch paper summarized above (E. Pedersen et al., 2009) is based. The characteristics of the wind turbines are thus as described above. In addition to the data that appeared in the peer-reviewed literature, this report describes analyses of additional data that was collected. These additional data relate to health effects and turbine noise exposure. The questionnaire assessed stress levels with the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ), a validated scale that has been widely used in such studies and which assesses symptoms felt over the past several weeks. In models adjusted for age, economic benefit from the turbines, and sex, there was no association between sound levels and stress. In contrast, there was a significant association between sound levels and interrupted sleep (at least once a month), even when further adjusting for background noise levels. This was most obvious at turbine noise levels >45 dB(A), but there appeared to be an increasing trend in occurrence of interrupted sleep with increasing noise categories even across the lower noise categories. This study also asked participants about chronic health conditions including diabetes, high blood pressure, tinnitus, hearing impairment, cardiovascular disease, and migraine. Although no associations were seen between wind turbine noise and these outcomes in adjusted analyses, the chronic nature of these outcomes and the lack of data on timing of onset with respect to when the wind turbines were introduced make interpreting these negative findings difficult.

Report to the commission related to Moturimu wind farm, New Zealand (Phipps, 2007). This report to a commission in New Zealand related to the Moturimu wind farm describes a survey conducted by Robyn Phipps to investigate the visual and acoustical effects experienced by residents living at least 2 km from existing wind farms in the Manawatu and Tararua regions of New Zealand. Most respondents were within 3 km, although a few lived further away, as far as 15 km. The characteristics and number of wind turbines was not provided. Although this work does not appear to have come out in the peer-reviewed literature, reasonable details about the methodology are provided.

Roughly 1,100 surveys were delivered to postal addresses and 614 (56%) were returned. Participants were asked to rate on a scale of 1–5 their agreement with different statements related to their perceptions of the wind turbines. When these questions dealt with visual issues, they were framed both positively and negatively (e.g., “I think the turbines spoil the view,” and “I think the turbines are quite attractive”). This apparently was not the case with other questions (e.g., “Watching the turbines can create an unpleasant physical sensation in my body”).

Overall, 9% of respondents endorsed being “affected” by the flicker of the wind turbines; 15% were sufficiently bothered by the visual and noise effects of the turbines to consider complaining, and 10% actually had complained. While 56% is a relatively good response rate for a mailed survey, the reasons for non-response of nearly half of potential participants must be considered. It is possible that non-respondents did not care enough about the effects of the wind turbines to bother responding, which presumably would lower the overall percentages that were “affected” by the turbines. On the other hand, it is not clear how long the turbines were in operation prior to the survey, and it is conceivable that some more affected people may have moved out of the area before the time of the survey.

A further drawback to the reported survey was that there was not a determination of how the percentage of "affected" respondents related to distance from the turbines, the ability to see the turbines, or noise levels experienced from the turbines. The report cites a lot of literature on noise and health effects, and while such effects have been reported in the literature, they are almost uniformly at sound levels above what is usually found for people living near turbines (and most certainly higher than those usually reported for people living more than 2 km from a turbine). A WHO report provides a good review of this literature (WHO, 2009). The lowest threshold levels for seeing any effect are about 35 dB(A) (maximum per event or L_{Amax}) for some physiological sleep responses (e.g., EEG, or duration of sleep stages), but these thresholds are for levels inside the house near the sleeper, which will be much lower than what is experienced outside the house. The lowest threshold level for complaints of well-being were estimated at 35 dB(A) as a yearly average outside the house at night ($L_{night, outside}$). But for health outcomes the thresholds for any effect are much higher, for example 50 dB(A) ($L_{night, outside}$) for hypertension or myocardial infarction.

"Wind Turbine Syndrome" (Pierpont, 2009): This book describes several people who suffer health symptoms that they attribute to wind turbines. Such descriptions can be informative in describing phenomena and raising suggestions for possible follow-up with more rigorous study designs, but generally are not considered evidence for causality. In this particular case, though, there are elements that go beyond the most basic symptom descriptions and so warrant consideration as a study. But limitations to the design employed make it impossible for this work to contribute any evidence to the question of whether there is a causal association between wind turbine exposure and health effects. Given this, the very term "Wind Turbine Syndrome" is misleading as it implies a causal role for wind turbines in the described health symptoms.

The book describes health symptoms experienced among 38 people from 10 different families who lived near wind turbines and subsequently either moved away from the turbines or spent significant periods of time away. The participants ranged in age from less than 1 to 75 years old, with 13 (34%) younger than 16 years and 17 (45%) younger than 22. The participants were queried about their health symptoms before exposure to turbines (presumably before the turbines were operational), during exposure to turbines, and after moving away. There is an impressive detailed description of the extent and severity of health symptoms experienced by this group, with a core group of symptoms centered around vibratory responses and termed Visceral Vibratory Vestibular Disturbance (VVVD) by Pierpont. While these symptoms for the most part are attributed to exposure to the wind turbines by the participants—either because they appeared once the turbines were operational or because they seemed to diminish after going away from the turbines—the way in which these participants were recruited makes it impossible to draw any conclusions about attributing causality to the turbines.

The most critical problem with respect to inferring causality from Pierpont's findings lies in how the families were identified for participation. To be included in the study, among other criteria, at least one family member had to have severe symptoms *and* reside near a recently erected wind turbine. In epidemiological terms this is selecting participants based on both exposure and outcome, which guarantees a biased (non-causal) association between wind turbines and symptoms. While it could be argued that other family members may not have had severe symptoms—and so would not be selected based on outcome—it is hard to consider other family members as truly independent observations, as their reporting of symptoms, or indeed their experiencing of symptoms, could be influenced by the more severely affected family member. This is particularly so when the symptoms are in the realm of anxiety, sleep disturbance, memory, and concentration; and the severely affected family members are reporting increased irritability, anger, and shouting.

Although not always, several of the participants reported an improvement of symptoms after moving away from the wind turbines. While this is suggestive and should not be discounted as something to explore further, the highly selective nature of the interviewed group as a whole makes the evidence for causality from these data *per se* weak. There are also many factors that change when moving, making it difficult to attribute changes to any specific difference with certainty. Additional factors that contribute to the inability to infer causality from these data include the small sample size, lack of detail on the larger population that could have been considered for inclusion in the study, and lack of detail on precisely how the actual participants were recruited. In addition, while the clinical history was extensive, the symptom data were all self-reported. Another complication is that there are no precise data on distance to turbines, and noise levels or infrasound vibration levels at the participants' homes.

"Adverse health effects of industrial wind turbines: a preliminary report" (Nissenbaum et al., 2011): This report describes a study involving questionnaire assessment of mental and physical health (SF-36), sleep disturbance (Pittsburgh Sleep Quality Index), and sleepiness (Epworth Sleepiness Scale) among residents near one of two wind farms in Maine (Vinalhaven & Mars Hill). The Mars Hill site is a linear arrangement of 28 General Electric 1.5 MW turbines, sited on a ridgeline. The Vinalhaven site is a cluster of three similar turbines, sited on a flat, tree-covered island. All residents within 1.5 km of one of the turbines were identified, and all those older than 18 years and non-demented were considered eligible for the study. A set of households from an area of similar socioeconomic makeup but 3–7 km from wind turbines were also recruited. The recruitment process involved house-to-house visits up to three times to recruit participants. Among those within at most 1.5 km from the nearest turbine, 65 adults were identified and 38 (58%; 22 male, 16 female) participated from 23 unique households. Among those 3-7 km from the nearest turbine, houses were visited until a similar number of participants were recruited. This process successfully recruited 41 adults (18 male, 23 female) from 33 unique households. No information was given on the number of homes or people approached so the participation rate cannot be determined.

Analyses adjusted for age, sex, and site (the two different wind farms) found that those living within 1.5 km of a wind turbine had worse sleep quality and mental health scores and higher ratings of sleepiness than those living 3–7 km from a turbine. Physical health scores did not differ between the groups. Similar associations were found when distance to the nearest turbine was analyzed as a continuous variable.

This study is somewhat limited by its size—much smaller than the Swedish or Dutch studies described above—but nonetheless suggests relevant potential health impacts of living near wind turbines. There are, however, critical details left out of the report that make it difficult to fully assess the strength of this evidence. In particular, critical details of the group living 3–7 km from wind turbines is left out. It is stated that the area is of similar socioeconomic makeup, and while this may be the case, no data to back this up are presented—either on an area level or on an individual participant level. In addition, while the selection process for these participants is described as random, the process of recruiting these participants by going home to home until a certain number of participants are reached is not random. Given this, details of how homes were identified, how many homes/people were approached, and differences between those who did and did not participate are important to know. Without this, attributing any of the observed associations to the wind turbines (either noise from them or the sight of them) is premature.

3.3.e Summary of Epidemiological Data

There is only a limited literature of epidemiological studies on health effects of wind turbines. Furthermore, existing studies are limited by their cross sectional design, self-reported symptoms, limited ability to control for other factors, and to varying degrees of non-response rates. The study that accounted most extensively for other factors that could affect reported symptoms had a very low response rate (E. Pedersen et al., 2009; van den Berg, et al., 2008).

All four peer-reviewed papers discussed above suggested an association between increasing sound levels from wind turbines and increasing annoyance. Such an association was also suggested by two of the non-peer reviewed reports that met at least basic criteria to be considered studies. The only two papers to consider the influence of seeing a wind turbine (each one of the peer-reviewed papers) both found a strong association between seeing a turbine and annoyance. Furthermore, in the studies with available data, the influence of either sound from a turbine or seeing a turbine was reduced—if not eliminated, as was the case for sound in one study—when both of these factors were considered together. However, this precise relation cannot be disentangled from the existing literature because the published analyses do not properly account for both seeing and hearing wind turbines given the relation between these two that the data seem to suggest. Specifically, the possibility that there may be an association between either of those factors and annoyance, but possibly only for those who both see and hear sound from a turbine, and not for those who either do not hear sound from or do not see a turbine. Furthermore, in the one study to consider whether individuals benefit economically from the turbines in question, there appeared to be virtually no annoyance regardless of whether those people could see or hear a turbine. Even if one considers the data just for those who could see a wind turbine and did not benefit economically from the turbines, defining at what noise levels the percentage of those annoyed becomes more dramatic is difficult. Higher percentages of annoyance did appear to be more consistent above 40 dB(A). Roughly 27% were annoyed (at least 4 on a 1–5 point scale of annoyance; 5 being the worst), while roughly 18% were very annoyed (5 on a 1–5 scale). The equivalent levels of annoyed and very annoyed for 35–40 dB(A) were roughly 15% and 6%, respectively. These percentages, however, should be considered upper bounds for a specific relation with noise levels because, with respect to estimating direct effects of noise, they are likely inflated as a result of both selective participation in the studies and the fact that the percentages do not take into account the effect of seeing a turbine.

Thus, in considering simply exposure to wind turbines in general, while all seem to suggest an association with annoyance, because even the peer-reviewed papers have weaknesses, including the cross sectional designs and sometimes quite low response rates, **the Panel concludes that there is limited evidence suggesting an association between exposure to wind turbines and annoyance**. However, only two of the studies considered both seeing and hearing wind turbines, and even in these the possible contributions of seeing and hearing a wind turbine were not properly disentangled. Therefore, **the Panel concludes that there is insufficient evidence to determine whether there is an association between noise from wind turbines and annoyance independent from the effects of seeing a wind turbine and vice versa**. Even these conclusions must be considered in light of the possibility suggested from one of the peer-reviewed studies that there is extremely low annoyance—regardless of seeing or hearing sound from a wind turbine—among people who benefit economically from the turbines.

There was also the suggestion that poorer sleep was related to wind turbine noise levels. While it intuitively makes sense that more noise would lead to more sleep disruption, there is limited data to inform whether this is occurring at the noise levels produced from wind turbines. An association was indicated in the New Zealand study, suggested without presenting details in one of the Swedish studies, and found in two non-peer-reviewed studies. Therefore, **the Panel concludes that there is limited evidence suggesting an association between noise from wind turbines and sleep disruption and that further study would quantify precise sound levels from wind turbines that disrupt sleep**.

The strongest epidemiological study to examine the association between noise and psychological health suggests there is not an association between noise from wind turbines and measures of psychological distress or mental health problems. There were two smaller, weaker, studies: one did note an association, one did not. Therefore, **the Panel concludes the weight of the evidence suggests no association between noise from wind turbines and measures of psychological distress or mental health problems.**

One Swedish study apparently collected data on headache, undue tiredness, pain and stiffness in the back, neck, or shoulders, or feeling tensed/stressed and irritable, but did not report on analyses of these data. The Dutch study found no association between noise from wind turbines and diabetes, high blood pressure, tinnitus, hearing impairment, cardiovascular disease, and migraine, although this was not reported in the peer-reviewed literature. Therefore, **the Panel concludes that none of the limited epidemiological evidence reviewed suggests an association between noise from wind turbines and pain and stiffness, diabetes, high blood pressure, tinnitus, hearing impairment, cardiovascular disease, and headache/migraine.**

These conclusions align with those presented in the peer-reviewed article by Knopper and Ollson (2011). They write "Conclusions of the peer reviewed literature differ in some ways from those in the popular literature. In peer reviewed studies, wind turbine annoyance has been statistically associated with wind turbine noise, but found to be more strongly related to visual impact, attitude to wind turbines and sensitivity to noise. … it is acknowledged that noise from wind turbines can be annoying to some and associated with some reported health effects (e.g., sleep disturbance), especially when found at sound pressure levels greater than 40 db(A)."

3.4 Exposures from Wind Turbines: Noise, Vibration, Shadow Flicker, and Ice Throw

In addition to the human epidemiologic study literature on exposure to wind turbines and health effects described in the section above, the Panel assessed literature that could shed light on specific exposures resulting from wind turbines and possible health effects. The exposures covered here include noise and vibration, shadow flicker, and ice throw. Each of these exposures is addressed separately in light of their documented and potential health effects. When health effects are described in the popular media, these claims are discussed.

3.4.a Potential Health Effects Associated with Noise and Vibration

The epidemiologic studies discussed above point to noise from wind turbines as a source of annoyance. The studies also noted that some respondents note sleep disruption due to the turbine noise. In this section, the characteristics of audible and inaudible noise from turbines are discussed in light of our understanding of their impacts on human health.

It is clear that when sound levels get too high, the sound can cause hearing loss (Concha-Barrientos et al., 2004). These sound levels, however, are outside the range of what one would experience from a wind turbine. There is evidence that levels of audible noise below levels that cause hearing loss can have a variety of health effects or indicators. Detail about the evidence for such health effects have been well summarized in a WHO report that came to several relevant conclusions (WHO, 2009). First, there is sufficient evidence for biological effects of noise during sleep: increase in heart rate, arousals, sleep stage changes and awakening; second, there is limited evidence that noise at night causes hormone level changes and clinical conditions such as cardiovascular illness, depression, and other mental illness. What the WHO report also details is observable noise threshold levels for these potential effects. For such health effects, where data are sufficient to estimate a threshold level, that level is never below 40 dB(A)—as a yearly average—for noise outside (ambient noise) at night—and these estimates take into account sleeping with windows slightly open.

One difficulty with the WHO threshold estimate is that a yearly average can mask the particular quality of turbine noise that leads survey respondents to note annoyance or sleep disruption. For instance, the pulsatile nature of wind turbine noise has been shown to lead to respondents claiming annoyance at a lower averaged sound level than for road noise (E. Pederson, 2004). Yearly averaging of sound eliminates (or smooths) the fluctuations in the sound and ignores differences between day and night levels. Regulations may or may not take this into account.

Health conditions caused by intense vibration are documented in the literature. These are the types of exposures that result from jackhammers, vibrating hand tools, pneumatic tools, etc. In these cases, the vibration is called arm-body or whole-body vibration. Vibration can cause changes in tendons, muscles, bones and joints, and can affect the nervous system. Collectively, these effects are known as Hand-Arm Vibration Syndrome (HAVS). Guidelines and interventions are intended to protect workers from these vibration-induced effects (reviewed by European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2008; (NIOSH 1989). OSHA does not have standards concerning vibration exposure. The American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists (ACGIH) has developed Threshold Limit Values (TLVs) for vibration exposure to hand-held tools. The exposure limits are given as frequency-weighted acceleration (NIOSH, 1989).

3.4.a.i Impact of Noise from Wind Turbines on Sleep

The epidemiological studies indicate that noise and/or vibration from wind turbines has been noted as causing sleep disruption. In this section sleep and sleep disruption are discussed. In addition, suggestions are provided for more definitively evaluating the impact of wind turbines on sleep.

All sounds have the potential to disrupt sleep. Since wind turbines produce sounds, they might cause sleep disruption. A very loud wind turbine at close distance would likely disrupt sleep, particularly in vulnerable populations (such as those with insomnia or mood disorders, aging populations, or "light sleepers"), while a relatively quiet wind turbine would not be expected to disrupt even the lightest of sleepers, particularly if it were placed at considerable distance.

There is insufficient evidence to provide very specific information about how likely particular sound-pressure thresholds of wind turbines are at disrupting sleep. Physiologic studies of noises from wind turbines introduced to sleeping people would provide these specific levels. Borrowing existing data (e.g., Basner, 2011) and guidelines (e.g., WHO) about noises at night, beyond wind turbines, might help provide reasonable judgment about noise limits at night. But it would be optimal to have specific data about the particular influence that wind turbines have on sleep.

In this section we introduce broad concepts about sleep, the interaction of sleep and noises, and the potential for wind turbines to cause that disruption.

Sleep

Sleep is a naturally occurring state of altered consciousness and reduced physical activity that interacts with all aspects of our physiology and contributes daily to our health and well-being.

Measurements of sleep in people are typically performed with recordings that include electroencephalography (EEG). This can be performed in a laboratory or home, and for clinical or experimental purposes. Other physiological parameters are also commonly measured, including muscle movements, lung, and heart function.

While the precise amount of sleep that a person requires is not known, and likely varies across different people and different ages, there are numerous consequences of reduced sleep (i.e., sleep deprivation).

Deficiencies of sleep can take numerous forms, including the inability to initiate sleep; the inability to maintain sleep; abnormal composition of sleep itself, such as too little deep sleep (sometimes called slow-wave sleep, or stage N3); or frequent brief disruptions of sleep, called arousals. Sources of sleep deprivation can be voluntary (desirable or undesirable) or involuntary. Voluntary sources include staying awake late at night or awakening early. These can be for work or school, or while engaging in some personal activities during normal sleep times. Sleep deprivation can also be caused by myriad involuntary and undesired problems (including those internal to the body such as pain, anxiety, mood disorders) and frequent need to urinate, or by numerous sleep disorders (including insomnia, sleep apnea, circadian disorders, parasomnias, sleep-related movement disorders, etc), or simply by the lightening of sleep depth in normal aging. Finally, sleep deprivation can be caused by numerous external factors, such as noises or other sensory information in the sleeper's environment.

Sleep is conventionally categorized into rapid eye movement (REM) and non-REM sleep. Within the non-REM sleep are several stages of sleep ranging from light sleep to deep sleep. Beyond these traditional sleep categories, the EEG signal can be analyzed in a more detailed and sophisticated way, including looking at the frequency composition of the signals. This is important in sleep, as we now know that certain signatures in the brain waves (i.e., EEG) disclose information about who is vulnerable to noise-induced sleep disruption, and what moments within sleep are most vulnerable (Dang-Vu et al., 2010; McKinney et al., 2011).

Insomnia can be characterized by a person having difficulty falling asleep or staying asleep that is not better explained by another condition (such as pain or another sleep disorder) (see ICSD, 2nd Edition for details of the diagnostic criteria for insomnia). Approximately 25% of the general population experience occasional sleep deprivation or insomnia. Sleep deprivation is defined by reduced quantity or quality of sleep, and it can result in excessive daytime sleepiness as well as problems including those associated with mood and cognitive function (Roth et al., 2001; Rogers, 2007; Walker, 2008). As might be expected, the severity of the sleep deprivation has an impact on the level of cognitive functioning, and real-life consequences can include driving accidents, impulsive behaviors, errors in attention, and mood problems (Rogers, 2007; Killgore, 2010). Loss of sleep appears to be cumulative, meaning it adds up night after night. This can result in subtle impairments in reaction times, decision-making ability, attentional vigilance, and integration of information that is sometimes only apparent to the sleep-deprived individual after an accident or error occurs, and sometimes not perceived by the sleep-deprived person at all (Rogers, 2007; van Dongen 2003).

Sleep and Wind Turbines

Given the effects of sleep deprivation on health and well-being, including problems with mood and cognition, it is possible that cognitive and mood complaints and other medical or psychological issues associated with sleep loss can stem from living in immediate proximity to wind turbines, if the turbines disrupt sleep. Existing data, however, on the relationship between wind turbines and sleep are inadequate. Numerous factors determine whether a sound disrupts sleep. Broadly speaking, they are derived from factors about the sleeper and factors about the sound.

Case reports of subjective complaints about sleep, particularly those not critically and objectively appraised in the normal scientific manner, are the lowest level of evidence, not simply because they lack any objective measurements, but also because they lack the level of scrutiny considered satisfactory for making even crude claims about cause and effect. For instance, consider the case of a person who sleeps poorly at home (near a wind turbine), and sleeps better when on vacation (away from a wind turbine). One might conclude from this case that wind turbines cause sleep disruption for this person, and even generalize that information to other people. But there are numerous factors that might make it more likely that a person can sleep well on vacation, having nothing to do with the wind turbine. Furthermore, given the enormous prevalence of sleep disorders, such as insomnia, and the potentially larger prevalence of disorders that impinge on sleep, such as depression, it is crucial that these factors be taken into consideration when weighing the evidence pointing to a causal effect of wind turbines on sleep disruption for the general population. It is also important to obtain objective measurements of sleep, in addition to subjective complaints.

Subjective reports of sleeping well or sleeping poorly can be misleading or even inaccurate. People can underestimate or overestimate the quality of their sleep. Future studies should examine the acoustic properties of wind turbines when assessing the elements that might disrupt sleep. There are unique properties of the noises wind turbines make, and there are some acoustic properties in common with other noises (such as trucks or trains or airplanes). It is important to make these distinctions when assessing the effects of wind turbines on noise, by using data from other noises. Without this physiologic, objective information, the effects of wind turbines on sleep might be over- or underestimated.

It should be noted that not all sounds impair the ability to fall asleep or maintain sleep. To the contrary, people commonly use sound-masking techniques by introducing sounds in the environment that hinder the perception of undesirable noises. Colloquially, this is sometimes called “white noise,” and there are certain key acoustic properties to these kinds of sounds that make them more effective than other sounds. Different noises can affect people differently. The emotional valence that is ascribed by an individual to a particular sound can have a major influence on the ability to initiate or maintain sleep. Certain aspects of sounds are particularly alerting and therefore would be more likely to disrupt sleep at lower sound pressure levels. But among those that are not, there is a wide range of responses to these sounds, depending partly on the emotional valence ascribed to them. A noise, for instance, that is associated with a distressing object, is more likely to impede sleep onset.

Finally, characteristics of sleep physiology change across a given night of sleep—and across the life cycle of a person—and are different for different people, including the effects of noise on sleep (e.g., Dang-Vu et al., 2010; McKinney et al., 2011). And some people might initially have difficulty with noises at night, but habituate to them with repeated exposure (Basner, 2011).

In summary, **sleep is a complex biological state, important for health and well-being across a wide range of physiologic functions. To date, no study has adequately examined the influence of wind turbines on sleep.**

Future directions: The precise effects of noise-induced sleep disruption from wind turbines may benefit from further study that examines sound-pressure levels near the sleeper, while simultaneously measuring sleep physiology to determine responses of sleep to a variety of levels of noise produced by wind turbines. The purpose would be to understand the precise sound-pressure levels that are least likely to disturb sleep. It would also be helpful to examine whether sleepers might habituate to these noises, making the impact of a given sound less and less over time. Finally, it would be helpful to study these effects in susceptible populations, including those with insomnia or mood disorders or in aging populations, in addition to the general population.

Summary of Sleep Data

In summary, sleep is a complex biological state, important for health and well-being across a wide range of physiologic functions. **To date, no study has adequately examined the influence of wind turbines and their effects on sleep.**

3.4.b Shadow Flicker Considerations and Potential Health Effects

Shadow flicker is caused when changes in light intensity occur from rotating wind turbine blades that cast shadows (see Appendix B for more details on the physics of the phenomenon.) These shadows move on the ground and on buildings and structures and vary in terms of frequency rate and intensity. Shadow flicker is reported to be less of a problem in the United States than in Northern Europe due to higher latitudes and lower sun angles in Europe. Nonetheless, it can still be a considerable nuisance to individuals exposed to shadow flicker for considerable amounts of time per day or year in the United States as well. Shadow flicker can vary significantly by wind speed and duration, geographic location of the sunlight, and the distance from the turbine blades to any relevant structures or buildings. In general, shadow flicker branches out from the wind turbine in a declining butterfly wing characteristic geographic area with higher amounts of flicker being closer to the turbine and less flicker in the outer parts of the geographic area (New England Wind Energy Education Project (NEWEEP), 2011; Smedley et al., 2010). Shadow flicker is present up until approximately 1400 m, but the strongest flicker is up to 400 m from the turbine when it occurs (NEWEEP, 2011). In addition, shadow flicker usually occurs in the morning and evening close to sunrise and sunset when shadows are the longest. Furthermore, shadow flicker can fluctuate in different seasons of the year depending on the geographic location of the turbine such that some sites will only report flicker during the winter months while others will report it during summer months. Other factors that determine shadow flicker rates and intensity include objects in the landscape (i.e., trees and other existing shadows) and weather patterns. For instance, there is no shadow flicker on cloudy days without sun as compared with sunny days. Also, shadow flicker speed (shadows passing per second) increases with the rotor speed (NRC, 2007). In addition, when several turbines are located relatively close to one another there can be combined flicker from the different blades of the different turbines and conversely, if situated on different geographic areas around structures, shadow flicker can occur at different times of the day at the same site from the different turbines so pre-planning of siting location is very important (Harding et al., 2008). General consensus in Germany resulted in the guidance of 30 hours per year and 30 minutes per day (based on astronomical, clear sky calculations) as acceptable limits for shadow flicker from wind turbines (NRC, 2007). This is similar to the Denmark guidance of 10 hours per year based on actual conditions.

3.4.b.i Potential Health Effects of Flicker

Because some individuals are predisposed to have seizures when exposed to certain types of flashing lights, there has been concern that wind turbines had the potential to cause seizures in these vulnerable individuals. In fact, seizures caused by visual or photic stimuli are typically observed in people with certain types of epilepsy (Guerrini & Genton, 2004), particularly generalized epilepsy. While it is not precisely known how many people have photosensitivity that causes seizures, it appears to be approximately 5% of people with epilepsy, amounting to about 100,000 people in the United States. And many of these people will already be treated with antiepileptic medications thus reducing this risk further.

Fortunately, not all flashing light will elicit a seizure, even in untreated people with known photosensitivity. There are several key factors that likely need to simultaneously occur in order for the stimulus to induce a seizure, even among the fraction of people with photosensitive seizures. The frequency of the stimulus is important as is the stimulus area and pattern (See below) (http://www.epilepsyfoundation.org/aboutepilepsy/seizures/photosensitivity/gerba.cfm).

Frequencies above 10 Hz are more likely to cause epileptic seizures in vulnerable individuals, and seizures caused by photic stimulation are generally produced at frequencies ranging from greater than 5 Hz. However, shadow flicker frequencies from wind turbines are related to the rotor frequency and this usually results in 0.3–1.0 Hz, which is outside of the range of seizure thresholds according to the National Resource Council and the Epilepsy Foundation (NRC, 2007). In fact, studies performed by Harding et al. (2008) initially concluded that because light flicker can affect the entire retina, and even if the eyes are closed that intermittent light can get in the retina, suggested that 4 km would be a safe distance to avoid seizure risk based on shadow flicker (Harding et al., 2008). However, a follow-up analysis considering different meteorological conditions and shadow flicker rates concluded that there appeared to be no risk for seizures unless a vulnerable individual was closer than 1.2 times the total turbine height on land and 2.8 times the total turbine height in the water, which could potentially result in frequencies of greater than 5 Hz (Smedley et al., 2010).

Although some individuals have complained of additional health complaints including migraines, nausea, dizziness, or disorientation from shadow flicker, only one government-sponsored study from Germany (Pohl et al., 1999) was identified for review. This German study was performed by the Institute of Psychology, Christian-Albrechts-University Kiel on behalf of the Federal Ministry of Economics and Technology (BMWi) and supported by the Office of Biology, Energy, and Environment of the Federal Ministry for Education and Research (BMBF), and on behalf of the State Environmental Agency of Schleswig. The purpose of this government-sponsored study was to determine whether periodic shadow with a duration of more than 30 minutes created significant stress-related health effects. The shadows were created by a projection system, which simulated the flicker from actual wind turbines.

Two groups of different aged individuals were studied. The first group consisted of 32 students (average age 23 years). The second group included 25 professionals (average age 47 years). Both men and women were included. The subjects were each randomly assigned to one of two experimental groups, so there was a control group and an experimental group. The experimental group was exposed to 60 minutes of simulated flicker. For the control group lighting conditions were the same as in the experimental group, but without periodic shadow. The main part of the study consisted of a series of six test and measurement phases, two before the light was turned on, three each at intervals of 20 minutes while the simulated shadow flickering was taking place, and one more after the flicker light was turned off. Among the variables measured were general performance indicators of stress (arithmetic, visual search tasks) and those of mental and physical well-being, cognitive processing, and stress in the autonomic nervous system (heart rate, blood pressure, skin conductance, and finger temperature). Systematic effects due to the simulated flicker could be detected in comparable ways in both exposure groups studied. Both physical and cognitive effects were found in this exposure scenario for shadow flicker.

It appears clear that shadow flicker can be a significant annoyance or nuisance to some individuals, particularly if they are wind project non-participants (people who do not benefit economically or receive electricity from the turbine) whose land abuts the property where the turbine is located. In addition, flashing (a phenomenon closely related to shadow flicker, but due to the reflection of sunlight – see Appendix B) can be a problem if turbines are sited too close to highways or other roadways. This could cause dangerous conditions for drivers. Accordingly, turbine siting near highways should be planned so as to reduce flashing as much as possible to protect drivers. However, use of low reflective turbine blades is commonly employed to reduce this potential flashing problem. Provisions to avoid many of these potential health and annoyance problems appear to be employed as current practice in many pre-planning sites with the use of computer programs such as WindPro. These programs can accurately determine shadow flicker rates based on input of accurate analysis area, planned turbine location, the turbine design (height, length, hub height, rotor diameter, and blade width), and residence or roadway locations. Many of these computer programs can then create maps indicating the location and incidence of shadow flicker. Such programs may also provide estimates of daily minutes and hours per year of expected shadow flicker that can then be used for wind turbine planning and siting or for mitigation efforts. Several states require these analyses to be performed before any new turbine projects can be implemented.

3.4.b.ii Summary of Impacts of Flicker

Collectively, although shadow flicker can be a considerable nuisance particularly to wind turbine project non-participants, the evidence suggests that there is no risk of seizure from shadow flicker caused by wind turbines. In addition, there is limited evidence primarily from a German government-sponsored study (Pohl et al., 1999) that prolonged shadow flicker (more than 30 minutes) can result in transient stress-related effects on cognition (concentration, attention) and autonomic nervous system functioning (heart rate, blood pressure). There was insufficient documentation to evaluate other than anecdotal reports of additional health effects including migraines or nausea, dizziness or disorientation. There are documented mitigation methods for addressing shadow flicker from wind turbines and these methods are presented in Appendix B.

3.4.c Ice Throw and its Potential Health Effects

Under certain weather conditions ice may form on the surface of wind turbine blades. Normally, wind turbines intended for use in locations where ice may form are designed to shut down when there is a significant amount of ice on the blades. The means to prevent operation when ice is present may include ice sensor and vibration sensors. Ice sensors are used on most wind turbines in cold climates. Vibration sensors are used on nearly all wind turbines. They would cause the turbine to shut down, for example, if ice buildup on the blades resulted in an imbalance of the rotor and hence detectable vibrations in the structure.

Ice built up on blades normally falls off while the turbine is stationary. If that occurs during high winds, the ice could be blown by the wind some distance from the tower. In addition, it is conceivable that ice could be thrown from a moving wind turbine blade under some circumstances, although that would most likely occur only during startup (while the rotational speed is still relatively low) or as a result of the failure of the control system. It is therefore worth considering the maximum plausible distance that a piece of ice could land from the turbine under two “worst case” circumstances: 1) ice falls from a stopped turbine during very high winds, and 2) ice is suddenly released from a blade when the rotor is rotating at its normal operating speed.

Ice is a physical hazard, that depending on the mass, velocity, and the angle of throw can result in a wide range of effects to humans: alarm and surprise to abrasions, organ damage, concussions, and perhaps death. Avoidance of ice throw is critical. More detail on ice throw and options for mitigation are presented in Appendix C.

3.5 Effects of Noise and Vibration in Animal Models

Domestic animals such as cats and dogs can serve as sentinels of problematic environmental conditions. The Panel searched for literature that might point to non-laboratory animal studies or well-documented cases of animals impacted by wind turbines. Anecdotal reports in the press of goat deaths (UK), premature births and adverse effects in cows (Japan, US) provide circumstantial evidence, but lack specifics regarding background rates of illness or extent of impact.

Laboratory-based animal models are often used to predict and to develop mechanistic explanations of the causes of disease by external factors, such as noise or chemicals in humans. In the absence of robust epidemiological data, animal models can provide clues to complex biological responses. However, the limitations of relying on animal models are well documented, particularly for endpoints that involve the brain. The benefits of using an animal model include ease of experimental manipulation such as multiple exposures, typically well-controlled experimental conditions, and genetically identical groups of animals.

Evaluation of biological plausibility for the multitude of reported health effects of wind turbines requires a suitable animal model documented with data that demonstrate cause and effect. Review of this literature began with a PubMed and ToxNet search for “wind turbine” or “wind turbines”; or “infrasound” or “low frequency noise”; and “animal” or “mammal” to identify peer-reviewed studies in which laboratory animals were exposed to noise or vibration intended to mimic that of wind turbines. Titles and abstracts of identified papers were read to make a first pass determination of whether the paper was a study on effects in mammals or might contain relevant references to other relevant studies. The searches yielded several studies, many of which were not peer-reviewed, were not whole-animal mammalian or were not experimental, but were reviews in which animal studies were mentioned or experiments conducted in dissected cochlea. The literature review yielded eight peer-reviewed studies, all relying on the laboratory rat as the model. The studies fall into two groups—those conducted in the 1970's and early 1980's and those conducted in 2007–2010. The most recent studies are conducted in China and are funded by the National Natural Science Foundation of China. Table AG.1 (in Appendix G) provides a summary of the studies.

There is no general agreement about the specific biological activity of infrasound on rodents, although at high doses it appears to negatively affect the cardiovascular, brain, and respiratory systems (Sienkiewicz, 2007). Early studies lacked the ability to document the doses of infrasound given the rats, did not report general pathologies associated with the exposures and lacked suitable controls. Since then, researchers have focused on the brain and cardiac systems as sensitive targets of infrasound. Experimental conditions in these studies lack a documented rationale for the selection and the use of infrasound of 5-15 Hz at 130 dB. While this appears to be standard practice, the relevance of these frequencies and pressures is unclear—both to the rat and more importantly to the human. The exposures are acute—short-term, high dose. Researchers do not document rat behaviors (including startle responses), pathologies, frank toxicities, and outcomes due to these exposures. Therefore, interpretation of all of the animal model data for infrasound outcomes must be with the lens of any high-dose, short-term exposure in toxicology, specifically questioning whether the observations are readily translatable to low-dose, chronic exposures.

Pei et al., (2007 and 2009) examine changes in cardiac ultrastructure and function in adult male Sprague-Dawley rats exposed to 5 Hz at 130 dB for 2 hours for 1, 7, or 14 successive days. Cardiomyocytes were enzymatically isolated from the adult left ventricular hearts after sacrifice. Whole cell patch-clamp techniques were employed to measure whole cell L-Type Ca^{2+} currents. The objective of these studies was to determine whether there was a cumulative effect of insult as measured by influx of calcium into cardiomyocytes. After infrasound exposure, rats in the 7– and 14–day exposure groups demonstrated statistically significant changes in intracellular Ca^{2+} homeostasis in cardiomyocytes as demonstrated by electrochemical stimulation of the cells, molecular identification of specific heart-protein levels, and calcium transport measurements.

Several studies examine the effects of infrasound on behavioral performance in rats. The first of these studies was conducted under primitive acoustic conditions compared with those of today (Petounis et al., 1977). In this study the researchers examined the behavior of adult female rats (undisclosed strain) exposed to increasing infrasound (2 Hz, 104 dB; 7 Hz, 122 dB; and 16

Hz, 124 dB) for increasing time (5-minute increments for up to 120 minutes). Decreased activity levels (sleeping more) and exploratory behavior were documented as dose and duration of exposure increased. The authors fail to mention that frank toxicity including pain is associated with these behaviors, raising the question of relevance of high dose exposures. In response to this and similar studies that identify increase in sleep, increase in avoidance behaviors and suppression of locomotor activity, Spyraki et al., (1977) hypothesized that these responses are mediated by norepinephrine levels in the brain and as such, exposed adult male Wistar rats to increasing doses of infrasound for one hour. Using homogenized brain tissue, norepinephrine concentrations were measured using fluorometric methods. Researchers demonstrated a dose-dependent decrease in norepinephrine levels in brain tissue from infrasound-treated rats, beginning at a dose of 7 Hz and 122 dB for one hour. No observations of frank toxicity were recorded. Liu et al., (2010) hypothesized that since infrasound could affect the brain, it potentially could increase cell proliferation (neurogenesis) in the dentate gyrus of the rat hippocampus, specifically a region that continues to generate new neurons in the adult male Sprague-Dawley rat. Using a slightly longer exposure period of 2 hours/day for 7 days at 16 Hz and 130 dB, the data suggest that infrasound exposure inhibits cell proliferation in the dentate gyrus, yet has no affect on early migration and differentiation. This study lacks suitable positive and negative controls that allow these conclusions to be drawn.

Several unpublished or non-peer reviewed studies reported behavioral responses as relevant endpoints of infrasound exposure. These data are not discussed, yet are the basis for several recent studies. In one more recent peer-reviewed behavioral rat study, adult male Wistar rats were classified as “superior endurance” and those as “inferior endurance” using the Rota-rod Treadmill (Yamamura et al., 1990). A range of frequencies and pressures were used to expose the rats for 60—150 minutes. Comparison of the pre-exposure endurance time on the Rota-Rod Treadmill with endurance after exposure to infrasound showed that the endurance time of the superior group after exposure to 16 Hz, 105 dB was not reduced. The endurance of the inferior group was reduced by exposure to 16 Hz, 105 dB after 10 minutes, to 16 Hz, 95 dB after 70 minutes, and to 16 Hz, 85 dB after 150 minutes. Of most relevance is the identification of a subset of rats that may be more responsive to infrasound due to their genetic makeup. There has been no follow-up regarding intra-strain susceptibility since this study.

More recent studies have focused on the mechanisms by which infrasound may disrupt normal brain function. As stated above, the infrasound exposures are acute—short-term, high dose. At the very least, researchers should document rat behaviors, pathologies, frank toxicities, and outcomes due to these high dose exposures in addition to measuring specific subcellular effects.

Some of the biological stress literature suggests that microglial activation can occur with heightened stress, but it appears to be short-lived and transitory affecting the autonomic nervous system and neuroendocrine system, resulting in multiple reported effects. To investigate the effect of infrasound on hippocampus-dependent learning and memory, Yuan et al. (2009) measure cognitive abilities and activation of molecular signaling pathways in order to determine the role of the neuronal signaling transduction pathway, BDNF-TRkB, in infrasound-induced impairment of memory and learning in the rat. Adult male Sprague-Dawley rats were exposed to infrasound of 16 Hz and 130 dB for 2 hours daily for 14 days. The acoustic conditions appeared to be well monitored and documented. The Morris water maze was used to determine spatial learning and retention, and molecular techniques were used to measure cell proliferation and concentrations of signaling pathway proteins. Using these semi-quantitative methods, rats exposed to infrasound demonstrated impaired hippocampal-dependent spatial learning acquisition and retention performance in the maze scheme compared with unexposed control rats, demonstrable downregulation of the BDNF-TRkB pathway, and decreased BrdU-labeled cell proliferation in the dentatel gyrus.

In another study, Du et al. (2010) hypothesize that microglial cells may be responsible for infrasound-induced stress. To test this hypothesis, 60 adult male Sprague-Dawley rats were exposed in an infrasonic chamber to 16 Hz at 130 dB for 2 hours. Brains were removed and sectioned and the hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus (PVN) examined. Primary microglial cells were isolated from whole brains of neonatal rats and grown in culture before they were exposed to infrasound under the same conditions as the whole animals. Molecular methods were used to identify the presence and levels of proteins indicative of biological stress (corticotrophin-releasing hormone (CRH) and corticotrophin-releasing hormone receptor (CRH type 1 receptor) in areas of the brain that control the stress response. Specifically, studies were done to determine whether microglial cells are involved in infrasound-response, changes in microglial activation, and CRH-R1 expression in vivo in the PVN and in vitro at time points after the two-hour infrasound exposure. The data show that the exposures resulted in microglial activation, beginning at 0.5 hours post exposure, and up-regulation of CRH-R1 expression. The magnitude of the response increased significantly from the control to 6 hours post exposure, returning to control levels, generally by 24 hours post-exposure. This study is well controlled, and while it does rely on a specific antagonist for dissecting the relative involvement of the neurons and the microglial cells, the data suggest that infrasound as administered in this study to rats can activate microglial cells, suggesting a possible mechanism for infrasound-induced ”stress” or nuisance at a physical level (i.e., proinflammatory cytokines causing sickness response behaviors).

In summary, there are no studies in which laboratory animals are subjected to exposures that mimic wind turbines. There is insufficient evidence from laboratory animal studies of effects of low frequency noise on the respiratory system. There is limited evidence that rats are a robust model for human infrasound exposure and effects. The reader is referred to Appendix G for specific study conditions. In any case, the infrasound levels and exposure conditions to which the rodents are exposed are adequate to cause pain to the rodents. When exposed to these levels of infrasound, there is some evidence of reversible molecular effects including short-lived biochemical alterations in cardiac and brain cells, suggesting a possible mechanism for high-dose, infrasound-induced effects in rats.

3.6 Health Impact Claims Associated with Noise and Vibration Exposure

The popular media contain a large number of articles that claim the noise and vibration from wind turbines adversely affect human health. In this section the Panel examines the physical and biological basis for these assertions. Additionally, the scientific articles from which these assertions are made are examined in light of the methods used and their limitations.

Pierpont (2009) has been cited as offering evidence of the physical effects of ILFN, referring to “Wind Turbine Syndrome” and its impact on the vestibular system—by disturbed sensory input to eyes, inner ears, and stretch and pressure receptors in a variety of body locations. The basis for the syndrome relies on data from research carried out for reasons (e.g., space missions) other than assessment of wind turbines on health. Such research can be valuable to understanding new conditions, however, when the presentation of data is incomplete, it can lead to inaccurate conclusions. A few such cases are mentioned here:

Pierpont (2009) notes that von Dirke and Parker (1994) show that the abdominal area resonates between 4 and 6 Hz and that wind turbines can produce infrasound within this range (due to the blade rotation rate). However, the von Dirke paper states that our bodies have evolved to be tolerant of the 4–6 Hz abdominal motion range: this range coincides with jogging and running. The paper also reveals that motion sickness (which was the focus of the study) only occurred when the vibrations to which people were subjected were between 0.01 and 0.5 Hz. The study exposed people to vibration from positive to negative 1 G forces. Subjects were also rotated around various axes to achieve the vibration levels and frequencies of interest in the study. Interpretation of these data may allow one to conclude that while the abdominal area has a resonance in a region at which there is infrasound being emitted by wind turbines, there will be no impact. Further, the infrasound emitted by wind turbines in the range of frequencies at which subjects did note motion sickness is orders of magnitude less than the level that induced motion sickness (see Table 2). So while a connection is made, the evidence at this point is not sufficient to draw a conclusion that a person's abdominal area or stretch point can be excited by turbine infrasound. If it were, this might lead to symptoms of motion sickness.

Pierpont (2009) points to a study by Todd et al. (2008) as potential proof that the inner ear may be playing a role in creating the symptoms of "Wind Turbine Syndrome." Todd et al. (2008) show that the vestibular system shows a best frequency response around 100 Hz. This is a fact, but again it is unclear how it relates to low frequency noise from wind turbines. The best frequency response was assessed by moving subjects' heads (knocking the side of the head) in a very specific direction because the portion of the inner ear that is being discussed acts as a gravitational sensor or an accelerometer; therefore, it responds to motion. A physical mechanism by which the audible sound produced by a wind turbine at 100 Hz would couple to the human body in a way to create the necessary motion to which this portion of the inner ear would respond is unknown.

More recently, Salt and Hullar (2010) have looked for something physical about the ear that could be responding to infrasonic frequencies. They describe how the outer (OHC) and inner (IHC) hair cells of the cochlea respond to different types of stimuli: the IHC responding to velocity and OHC responding to displacement. They discuss how the OHC respond to lower frequencies than the IHC, and how the OHC acts as an amplifier for the IHC. They state that it is known that low frequencies present in a sound signal can mask the higher frequencies—presumably because the OHC is not amplifying the higher frequency correctly when the OHC is responding to low frequency disturbances. However, they emphatically state that "although vestibular hair cells are maximally sensitive to low frequencies they typically do not respond to airborne infrasound. Rather, they normally respond to mechanical inputs resulting from head movements and positional changes with their output controlling muscle reflexes to maintain posture and eye position." It is completely unknown how the very few neural paths from the OHC to the brain respond, if they do at all (95% of the connections are between the IHC and the brain). So at this moment, inner ear experts have not found a method for airborne infrasound to impact the inner ear. The potential exists such that the OHC respond to infrasound, but that the functional role of the connection between the OHC and the brain remains unknown. Further, the modulation of the sound received at the IHC itself has not been shown to cause nausea, headaches, or dizziness.

In the discussion of amplitude-modulated noise, it was already noted that wind turbines produce audible sound in the low frequency regime (20–200Hz). It has been shown that the sound levels in this range from some turbines are above the levels for which subjects in a Korean study have complained of psychological effects (Jung & Cheung, 2008). O'Neal (2011) also shows that the sound pressure level for frequencies between 30 and 200 Hz from two modern wind turbines at roughly 310 m are above the threshold of hearing but below the criterion for creating window rattle or other perceptible vibrations. The issue of vibration is discussed more in the next section. It is noted that the amplitude-modulated noise is most likely at the heart of annoyance complaints. In addition, amplitude-modulated noise may be a source of sleep disturbance noted by survey respondents. However, direct health impacts have not been demonstrated.

3.6.a Vibration

Vibroacoustics disease (VAD) has been identified as a potential health impact of wind turbines in the Pierpont book. Most of the literature around VAD is attributed to Branco and Alves-Pereira. Related citations attributed to Takahashi (2001), Hedge and Rasmussen (1982) though are also provided. These studies all required very clear coupling to large vibration sources such as jackhammers and heavy equipment. The latter references focus on high levels of low frequency vibrations and noise. In particular, Rasmussen studied the response of people to vibrating floors and chairs. The vibration displacements in the study were on the order of 0.01 cm (or 1000 times larger than the motion found 100 m from a wind farm in a seismic study (Styles et al., 2005). Takahashi used loud speakers placed 2 m from subjects' bodies, only testing audible frequencies 20–50 Hz, using pressure levels on the order of 100–110 dB (roughly 30 dB higher than any sound measured from a wind turbine in this frequency range) to induce vibrations at various points on the body. The Hedge source is not a study but a bulleted list of points that seem to go along with a lecture in an ergonomics class for which no citations are provided. Branco's work is slightly different in that she considered very long-term exposures to moderately intense vibration inputs. While there may be possible connection to wind turbines, at present, the connection is not substantiated given the very low levels of vibration and airborne ILFN that have been measured from wind turbines.

While vibroacoustic disease may not be substantiated, vibration levels that lead to annoyance or feelings of uneasiness may be more plausible. Evidence for these responses is discussed below.

Pierpont refers to a paper by Findeis and Peters (2004). This reference describes a situation in Germany where complaints of disturbing sound and vibration were investigated through the measurement of the vibration and acoustics within the dwelling, noting that people complained about vibrations that were not audible. The one figure provided in the text shows that people were disturbed by what was determined to be structure-borne sound that was radiated by walls and floors at levels equivalent to 65 dB at 10 Hz and 40 dB at 100 Hz. The 10 Hz level is just below audible. The level reported at 100 Hz, however, is just above the hearing threshold. The authors concluded that the disturbances were due to a component of the HVAC system that coupled directly to the building.

The Findeis and Peters (2004), report is reminiscent of papers related to investigations of "haunted" spaces (Tandy, 1998, 1999). In these studies room frequencies around 18 Hz were found. The studies hypothesized that apparitions were the result of eye vibrations (the eye is sensitive to 18 Hz) induced by the room vibration field. In one of these studies, a ceiling fan was found to be the source of the vibration. In the other, the source was not identified.

When the source was identified in the previously mentioned studies, there appears to be an obvious physical coupling mechanism. In other situations it has been estimated that airborne disturbances have influenced structures. A NASA report from 1982 gives a figure that estimates the necessary sound pressure level at various frequencies to force vibrations in windows, walls, and floors of typical buildings (Stephens, 1982). The figure on page 14 of that report shows infrasound levels of 70–80 dB can induce wall and floor vibrations. On page 39 the report also shows some floor vibration levels that were associated with a wind turbine. On the graph these were the lowest levels of vibration when compared to vibrations from aircraft noise and sonic booms. Another figure on page 43 shows vibrations and perception across the infrasonic frequency range. Again, wind turbine data are shown, and they are below the perception line.

A second technical report (Kelley, 1985) from that timeframe describes disturbances from the MOD-1 wind turbine in Boone, North Carolina. This was a downwind turbine mounted on a truss tower. Out of 1000 homes within about 2 km, 10 homes experienced room vibrations under certain wind conditions. A careful measurement campaign showed that indeed these few homes had room vibrations related to the impulsive noise unique to downwind turbines. The report contains several findings including the following: 1) the disturbances inside the homes were linked to the impulsive sound generated by the turbine (due to tower wake/blade interaction) and not seismic waves, 2) the impulsive signal was feeding energy into the vibrational modes of the rooms, floors, and walls where the floor/wall modes were the only modes in the infrasonic range, 3) people felt the disturbance more than they heard it, 4) peak vibration values were measured in the frequency range 10–20 Hz (floor/wall resonances) and it was deduced that the wall facing the turbine was being excited, 5) the fact that only 10 homes out of 1000 (scattered in various directions around the turbine) were affected was shown to be related to complicated sound propagation paths, and 6) while the shape of the impulse itself was given much attention and was shown to be a driving force in the coupling to the structural vibrations, comments were made in the report to the effect that nonimpulsive signals with energy at the right frequency could couple into the structure. The report describes a situation in Oregon where resonances in the flow through an exhaust stack of a gas-run turbine plant had an associated slow modulation of the sound leading to annoyance near the plant. Again it was found that structural modes in nearby homes were being excited but this time by an acoustic field that was not impulsive in nature. This is an important point because modern wind turbines do not create impulsive noise with strong content around 20 Hz like the downwind turbine in North Carolina. Instead, they generate amplitude-modulated sound around 1 kHz as well as broadband infrasound (van den Berg, 2004). The broadband infrasound that also existed for the North Carolina turbine was not shown to be responsible for the disturbances. As well, the amplitude-modulated noise that existed was not shown to be responsible for the disturbances. So, while there are comparisons made to the gas turbine power plant and to the HVAC system component where the impulsiveness of the sound was not the same, direct comment on the effect of modern turbines on the vibration of homes is not possible.

A recent paper by Bolin et al. (2011), surveys much of the low frequency literature pertinent to modern wind turbines and notes that all measurements of indoor and outdoor levels of sound simultaneously do not show the same amplification and ringing of frequencies associated with structural resonances similar to what was found in North Carolina. Instead the sound inside is normally less than the sound outside the structure. Bolin et al. (2011) note that measurements indicate that the indoor ILFN from wind turbines typically comply with national guidelines (such as the Danish guideline for 44 dB(A) outside a dwelling). However, this does not preclude a situation where levels would be found to be higher than the standards. They propose that further investigations of an individual dwelling should be conducted if the measured difference between C-weighted and A-weighted sound pressure level of outdoor exposure is greater than 15 dB. A similar criterion is noted in the non-peer reviewed report by Kamperman et al. (2008).

Related to room vibration is window rattle. This topic is described in the NASA reports, discussed above (Stephens, 1982) and discussed in the articles by Jung and Cheung (2008) and O'Neal (2011). In these articles it has been noted that window rattle is often induced by vibrations between 5 and 9 Hz, and measurements from wind turbines show that there can be enough energy in this range to induce window rattle. Whether the window rattle then generates its own sound field inside a room at an amplitude great enough to disturb the human body is unknown.

Seismic transmission of vibration at the North Carolina site was considered. In that study the seismic waves were ruled out as too low of amplitude to induce the room vibrations that were generated. Related are two sets of measurements that were taken near wind farms to assess the potential impact of seismic activity on extremely sensitive seismic measurement stations (Styles, 2005, Schofield, 2010). One study considered both waves traveling in the ground and the coupling of airborne infrasound to the ground, showing that the dominant source of seismic motion is the Rayleigh waves in the ground transmitted directly by the tower, and that the airborne infrasound is not playing a role in creating measurable seismic motion. The two reports indicate that at 100 meters from a wind turbine farm (>6 turbines) the maximum motion that is induced is 120 nanometers (at about 1 Hz). A nanometer is 10^{-9} m. So this is 1.2×10^{-7} m of ground displacement. Extremely sensitive measuring devices have been used to detect this slight motion. To put the motion in perspective, the diameter of a human hair is on the order of 10^{-6} m. These findings indicate that seismic motion induced from one or two turbines is so small that it would be difficult to induce any physical or structural response.

Hessler and Hessler, (2010) reviewed various state noise limits and discussed them in connection with wind turbines. The article contains a few comments related to low frequency noise. It is stated that, “a link between health complaints and turbine noise has only been asserted based on what is essentially anecdotal evidence without any valid epidemiological studies or scientific proof of any kind.” The article states that if a metric for low frequency noise is needed, then a limit of 65 dB(C) could be used. This proposed criterion is not flexible for use in different environments such as rural vs. city. In this sense, Bolin et als’ suggestion of checking for a difference between C-weighted and A-weighted sound pressure level of outdoor exposure greater than 15 dB is more appropriate. This value of 15 dB, was based on past complaints associated with combustion turbines. The Bolin article, however, also cautions that obtaining accurate low frequency measurements for wind turbines is difficult because of the presence of wind. Even sophisticated windscreens cannot eliminate the ambient low frequency wind noise.

Leventhal (2006) notes that when hearing and deaf subjects are tested simultaneously, the subjects’ chests would resonate with sounds in the range of 50–80 Hz. However, the amplitude of the sound had to be 40–50 dB higher than the human hearing threshold for the deaf subjects to report the chest vibration. This leads one to conclude that chest resonance in isolation should not be associated with inaudible sound. If a room is vibrating due to a structural resonance, such levels may be obtained. Again, this effect has never been measured associated with a modern wind turbine.

The stimulation of house resonances and self-reported ill-effects due to a modern wind turbine appear in a report by independent consultants that describes pressure measurements taken inside and outside of a home in Falmouth Massachusetts in the spring of 2011 (Ambrose & Rand, 2011). The measurements were taken at roughly 500 meters from a single 1.65 MW stall-regulated turbine when the wind speeds were relatively high: 20-30 m/s at hub height. The authors noted feeling ill when the dB(A) levels indoors were between 18 and 24 (with a corresponding dB(G) level of 51-64). They report that they felt effects both inside and outside but preferred to be outside where the dB(A) levels ranged from 41-46 (with corresponding dB(G) levels from 54-65.) This is curious because weighted measurements account for human response and the weighted values were higher outside. However, the actual dB(L) levels were higher inside.

The authors present some data indicating that the G-weighted value of the pressure signal is often greater than 60 dB(G), the averaged threshold value proposed by Salt and Hullar (2011) for OHC activation. However, the method used to obtain the data is not presented, and the time scale over which the data are presented (< 0.015 seconds or 66 Hz) is too short to properly capture the low frequency content.

The data analysis differed from the common standard of practice in an attempt to highlight weaknesses in the standard measurement approach associated with the capture of amplitude modulation and ILFN. This departure from the standard is a useful step in defining a measurement technique such as that called for in a report by HGC Engineering (HGC, 2010), that notes policy making entities should "consider adopting or endorsing a proven measurement procedure that could be used to quantify noise at infrasonic frequencies."

The measurements by Ambrose and Rand (2011) show a difference in A and C weighted outdoor sound levels of around 15 dB at the high wind speeds (which is Bolin et. al.'s recommended value for triggering further interior investigations). The simultaneous indoor and outdoor measurements indicate that at very low frequencies (2-6 Hz) the indoor pressure levels are greater than those outdoors. It is useful to note that the structural forcing at the blade-passage-frequency, the time delay and the subsequent ringing that was present in the Boone homes (Kelley, 1985) is not demonstrated by Ambrose and Rand (2011). This indicates that the structural coupling is not forced by the amplitude modulation and is due to a much subtler process. Importantly, while there is an amplification at these lower frequencies, the indoor levels (unweighted) are still far lower than any levels that have ever been shown to cause a physical response (including the activation of the OHC) in humans.

The measurements did reveal a 22.9 Hz tone that was amplitude modulated at approximately the blade passage frequency. The source of the tone was not identified, and no indication as to whether the tone varied with wind speed was provided, a useful step to help determine whether the tone is aerodynamically generated. The level of this tone is shown to be higher than the OHC activation threshold. The 22.9 Hz tone did not couple to the structure and showed the normal attenuation from outside to inside the structure. In order to determine if the results that show potential tonal activation of the OHC are generalizable, it is necessary to identify the source of this tone which could be unique to stall-regulated turbines or even unique to this specific brand of turbine.

Finally, the measurements shown in the report are atypical within the wind turbine measurement literature and the data analysis is not fully described. Also, the report offers no plausible coupling mechanism of the sound waves to the body beyond that proposed by Salt and Hullar (2011). Because of this, the results are suggestive but require corroboration of the measurements and scientifically based mechanisms for human health impact.

3.6.b Summary of Claimed Health Impacts

In this section, the potential health impacts due to noise and vibration from wind turbines was discussed. Both the infrasonic and low frequency noise ranges were considered. Assertions that infrasound and low frequency noise from turbines affect the vestibular system either through airborne coupling to humans are not empirically supported. In the multitude of citations given in the popular media as to methods in which the vestibular system is influenced, all refer to situations in which there is direct vibration coupling to the body or when the wave amplitudes are orders of magnitudes greater than those produced by wind turbines. Recent research has found one potential path in the auditory system, the OHC, in which infrasound might be sensed. There is no evidence, however, that when the OHC sense infrasound, it then leads to any of the symptoms reported by complainants. That the infrasound and low frequency noise couple to humans through the forcing of structural vibration is plausible but has not been demonstrated for modern wind turbines. In addition, should it be shown that such a coupling occurs, research indicates that the coupling would be transient and highly dependent on wind conditions and localized to very few homes surrounding a turbine.

Seismic activity near a turbine due to vibrations transmitted down the tower has been measured, and the levels are too low to produce vibrations in humans.

The audible noise from wind turbines, in particular the amplitude modulated trailing edge noise, does exist, changes level based on atmospheric conditions, can change character from swish to thump-based on atmospheric effects, and can be perceived from home to home differently based on propagation effects. This audible sound has been noted by complainants as a source of annoyance and a cause for sleep disruption. Some authors have proposed nighttime noise regulations and regulations based on shorter time averages (vs. annual averages) as a means to reduce annoyance from this noise source. Some have conjectured that the low frequency content of the amplitude-modulated noise is responsible for the annoyance. They have proposed that the difference between the measured outdoor A- and C- weighted sound pressure levels could be used to identify situations in which the low frequency content is playing a larger role. Further, they note that this difference might be used as part of a regulation as a means to reduce annoyance.

Chapter 4

Findings

Based on the detailed review of the scientific literature and other available reports and consideration of the strength of scientific evidence, the Panel presents findings relative to three factors associated with the operation of wind turbines: noise and vibration, shadow flicker, and ice throw. The findings that follow address specifics in each of these three areas.

4.1 Noise

4.1.a Production of Noise and Vibration by Wind Turbines

1. Wind turbines can produce unwanted sound (referred to as noise) during operation. The nature of the sound depends on the design of the wind turbine. Propagation of the sound is primarily a function of distance, but it can also be affected by the placement of the turbine, surrounding terrain, and atmospheric conditions.
    a. Upwind and downwind turbines have different sound characteristics, primarily due to the interaction of the blades with the zone of reduced wind speed behind the tower in the case of downwind turbines.
    b. Stall regulated and pitch controlled turbines exhibit differences in their dependence of noise generation on the wind speed
    c. Propagation of sound is affected by refraction of sound due to temperature gradients, reflection from hillsides, and atmospheric absorption. Propagation effects have been shown to lead to different experiences of noise by neighbors.
    d. The audible, amplitude-modulated noise from wind turbines ("whooshing") is perceived to increase in intensity at night (and sometimes becomes more of a "thumping") due to multiple effects: i) a stable atmosphere will have larger wind gradients, ii) a stable atmosphere may refract the sound downwards instead of upwards, iii) the ambient noise near the ground is lower both because of the stable atmosphere and because human generated noise is often lower at night.
2. The sound power level of a typical modern utility scale wind turbine is on the order of 103 dB(A), but can be somewhat higher or lower depending on the details of the design and the rated power of the turbine. The perceived sound decreases rapidly with the distance from the wind turbines. Typically, at distances larger than 400 m, sound

pressure levels for modern wind turbines are less than 40 dB(A), which is below the level associated with annoyance in the epidemiological studies reviewed.

3. Infrasound refers to vibrations with frequencies below 20 Hz. Infrasound at amplitudes over 100–110 dB can be heard and felt. Research has shown that vibrations below these amplitudes are not felt. The highest infrasound levels that have been measured near turbines and reported in the literature near turbines are under 90 dB at 5 Hz and lower at higher frequencies for locations as close as 100 m.
4. Infrasound from wind turbines is not related to nor does it cause a "continuous whooshing."
5. Pressure waves at any frequency (audible or infrasonic) can cause vibration in another structure or substance. In order for vibration to occur, the amplitude (height) of the wave has to be high enough, and only structures or substances that have the ability to receive the wave (resonant frequency) will vibrate.

4.1.b Health Impacts of Noise and Vibration

1. Most epidemiologic literature on human response to wind turbines relates to self-reported "annoyance," and this response appears to be a function of some combination of the sound itself, the sight of the turbine, and attitude towards the wind turbine project.
    a. There is limited epidemiologic evidence suggesting an association between exposure to wind turbines and annoyance.
    b. There is insufficient epidemiologic evidence to determine whether there is an association between noise from wind turbines and annoyance independent from the effects of seeing a wind turbine and vice versa.
2. There is limited evidence from epidemiologic studies suggesting an association between noise from wind turbines and sleep disruption. In other words, it is possible that noise from some wind turbines can cause sleep disruption.
3. A very loud wind turbine could cause disrupted sleep, particularly in vulnerable populations, at a certain distance, while a very quiet wind turbine would not likely disrupt even the lightest of sleepers at that same distance. But there is not enough evidence to

provide particular sound-pressure thresholds at which wind turbines cause sleep disruption. Further study would provide these levels.

4. Whether annoyance from wind turbines leads to sleep issues or stress has not been sufficiently quantified. While not based on evidence of wind turbines, there is evidence that sleep disruption can adversely affect mood, cognitive functioning, and overall sense of health and well-being.
5. There is insufficient evidence that the noise from wind turbines is *directly (i.e., independent from an effect on annoyance or sleep)* causing health problems or disease.
6. Claims that infrasound from wind turbines directly impacts the vestibular system have not been demonstrated scientifically. Available evidence shows that the infrasound levels near wind turbines cannot impact the vestibular system.
    a. The measured levels of infrasound produced by modern upwind wind turbines at distances as close as 68 m are well below that required for non-auditory perception (feeling of vibration in parts of the body, pressure in the chest, etc.).
    b. If infrasound couples into structures, then people inside the structure could feel a vibration. Such structural vibrations have been shown in other applications to lead to feelings of uneasiness and general annoyance. The measurements have shown no evidence of such coupling from modern upwind turbines.
    c. Seismic (ground-carried) measurements recorded near wind turbines and wind turbine farms are unlikely to couple into structures.
    d. A possible coupling mechanism between infrasound and the vestibular system (via the Outer Hair Cells (OHC) in the inner ear) has been proposed but is not yet fully understood or sufficiently explained. Levels of infrasound near wind turbines have been shown to be high enough to be sensed by the OHC. However, evidence does not exist to demonstrate the influence of wind turbine-generated infrasound on vestibular-mediated effects in the brain.
    e. Limited evidence from rodent (rat) laboratory studies identifies short-lived biochemical alterations in cardiac and brain cells in response to short exposures to emissions at 16 Hz and 130 dB. These levels exceed measured infrasound levels from modern turbines by over 35 dB.

7. There is no evidence for a set of health effects, from exposure to wind turbines, that could be characterized as a "Wind Turbine Syndrome."
8. The strongest epidemiological study suggests that there is not an association between noise from wind turbines and measures of psychological distress or mental health problems. There were two smaller, weaker, studies: one did note an association, one did not. Therefore, we conclude the weight of the evidence suggests no association between noise from wind turbines and measures of psychological distress or mental health problems.
9. None of the limited epidemiological evidence reviewed suggests an association between noise from wind turbines and pain and stiffness, diabetes, high blood pressure, tinnitus, hearing impairment, cardiovascular disease, and headache/migraine.

4.2 Shadow Flicker

4.2.a Production of Shadow Flicker

Shadow flicker results from the passage of the blades of a rotating wind turbine between the sun and the observer.

1. The occurrence of shadow flicker depends on the location of the observer relative to the turbine and the time of day and year.
2. Frequencies of shadow flicker elicited from turbines is proportional to the rotational speed of the rotor times the number of blades and is generally between 0.5 and 1.1 Hz for typical larger turbines.
3. Shadow flicker is only present at distances of less than 1400 m from the turbine.

4.2.b Health Impacts of Shadow Flicker

1. Scientific evidence suggests that shadow flicker does not pose a risk for eliciting seizures as a result of photic stimulation.
2. There is limited scientific evidence of an association between annoyance from prolonged shadow flicker (exceeding 30 minutes per day) and potential transitory cognitive and physical health effects.

4.3 Ice Throw

4.3.a Production of Ice Throw

Ice can fall or be thrown from a wind turbine during or after an event when ice forms or accumulates on the blades.

1. The distance that a piece of ice may travel from the turbine is a function of the wind speed, the operating conditions, and the shape of the ice.
2. In most cases, ice falls within a distance from the turbine equal to the tower height, and in any case, very seldom does the distance exceed twice the total height of the turbine (tower height plus blade length).

4.3.b Health Impacts of Ice Throw

1. There is sufficient evidence that falling ice is physically harmful and measures should be taken to ensure that the public is not likely to encounter such ice.

4.4 Other Considerations

In addition to the specific findings stated above for noise and vibration, shadow flicker and ice throw, the Panel concludes the following:

1. Effective public participation in and direct benefits from wind energy projects (such as receiving electricity from the neighboring wind turbines) have been shown to result in less annoyance in general and better public acceptance overall.

Chapter 5

Best Practices Regarding Human Health Effects Of Wind Turbines

Broadly speaking, the term “best practice” refers to policies, guidelines, or recommendations that have been developed for a specific situation. Implicit in the term is that the practice is based on the best information available at the time of its institution. A best practice may be refined as more information and studies become available. The panel recognizes that in countries which are dependent on wind energy and are protective of public health, best practices have been developed and adopted.

In some cases, the weight of evidence for a specific practice is stronger than it is in other cases. Accordingly, best practice* may be categorized in terms of the evidence available, as shown in Table 3:

Table 3

Descriptions of Three Best Practice Categories

Category	Name	Description
1	Research Validated Best Practice	A program, activity, or strategy that has the highest degree of proven effectiveness supported by objective and comprehensive research and evaluation.
2	Field Tested Best Practice	A program, activity, or strategy that has been shown to work effectively and produce successful outcomes and is supported to some degree by subjective and objective data sources.
3	Promising Practice	A program, activity, or strategy that has worked within one organization and shows promise during its early stages for becoming a best practice with long-term sustainable impact. A promising practice must have some objective basis for claiming effectiveness and must have the potential for replication among other organizations.

**These categories are based on those suggested in "Identifying and Promoting Promising Practices." Federal Register, Vol. 68. No 131. 131. July 2003.*
www.acf.hhs.gov/programs/ccf/about_ccf/gbk_pdf/pp_gbk.pdf

5.1 Noise

Evidence regarding wind turbine noise and human health is limited. There is limited evidence of an association between wind turbine noise and both annoyance and sleep disruption, depending on the sound pressure level at the location of concern. However, there are no research-based sound pressure levels that correspond to human responses to noise. A number of countries that have more experience with wind energy and are protective of public health have developed guidelines to minimize the possible adverse effects of noise. These guidelines consider time of day, land use, and ambient wind speed. Table 4 summarizes the guidelines of Germany (in the categories of industrial, commercial and villages) and Denmark (in the categories of sparsely populated and residential). The sound levels shown in the table are for nighttime and are assumed to be taken immediately outside of the residence or building of concern. In addition, the World Health Organization recommends a maximum nighttime sound pressure level of 40 dB(A) in residential areas. Recommended setbacks corresponding to these values may be calculated by software such as WindPro or similar software. Such calculations are normally to be done as part of feasibility studies. The Panel considers the guidelines shown below to be Promising Practices (Category 3) but to embody some aspects of Field Tested Best Practices (Category 2) as well.

Table 4

Promising Practices for Nighttime Sound Pressure Levels by Land Use Type

Land Use	**Sound Pressure Level, dB(A) Nighttime Limits**
Industrial	70
Commercial	50
Villages, mixed usage	45
Sparsely populated areas, 8 m/s wind*	44
Sparsely populated areas, 6 m/s wind*	42
Residential areas, 8 m/s wind*	39
Residential areas, 6 m/s wind*	37

**measured at 10 m above ground, outside of residence or location of concern*

The time period over which these noise limits are measured or calculated also makes a difference. For instance, the often-cited World Health Organization recommended nighttime noise cap of 40 dB(A) is averaged over one year (and does not refer specifically to wind turbine noise). Denmark's noise limits in the table above are calculated over a 10-minute period. These limits are in line with the noise levels that the epidemiological studies connect with insignificant reports of annoyance.

The Panel recommends that noise limits such as those presented in the table above be included as part of a statewide policy regarding new wind turbine installations. In addition, suitable ranges and procedures for cases when the noise levels may be greater than those values should also be considered. The considerations should take into account trade-offs between environmental and health impacts of different energy sources, national and state goals for energy independence, potential extent of impacts, etc.

The Panel also recommends that those involved in a wind turbine purchase become familiar with the noise specifications for the turbine and factors that affect noise production and noise control. Stall and pitch regulated turbines have different noise characteristics, especially in high winds. For certain turbines, it is possible to decrease noise at night through suitable control measures (e.g., reducing the rotational speed of the rotor). If noise control measures are to be considered, the wind turbine manufacturer must be able to demonstrate that such control is possible.

The Panel recommends an ongoing program of monitoring and evaluating the sound produced by wind turbines that are installed in the Commonwealth. IEC 61400-11 provides the standard for making noise measurements of wind turbines (International Electrotechnical Commission, 2002). In general, more comprehensive assessment of wind turbine noise in populated areas is recommended. These assessments should be done with reference to the broader ongoing research in wind turbine noise production and its effects, which is taking place internationally. Such assessments would be useful for refining siting guidelines and for developing best practices of a higher category. Closer investigation near homes where outdoor measurements show A and C weighting differences of greater than 15 dB is recommended.

5.2 Shadow Flicker

Based on the scientific evidence and field experience related to shadow flicker, Germany has adopted guidelines that specify the following:

1. Shadow flicker should be calculated based on the astronomical maximum values (i.e., not considering the effect of cloud cover, etc.).
2. Commercial software such as WindPro or similar software may be used for these calculations. Such calculations should be done as part of feasibility studies for new wind turbines.
3. Shadow flicker should not occur more than 30 minutes per day and not more than 30 hours per year at the point of concern (e.g., residences).
4. Shadow flicker can be kept to acceptable levels either by setback or by control of the wind turbine. In the latter case, the wind turbine manufacturer must be able to demonstrate that such control is possible.

The guidelines summarized above may be considered to be a Field Tested Best Practice (Category 2). Additional studies could be performed, specifically regarding the number of hours per year that shadow flicker should be allowed, that would allow them to be placed in Research Validated (Category 1) Best Practices.

5.3 Ice Throw

Ice falling from a wind turbine could pose a danger to human health. It is also clear that the danger is limited to those times when icing occurs and is limited to relatively close proximity to the wind turbine. Accordingly, the following should be considered Category 1 Best Practices.

1. In areas where icing events are possible, warnings should be posted so that no one passes underneath a wind turbine during an icing event and until the ice has been shed.
2. Activities in the vicinity of a wind turbine should be restricted during and immediately after icing events in consideration of the following two limits (in meters).

For a turbine that may not have ice control measures, it may be assumed that ice could fall within the following limit:

$$x_{\max,\,throw} = 1.5\left(2R + H\right)$$

Where: R = rotor radius (m), H = hub height (m)

For ice falling from a stationary turbine, the following limit should be used:

$$x_{\max,\,fall} = U\left(R + H\right)/15$$

Where: U = maximum likely wind speed (m/s)

The choice of maximum likely wind speed should be the expected one-year return maximum, found in accordance to the International Electrotechnical Commission's design standard for wind turbines, IEC 61400-1.

Danger from falling ice may also be limited by ice control measures. If ice control measures are to be considered, the wind turbine manufacturer must be able to demonstrate that such control is possible.

5.4 Public Participation/Annoyance

There is some evidence of an association between participation, economic or otherwise, in a wind turbine project and the annoyance (or lack thereof) that affected individuals may express. Accordingly, measures taken to directly involve residents who live in close proximity to a wind turbine project may also serve to reduce the level of annoyance. Such measures may be considered to be a Promising Practice (Category 3).

5.5 Regulations/Incentives/Public Education

The evidence indicates that in those parts of the world where there are a significant number of wind turbines in relatively close proximity to where people live, there is a close coupling between the development of guidelines, provision of incentives, and educating the public. The Panel suggests that the public be engaged through such strategies as education, incentives for community-owned wind developments, compensations to those experiencing documented loss of property values, comprehensive setback guidelines, and public education related to renewable energy. These multi-faceted approaches may be considered to be a Promising Practice (Category 3).

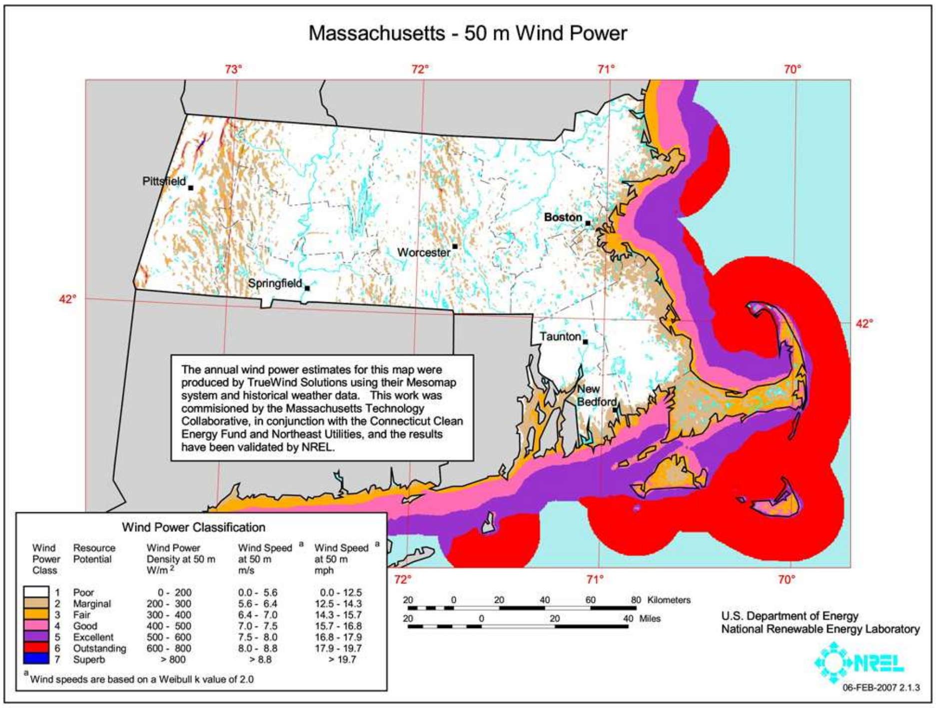
Appendix A:

Wind Turbines - Introduction to Wind Energy

Although wind energy for bulk supply of electricity is a relatively new technology, the historical precedents for it go back a long way. They are descendents of mechanical windmills that first appeared in Persia as early as the 7th century (Vowles, 1932) and then re-appeared in northern Europe in the Middle Ages. They were considerably developed during the 18th and 19th centuries, and then formed the basis for the first electricity generating wind turbine in the late 19th century. Development continued sporadically through the mid 20th century, with modern turbines beginning to emerge in the 1970's. It was the introduction of other technologies, such as electronics, computers, control theory, composite materials, and computer-based simulation capability that led to the successful development of the large scale, autonomously operating wind turbines that have become so widely deployed over the past twenty years.

The wind is the most important external factor in wind energy. It can be thought of as the "fuel" of the wind turbine, even though it is not consumed in the process. The wind determines the amount of energy that is produced, and is therefore referred to as the resource. The wind resource can vary significantly, depending on the location and the nature of the surface. In the United States, the Great Plains have a relatively energetic wind resource. In Massachusetts, winds tend to be relatively low inland, except for mountaintops and ridges. The winds tend to be higher close to the coast and then increase offshore. Average offshore wind speeds generally increase with distance from shore as well. The wind resource of Massachusetts is illustrated in

Figure AA.1: Map of the Massachusetts Wind Resource (From National Renewable Energy Laboratory, http://www.windpoweringamerica.gov/images/windmaps/ma_50m_800.jpg)



This section summarizes the basic characteristics of the wind in so far as they relate to wind turbine power production. Much more detail on this topic is provided in (Manwell et al., 2009). The wind will also affect the design of the wind turbines, and for this purpose it is referred to as an “external design condition.” This aspect of the wind is discussed in more detail in a later section.

AA.1 Origin of the Wind

The wind originates from sunlight due to the differential heating of various parts of the earth. This differential heating produces zones of high and low pressure, resulting in air movement. The motion of the air is also affected by earth's rotation. Considerations regarding the wind insofar as it relates to wind turbine operation include the following: (i) the winds aloft (geostrophic wind), (ii) atmospheric boundary layer meteorology, (iii) the variation of wind speed with height, (iv) surface roughness, and (v) turbulence.

The geostrophic wind is the wind in the upper atmosphere, which results from the combined effects of the pressure gradient and the earth's rotation (via the Coriolis force). The gradient wind can be thought of as an extension of the geostrophic wind, the difference in this case being that centrifugal effects are included. These result from curved isobars (lines of constant pressure) in the atmosphere. It is these upper atmosphere winds that are the source of most of the energy that eventually impinges on wind turbines. The energy in the upper atmosphere is transferred down closer to the surface via a variety of mechanisms, most notably turbulence, which is generated mechanically (via surface roughness) and thermally (via the rising of warm air and falling of cooler air).

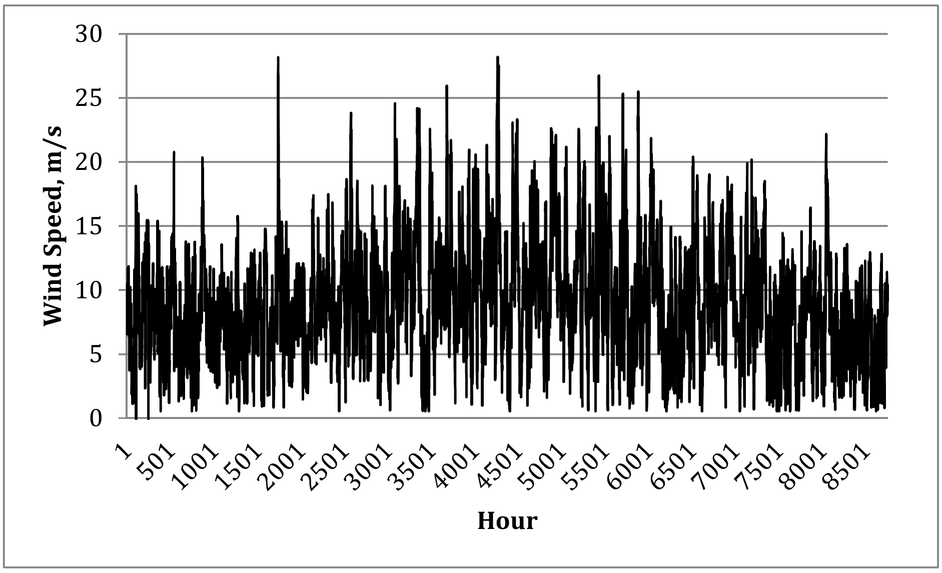
Although driven by higher altitude winds, the wind near the surface is affected by the surrounding topography (such as mountains and ridges) and surface conditions (such as tree cover or presence of buildings).

AA.2 Variability of the Wind

One of the singular characteristics of the wind is its variability, both temporal and spatial. The temporal variability includes: (i) short term (gusts and turbulence), (ii) moderately short term (e.g., hr to hr means), (iii) diurnal (variations over a day), (iv) seasonal, and (v) inter-annual (year to year). The wind may vary spatially as well, both from one location to another or with height above ground.

Figure AA.2 illustrates the variability of the hourly average wind speeds for one year at one location.

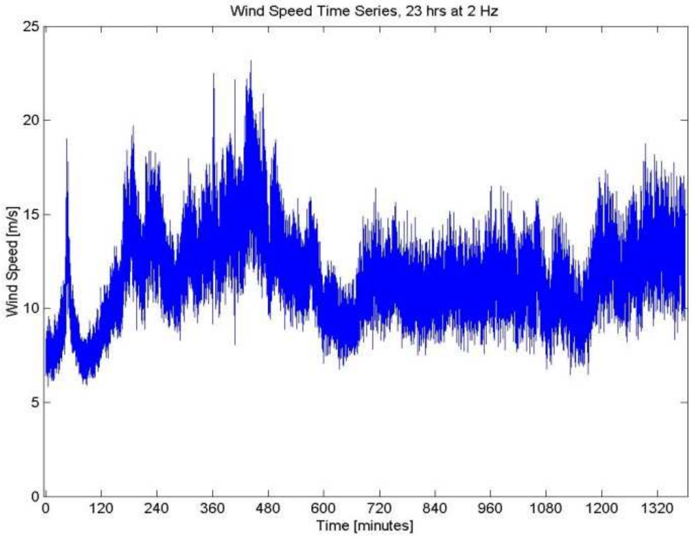
Figure AA.2: Typical hourly wind speeds over a year



As can be seen, the hourly average wind speed in this example varies significantly over the year, ranging from zero to nearly 30 m/s.

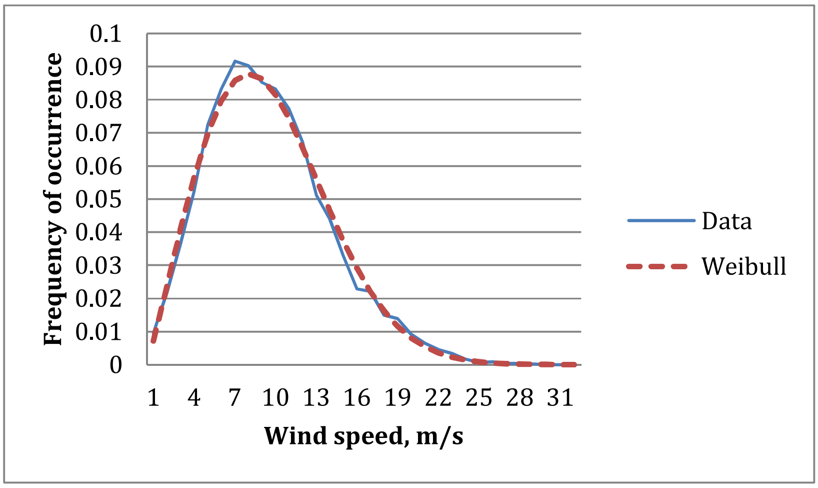
Figure AA.3 illustrates wind speed at another location recorded twice per second over a 23-hour period. There is significant variability here as well. Much of this variability in this figure is associated with short-term fluctuations, or turbulence. Turbulence has some effect on power generation, but it has a more significant effect on the design of wind turbines, due to the material fatigue that it tends to engender. Turbulence is discussed in more detail in a later section.

Figure AA.3: Typical wind data, sampled at 2 Hz for a 23-hr period



In spite of the variability in the wind time series, summary characteristics have much less variability. For example, the annual mean wind speed at a given location is generally within +/- 10% of the long-term mean at that site. Furthermore, the distribution of wind speeds, that is to say the frequency of occurrence of winds in various wind speed ranges, also tends to be similar from year. The general shape of such distributions is also similar from one location to another, even if the means are different. In fact, statistical models such as the Weibull distribution can be used to model the occurrences of various wind speeds in most locations on the earth. For example, the number of occurrences of wind speed in various ranges from the data set illustrated in Figure AA.2 are shown in Figure AA.4, together with the those occurrences as modeled by the Weibull distribution.

Figure AA.4: Typical frequency of occurrence of wind speeds, based on data and statistical model



The Weibull distribution's probability density function is given by:

$$p(U) = \left(\frac{k}{c}\right)\left(\frac{U}{c}\right)^{k-1} \exp\left[-\left(\frac{U}{c}\right)^{k}\right] \qquad (1)$$

Where c = Weibull scale factor (m/s) and k = Weibull shape factor (dimensionless)

For the purposes of modeling the occurrences of wind speeds, the scale and shape factors may be approximated as follows:

$$k \approx \left(\frac{\sigma_U}{\overline{U}}\right)^{-1.086} \qquad (2)$$

$$c \approx \overline{U}\left(0.568 + 0.433 / k\right)^{-(1/k)} \qquad (3)$$

Where $\overline{U}$ is the long-term mean wind speed (m/s, based on 10 min or hourly averages) and σ_U is the standard deviation of the wind speed, based on the same 10 min or hourly averages.

AA.3 Power in the Wind

The power available in the wind can be predicted from the fundamental principles of fluid mechanics. First of all, the energy per unit mass of a particle of air is given simply by ½ times the square of the velocity, U (m/s). The mass flow rate of the air (kg/s) through a given area A (m^2) perpendicular to the direction of the wind is $\dot{m} = \rho AU$, where ρ is the density of the air (kg/m^3). The power in the wind per unit area, P/A, (W/m^2) is then:

$$P/A = (\dot{m}/A)\frac{1}{2}U^2 = \frac{1}{2}\rho U^3 \tag{4}$$

AA.4 Wind Shear

Wind shear is the variation of wind speed with height. Wind shear has relevance to power generation, to turbine design, and to noise generation. The variation of wind speed with height is typically modeled with a power law as follows:

$$U_2 = U_1 [h_2 / h_1]^\alpha \tag{5}$$

Where U_1 = speed at reference height h_1, U_2 is the wind speed to be estimated at height h_2 and α is the power law exponent. Values of the exponent typically range from a 0.1 for smooth surfaces to 0.4 for very rough surfaces (such as forests or built-up areas.)

Wind shear can also be affected by the stability of the atmosphere. Equations have been developed that allow the incorporation of stability parameters in the analysis, but these too are outside the scope of this overview.

AA.5 Wind and Wind Turbine Structural Issues

As discussed previously, the wind is of particular interest in wind turbine applications, since it is the source of the energy. It is also the source of significant structural loads that the turbine must be able to withstand. Some of these loads occur when the turbine is operating; others occur when it is stopped. Extreme winds, for example, are likely to affect a turbine when it is stopped. High winds with sudden directional change during operation can also induce high loads. Turbulence during normal operation results in fatigue. The following is a summary of the key aspects of the wind that affect the design of wind turbines. More details may be found in (Manwell et al., 2009).

AA.5.a Turbulence

Turbulence in the wind can have significant effect on the structure of a wind turbine as well as its operation, and so it must be considered in the design process. The term "turbulence" refers to the short-term variations in the speed and direction of the wind. It manifests itself as apparently random fluctuations superimposed upon a relatively steady mean flow. Turbulence is not actually random, however. It has some very distinct characteristics, at least in a statistical sense.

Turbulence is characterized by a number of measures. These include: (i) turbulence intensity, (ii) turbulence probability density functions (pdf), (iii) autocorrelations, (iv) integral time scales and length scales, and (v) power spectral density functions. Discussion of the physics of turbulence is outside the scope of this overview.

AA.5.b Gusts

A gust is discrete increase and then decrease in wind speed, possibly associated with a change in wind direction, which can be of significance to the design of a wind turbine. Gusts are typically associated with turbulence.

AA.5.c Extreme Winds

Extreme winds need to be considered for the design of a wind turbine. Extreme winds are normally associated with storms. They occur relatively rarely, but often enough that the possibility of their occurring cannot be ignored. Statistical models, such as the Gumbel distribution (Gumbel, 1958), are used to predict the likelihood of such winds occurring at least once every 50 or 100 years. Such intervals are called return periods.

AA.5.d Soils

Soils are also important for the design and installation of a wind turbine. In particular, the nature of the soil will affect the design of the wind turbine foundations. Discussion of soils is outside the scope of this overview.

AA.6 Wind Turbine Aerodynamics

The heart of the wind turbine is the rotor. This is a device that extracts the kinetic energy from the wind and converts it into a mechanical form. Below is a summary of wind turbine rotor aerodynamics. More details may be found in (Manwell et al., 2009).

A wind turbine rotor is comprised of blades that are attached to a hub. The hub is in turn attached to a shaft (the main shaft) which transfers the energy through the remainder of the drive train to the generator where is it converted to electricity. The maximum power that a rotor can extract from the wind is first of all limited by the power in the wind, which passes through an area defined by the passage of the rotor. At the present time, most wind turbines utilize a rotor with a horizontal axis. That is, the axis of rotation is (nominally) parallel to the earth's surface. Accordingly, the area that is swept out by the rotor is circular. Assuming a rotor radius of *R* (m), the maximum power *P* (W) available in the wind is:

$$P = \frac{1}{2}\rho \pi R^2 U^3 \tag{6}$$

Early in the 20th century, it was shown by Betz (among others, see [4]) that the maximum power that could be extracted was less than the power in the wind; in fact, it was 16/27 times that value. Betz' work led to the definition of a power coefficient, C_p, which expresses the ratio of the actual power extracted by a rotor to the power in the wind. When considering efficiencies of other components in the drive train, as expressed by the η, the total power out a wind turbine, P_{WT}, would be given by:

$$P_{WT} = C_p \eta \frac{1}{2}\rho \pi R^2 U^3 \tag{7}$$

The maximum value of the power coefficient, known as the Betz limit, is thus 16/27.

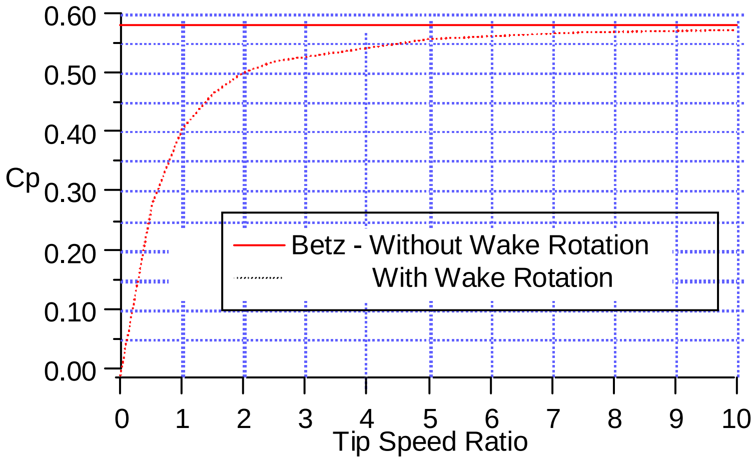
Betz' original analysis was based on the fundamental principles of fluid mechanics including linear momentum theory. It also included the following assumptions: (i) homogenous, incompressible, steady state fluid flow; (ii) no frictional drag; (iii) a rotor with an infinite number of (very small) blades; (iv) uniform thrust over the rotor area; (v) a non-rotating wake; and (vi) the static pressure far upstream and far downstream of the rotor that is equal to the undisturbed ambient static pressure.

A real rotor operating on a horizontal axis will result in a rotating wake. Some of the energy in the wind will go into that rotation and will not be available for conversion into mechanical power. The result is that the maximum power coefficient will actually be less than the Betz limit. The derivation of the maximum power coefficient for the rotating wake case use a number of terms: (i) the rotational speed of turbine rotor, Ω, in radians/sec; (ii) tip speed ratio, $\lambda = \Omega R/U$; (iii) local speed ratio, $\lambda_r = \lambda\, r/R$; (iv) rotational speed of wake, ω; (v) an axial induction factor, *a*, which relates the free stream wind speed to the wind speed at the rotor and the wind speed in the far wake ($U_{rotor} = (1-a)U_{free\ stream}$ and $U_{wake} = (1-2a)U_{free\ stream}$); and (vi) an angular induction factor, $a' = \omega/2\,\Omega$. According to this analysis, the maximum possible power coefficient is given by:

$$C_{P,\max} = \frac{8}{\lambda^2}\int_0^{\lambda} a'(1-a)\lambda_r^3 \, d\lambda_r \qquad (8)$$

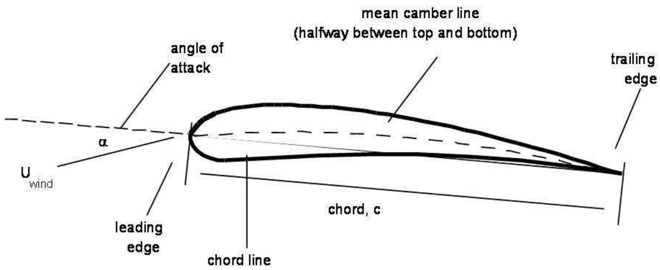
The maximum power coefficient for a rotor with a rotating wake and the Betz limit are illustrated in Figure AA.5.

Figure AA.5: Maximum theoretical power coefficients for rotating and non-rotating wakes



Neither of the analyses summarized above gives any indication as to what the blades of the rotor actually look like. For this purpose, a method called blade element momentum (BEM) theory was developed. This approach assumes that the blades incorporate an airfoil cross section. Figure AA.6 shows a typical airfoil, including some of the nomenclature.

Figure AA.6: Airfoil nomenclature



The BEM method equates the forces on the blades associated with air flowing over the airfoil with forces associated with the change in momentum of the air passing through the rotor. The starting point for this analysis is the assessment of the lift force on an airfoil. Lift is a force perpendicular to the flow. It is given by

$$\tilde{F}_L = C_L \frac{1}{2} \rho c U^2 \tag{9}$$

Where:

$\tilde{F}_L$ = force per unit length, N/m

C_L = lift coefficient, -

c = chord length (distance from leading edge to trailing edge of airfoil, m)

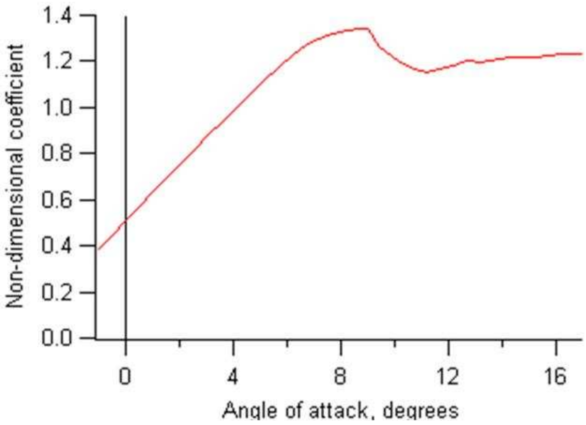
Thin airfoil theory predicts that for a very thin, ideal airfoil the lift coefficient is given by

$$C_L = 2\pi \sin\alpha \tag{11}$$

where α is the angle of attack, which is the angle between the flow and the chord line of the airfoil.

The lift coefficient for real airfoils typically includes a constant term but the slope, at least for low angles of attack, is similar to that for an ideal airfoil. For greater angles of attack (above 10–15 degrees) the lift coefficient begins to decrease, eventually approaching zero. This is known as stall. A typical lift coefficient vs. angle of attack curve is illustrated in Figure AA.7.

Figure AA.7: Typical airfoil lift vs. angle of attack



There is always some drag force associated with fluid flow. This is a force is in line with the flow. Drag force (per unit length) is given by:

$$\tilde{F}_D = C_D \frac{1}{2} \rho c U^2 \tag{12}$$

Where C_D = drag coefficient

When designing blades for a wind turbine, it is generally desired to minimize the drag to lift ratio at the design point. This generally results in a lift coefficient in the vicinity of 1.0 and a drag coefficient of approximately 0.006, although these values can differ depending on the airfoil.

Blade element momentum theory, as noted above, relates the blade shape to its performance. The following approach is used. The blade is divided into elements and the rotor is divided into annuli. Two simultaneous equations are developed: one expresses the lift and drag coefficient (and thus forces) on the blade elements as a function of airfoil data and the wind's angle of attack. The other expresses forces on the annuli as a function of the wind through the rotor, rotor characteristics, and changes in momentum. Some of the key assumptions are: (i) the forces on blade elements are determined solely by lift/drag characteristics of the airfoil, (ii) there is no flow along the blade, (iii) lift and drag force are perpendicular and parallel respectively to a "relative wind," and (iv) forces are resolved into components perpendicular to the rotor ("thrust") and tangential to it ("torque").

Using BEM theory, it may be shown for an ideal rotor that the angle of relative wind, φ, as a function of tip speed ratio and radial position on the blade is given by:

$$\varphi = \left(\tfrac{2}{3}\right)\tan^{-1}\left(1/\lambda_r\right) \tag{13}$$

Similarly, the chord length is given by:

$$c = \frac{8\pi r}{BC_L}\left(1-\cos\varphi\right) \tag{14}$$

Where B = the number of blades

There are some useful observations to be drawn out of the above equations. First of all, in the ideal case the blade will be twisted. In fact, the twist angle will differ from the angle of relative wind by the angle of attack and a reference pitch angle θ_p as follows:

$$\theta_T = \varphi - \alpha - \theta_p \tag{15}$$

It may also be noted that the twist angle will at first increase slowly when moving from the tip inward and then increase more rapidly. Second, the chord of the blade will also increase upon moving from the tip inward, at first slowly and then more rapidly. In the ideal case then, a wind turbine blade is both significantly twisted and tapered. Real blades, however, are designed with a less than optimal shape for a variety of practical reasons.

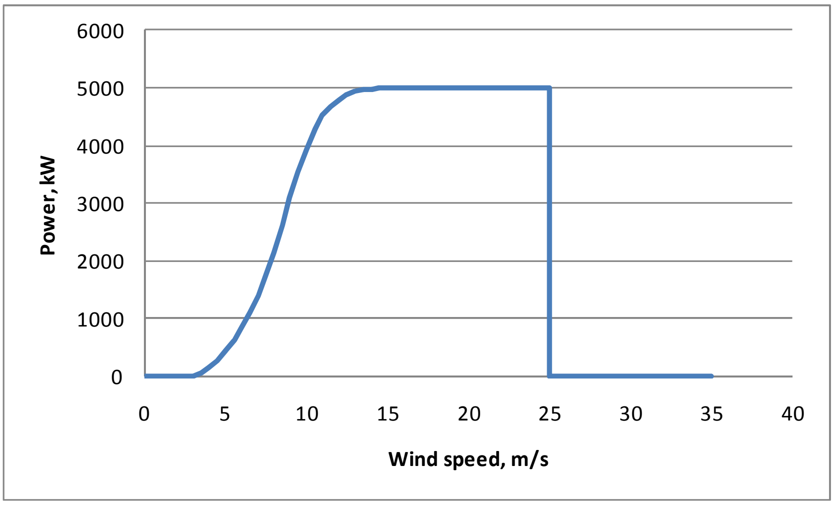
Another important observation has to do with the total area of the blades in comparison to the swept area. The ratio of the projected blade area is known as the solidity, σ. For a given angle of attack, the solidity will decrease with increasing tip speed ratio. For example, assuming a lift coefficient C_L of 1.0, the solidity of an optimum rotor designed to operate at a tip speed ratio of 2.0 is 0.43 whereas an optimum rotor designed to operate at a tip speed ratio of 6.0 would have a solidity of 0.088. It is therefore apparent that in order to keep blade material (and thus cost) to a minimum, it is desirable to design for a tip speed ratio as high as possible.

There are other considerations in selecting a design tip speed ratio for a turbine other than the solidity, however. On the one hand, higher tip speed ratios will result in gearboxes with a lower speed up ratio for a given turbine. On the other hand, the effect of drag and surface roughness of the blade surface may become more significant for a higher tip speed ratio rotor. This effect could result in decreased performance. Another concern is material strength. The total forces on the rotor are nearly the same on the rotor regardless of the solidity. Thus the stresses would be higher. A final consideration is noise. Higher tip speed ratios generally result in more noise produced by the blades.

There are numerous other considerations regarding the design of a wind turbine rotor, including tip losses, type of airfoil to be used, ease of manufacturing and transport, type of control used, selection of materials, etc. These are all outside the scope of this overview, however.

Real wind turbine rotors are designed taking into account many factors, including but not only their aerodynamic performance. In addition, the rotor must be controlled so as to generate electricity most effectively and so as to withstand continuously fluctuating forces during normal operation and extreme loads during storms. Accordingly, a wind turbine rotor does not in general operate at its own maximum power coefficient at all wind speeds. Because of this, the power output of a wind turbine is generally described by curve, known as a power curve, rather than an equation such as the one for P_{WT} which given earlier. Figure AA.8 illustrates a typical power curve. As shown there, below the cut-in speed (3 m/s in the example) no power is produced. Between cut-in and rated wind speed (14.5 m/s in this example), the power increases significantly with wind speed. Above the rated speed, the power produced is constant, regardless of the wind speed, and above the cut-out speed (25 m/s in the example), the turbine is shut down.

Figure AA.8: Typical wind turbine power curve



AA.7 Wind Turbine Mechanics and Dynamics

Earlier we discussed the aerodynamic aspects of a wind turbine, and how that related to its design, performance, and appearance. The next major consideration has to do with the turbine's survivability. This topic includes its ability to withstand the forces to which the turbine will be subjected, deflections of various components, and vibrations that may result during operations.

Issues that need to be considered include: (i) ultimate strength, (ii) relative motion of components, (iii) vibrations, (iv) loads, (v) responses, (vi) stresses, (vii) unsteady motion, resulting in fatigue, and (viii) material properties.

The types of loads that a turbine may be subjected to are as follows: static (non-rotating), steady (rotating), cyclic, transient, impulsive, stochastic, or resonance-induced. Sources of loads may include aerodynamics, gravity, dynamic interactions, or mechanical control. To understand the various loads that a wind turbine may experience, the reader may wish to review the fundamentals of statics (no motion), dynamics (motion), Newton's second law, the various rotational relations (kinematics), strength of materials (including Hooke's law and finding stresses from moments and geometry), gyroscopic forces/moments, and vibrations. Among other topics, the cantilevered beam is particularly important, since rotor blades as well as towers have similar characteristics.

Wind turbines are frequently both the source of and are subject to vibrations. Although the topic can become quite complicated, it is worthwhile to recall that the natural frequency of simple oscillating mass, *m*, and spring, with spring constant, *k*, and is given by:

$$\omega = \sqrt{k/m} \qquad (16)$$

Similarly, rotational natural frequency about an axis of rotation is given by:

$$\omega = \sqrt{k_\theta / J} \qquad (17)$$

Where k_θ is the rotational spring constant and *J* is the mass moment of inertia

A continuous body, such as a wind turbine blade, will actually have an infinite number of natural frequencies (although only the first few are important), and associated with each natural frequency will be a mode shape that characterizes it deflection. The vibration of a uniform cantilevered beam can be described relatively simply through the use of Euler's equation (see Manwell et al., 2009). Non-uniform elements require more complex methods for their analysis.

AA.7.a Rotor Motions

There is a variety of motions that occur in the rotor that can be significant to the design or operation of the turbine. These include those in the flapwise, edgewise, and torsional directions.

Flapwise motions are those that are perpendicular to plane of the rotor, and are considered positive in the direction of the thrust. Flapwise forces are the source of the highest aerodynamic bending moments, and accordingly the most significant stresses.

Lead-lag, or edgewise, motions are in plane of rotor and are considered positive when in the direction of the torque. Fluctuating motions in this direction are reflected in the power.

Torsion refers to the twisting of blade about its long axis. Torsional moments in the blades must be accounted for in the design of pitch control mechanisms.

The most important rotor load is the thrust. This is the total force on the rotor in the direction of the wind (flapwise). It is associated with the conversion of the kinetic energy of the wind to mechanical energy. The thrust, T, (N) is given by:

$$T = C_T \frac{1}{2} \rho \pi R^2 U^2 \tag{18}$$

Where C_T is the thrust coefficient. For the ideal rotor in which the axial induction factor, a, is equal to 1/3 (corresponding to the Betz limit), it is easy to show that the thrust coefficient is equal to 8/9. For the same rotor, the thrust coefficient may be as high as 1.0, but this would not occur at $C_p = C_{p,Betz}$.

This thrust gives rise to flapwise bending moments at the root of the blade. For example, for the ideal rotor when a = 1/3, and assuming a very small hub, it may be shown that the flapwise bending moment M_β at the root of the blade would be given by:

$$M_\beta = \frac{T}{B} \frac{2}{3} R \tag{19}$$

Where B = number of blades

From the bending moment, it is straightforward to find the maximum bending stress in the blade. For example, suppose that a blade is $2t$ m thick at the root, has a symmetrical airfoil, and that the thrust force is perpendicular to the chord line. Then the bending stress would be:

$$\sigma_{\beta,\max} = \frac{M_\beta t}{I_b} \tag{20}$$

(Note that for a real blade, the asymmetry and the angles would complicate the calculation, but the principle is the same.)

Another important load is torque, Q (Nm). Torque is given by:

$$Q = C_Q \frac{1}{2} \rho \pi R^2 U^2 \tag{21}$$

Where C_Q = the torque coefficient, which also equal to C_p/λ.

Note that torque is also given by:

$$Q = P / \Omega \tag{22}$$

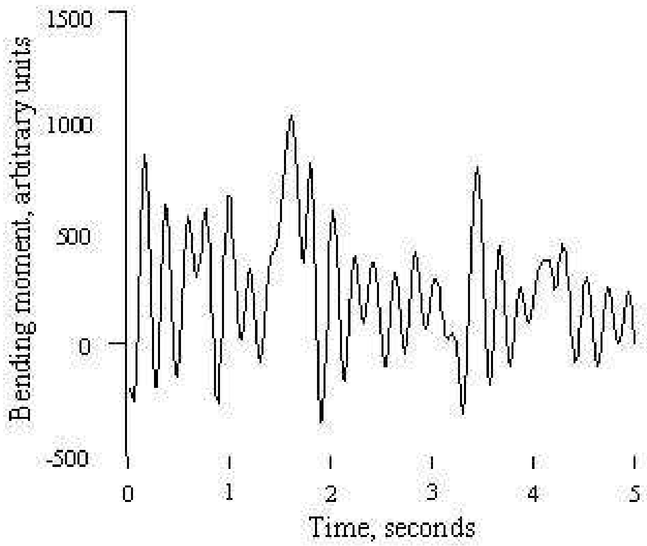
Where P = power (W)

The dynamics of a wind turbine rotor are quite complicated and do not lend themselves to simple illustrations. There is one approach, however, due to Stoddard (Eggleston and Stoddard, 1987) and summarized by (Manwell et al., 2009) which is relatively tractable, but will not be discussed here. In general, the dynamic response of wind turbine rotors must be simulated by numerical models, such as the FAST code (Jonkman, 2005) developed by the National Renewable Energy Laboratory.

AA.7.b Fatigue

Fatigue is an important phenomenon in all wind turbines. The term refers to the degradation of materials due to fluctuating stresses. Such stresses occur constantly in wind turbines due to the inherent variability of the wind, the rotation of the rotor and the yawing of the rotor nacelle assembly (RNA) to follow the wind as its direction changes. Fatigue results in shortened life of many materials and must be accounted for in the design. Figure AA.9 illustrates a typical time history of bending moment that would give rise to fluctuating stresses of similar appearance.

Figure AA.9: Typical wind turbine blade bending moment



The ability of a material to withstand stress fluctuations of various magnitudes is typically illustrated in an S-N curve. In such curves the stress level is shown on the *y* axis and is plotted against the number of cycles to failure. As is apparent from the figure above, stress fluctuations of a variety of magnitudes are likely. The effect of a number of cycles of different ranges is accounted for by the damage due to each cycle using "Miner's Rule." In this case, an amount of damage, *d*, due to *n* cycles, where the stress is such that *N* cycles will result in damage is found as follows:

$$d = n / N \tag{23}$$

Miner's Rule states that the sum of all the damage, *D*, from cycles of all magnitudes must be less than 1.0, or failure is to be expected imminently:

$$D = \sum n_i / N_i \leq 1 \tag{24}$$

Miner's Rule works best when the cycling is relatively simple. When cycles of varying amplitude follow each other, an algorithm called "rainflow" cycle counting" (Downing and Socie, 1982) is used.

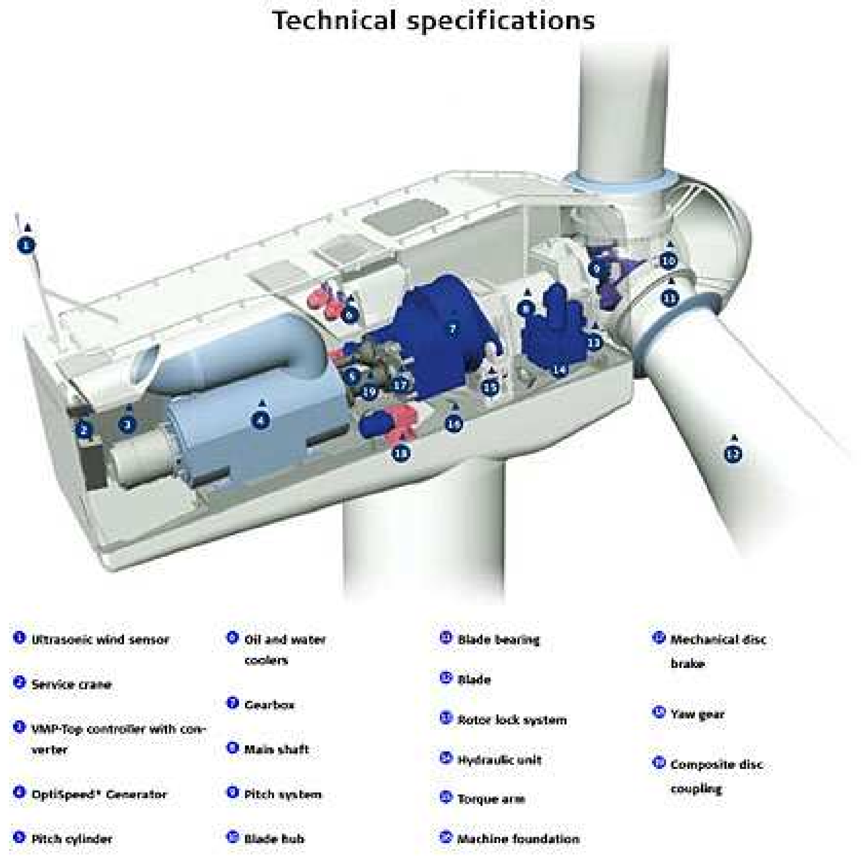
AA.8 Components of Wind Turbines

Wind turbines consist of two main subsystems, the rotor nacelle assembly and the support structure, and each of these is comprised of many components. The following provides some more description of these subsystems. More details, particularly on the rotor nacelle assembly may be found in (Manwell et al., 2009).

AA.8.a Rotor Nacelle Assembly

The rotor nacelle assembly (RNA) includes the majority of the components associated with the conversion of the kinetic energy of the wind into electrical energy. There are two major component groupings in the RNA as well as a number of ancillary components. The main groupings are the rotor and the drive train. The rotor includes the blades, the hub, and pitch control components. The drive train includes shafts, bearings, gearbox (if any), couplings, mechanical brake, and generator. Other components include the bedplate, yaw bearing and yaw drive, oil cooling system, climate control, other electrical components, and parts of the control system. An example of a typical rotor nacelle assembly is illustrated in Figure AA.10.

Figure AA.10: Typical Rotor Nacelle Assembly



(From Vestas http://re.emsd.gov.hk/english/wind/large/large_to.html)

AA.8.b Rotor

The primary components of the rotor are the blades. At the present time, most wind turbines have three blades, and they are oriented so as to operate upwind of the tower. It is to be expected that in the future some wind turbines, particularly those intended for use offshore, will have two blades and will be oriented downwind of the tower, however. For a variety of reasons (including that downwind turbines tend to be noisier) it is less likely that they will be used on land, particularly in populated areas.

The general shape of the blades is chosen in accordance with the principles discussed previously. The other major factor is the required strength of the blades. For this reason, it is often the case that thicker airfoils are used nearer the root than are used closer to the tip. Blades for most modern wind turbines are constructed of composites. The laminates are primarily fiberglass with some carbon fiber for additional strength. The binders are polyester or epoxy.

At the root of the blades the composite material is attached to a steel root, which can then be subsequently bolted to the hub. Most utility scale wind turbines at present include blade pitch control, so there is a mechanism present at the interface of the hub and the blades that will both secure the blades and facilitate their rotation about their long axis.

The hub of the wind turbine rotor is constructed from steel. It is designed so as to attach to the main shaft of the drive train as well as to connect with the blades.

AA.8.c Drive train

The drive train consists of a number of components, including shafts, couplings, a gearbox (usually), a generator, and a brake.

AA.8.d Shafts

The main shaft of the drive train is designed to transmit the torque from the rotor to the gearbox (if there is one) or directly to the generator if there is no gearbox. This shaft may also be required to carry some or all of the weight of the rotor. The applied torque will vary with the amount of power being produced, but in general it is given by the power divided by the rotational speed. As discussed previously, a primary consideration in the aerodynamic design of a wind turbine rotor is the tip speed ratio. A typical design tip speed ratio is 7. Consider a wind turbine with a diameter of 80 m, designed for most efficient operation at a wind speed 12 m/s. The rotational speed of the rotor and thus the main shaft under these conditions would be 20 rpm.

AA.8.e Gearbox

Wind turbines are intended to generate electricity, but most conventional generators are designed to turn at higher speeds than do wind turbine rotors (see below). Therefore, a gearbox is commonly used to increase the speed of the shaft that drives the generator relative to that of the main shaft. Gearboxes consist of a housing, gears, bearings, multiple shafts, seals, and lubricants. Gearboxes for wind turbines are typically either of the parallel shaft or planetary type. Frequently a gearbox incorporates multiple stages, since the maximum allowed ratio per stage is usually well under 10:1. There are trade-offs in the selection of gearbox. Parallel shaft gearboxes are generally less expensive than planetary ones but they are also heavier. Gearboxes are generally quite efficient. Thus the power out is very nearly equal to the power in. The torque in the shafts is then equal to the power divided by the speed of the shaft.

AA.8.f Brake

Nearly all wind turbines incorporate a mechanical brake somewhere on the drive train. This brake is normally designed to stop the rotor under all foreseeable conditions, although in some cases it might only serve as a parking brake for the rotor. Mechanical brakes on utility scale wind turbines are mostly of the caliper/disc type although other types are possible. Brakes may be placed on either the low speed or the high speed side of the gearbox. The advantage of placing it on the high speed side is that less braking torque is required to stop the rotor. On the other hand, the braking torque must then pass through the gearbox, possibly leading to premature failure of the gearbox. In either case, the brake must be designed to absorb all of the rotational energy in the rotor, which is converted into heat as the rotor stops.

AA.8.g Generator

Electrical generators operate via the rotation of a coil of wire in a magnetic field. The magnetic field is created by one or more pairs of magnetic poles situated opposite each other across the axis of rotation. The magnetic field may be created either by electromagnets (as in conventional synchronous generators), by induction in the rotor (as in induction generators,) or with permanent magnets. In alternating current systems the number of pairs of poles and the grid frequency determine the nominal operating speed of the generator. For example, in a 60 Hz AC system, such as the United States, a generator with two pairs of poles would have a nominal operating speed of 1800 rpm. In most AC generators, the field rotates and while the current is generated in a stationary armature (the stator).

The majority of utility scale wind turbines today use wound rotor induction generators (WRIG). This type of generator can function over a relatively wide range of speeds (on the order of 2:1). Wound rotor induction generators are employed together with a power electronic converter in the rotor circuit. In such an arrangement approximately 2/3 of the power is produced on the stator in the usual way. The other third of the power is produced on the rotor and converted to AC of the correct frequency by the power electronic converter. In this configuration the WRIG is often referred to as a doubly fed induction generator (DFIG).

A number of wind turbines use permanent magnet generators. Such generators often have multiple pole pairs as well. This can allow the generator to have the same nominal speed as the wind turbine rotor so the main shaft can be connected directly to the generator without the use of a gearbox. Most permanent magnet generators are designed to operate together with power electronic converters. These converters facilitate variable speed operation of the turbine, while ensuring that the electricity that is produced is of constant frequency and compatible with the electrical grid to which the turbine is connected.

AA.8.h Bedplate

The bedplate is a steel frame to which components of the drive train and other components of the RNA are attached. It ensures that all the components are properly aligned.

AA.8.i Yaw System

Most wind turbines today include a yaw system. This system facilitates orienting the RNA into the wind as the wind direction changes. First of all, there is a slewing bearing that connects the top of the tower to the RNA, allowing the latter to rotate with respect to the former. Also attached to the top of the tower, and often to the outside perimeter of the slewing bearing, is a large diameter bull gear. A yaw motor connected to a smaller gear is attached to the bedplate. When the yaw motor is energized, the small gear engages the bull gear, causing the RNA to move relative to the tower. A yaw controller ensures that the motion is in the proper direction and that it continues until the RNA is aligned with the wind. A yaw brake holds the RNA fixed in position until the yaw controller commands a new orientation.

AA.8.j Control System

A wind turbine will have a control system that ensures the proper operation of the turbine at all times. The control system has two main functions: supervisory control and dynamic control. The supervisory control continuously monitors the external conditions and the operating parameters of the turbine, and starts it up or shuts it down as necessary. The dynamic control system ensures smooth operation of various controllable components, such the pitch of the blades or the electrical torque of the generator. The control system may also be integrated with or at least be in communication with a condition monitoring system that watches over the condition of various key components.

AA.8.k Support Structure

The support structure of a wind turbine is any part of the turbine that is below the main bearing. The support structure for land-based wind turbines may be conceptually divided into two main parts: the tower and the foundation. The tower of a wind turbine is normally constructed of tapered steel tubes. The tubes are bolted together on site to form a single structure of the desired height. The foundation of a wind turbine is the part of the support structure, which is in contact with the ground. Foundations are typically constructed of reinforced concrete. When turbines are installed on rock, the foundations may be attached to the rock with rods, which are grouted into predrilled holes.

AA.8.l Materials for Wind Turbines

The primary types of materials used in the various components of wind turbines are steel, copper, composites, and concrete.

AA.9 Installation

Installation of wind turbines may be a significant undertaking. It involves the following:

- Complete assessment of site conditions
- Detailed preparing for the installation
- Constructing the foundation
- Delivering the components to the site
- Assembling the components into sub-assemblies
- Lifting the sub-assemblies into place with a crane
- Installing the electrical equipment
- Final testing

More details may be found in (Manwell et al., 2009).

AA.10 Energy Production

The purpose of wind turbines is to produce energy. Energy production is usually considered annually. The amount of energy that a wind turbine will produce in a year, $E_{y,}$ is a function of the wind resource at the site where it is installed and the power curve of the wind turbine. Estimates are usually done by calculating the expected energy that will be produced every hour of a representative year and then summing the energy from all of those hours as shown below:

$$E_y = \sum_{i=1}^{8760} P_{WT}(U_i)\Delta t \tag{25}$$

Where U_i is the wind speed in the i^{th} hour of the year, $P_{WT}(U_i)$ is the average power (based on the power curve) during the i^{th} hour and Δt is the length of the time period of interest (here, one hr). The units of energy are Wh, but the amount of energy production is frequently expressed in either kWh or MWh for the sake of convenience.

It is sometimes cumbersome to characterize the performance of a wind turbine by its actual energy production. Accordingly, a normalized term known as the capacity factor, *CF*, is used. This is the given by the actual energy that is produced (or estimated to be produced) divided by the amount of energy that would be produced if the turbine were running at is rated output, P_R, for the entire year. It is found from the following equation:

$$CF = \frac{E_y}{8760 P_R} \tag{26}$$

AA.11 Unsteady Aspects of Wind Turbine Operation

There are a number of unsteady aspects of wind turbine operation that are significant to the discussion of public reaction to wind turbines. These in particular include the variations in the wind field that can change the nature of the sound emitted from the rotor during operation. These unsteady effects include the following:

1. Wind shear – Wind shear refers to the variation of wind speed across some spatial dimension. Wind shear is most commonly thought of as a vertical phenomenon, that is to say, the increase of wind speed with height. Wind shear can also occur laterally across the rotor under some circumstances. Vertical wind shear is often modeled by a power law as discussed earlier. There are some situations, however, in which such a model is not applicable. One example has to with highly stable atmosphere, such that the wind near the ground is relatively light, but at the height of the rotor the wind is high enough that turbine may be operating. Under such conditions there may be sound emanating from the rotor, but relatively little wind induced sound near the ground to mask that from the rotor. Wind shear may also result in a cyclically varying aspect to the sound produced by the blades as they rotate. This occurs due to the changing magnitude and direction of the relative wind as the blades pass through zones of different wind speed.
2. Tower shadow or blockage – The wind flow near the tower is inevitably somewhat different from where there is no tower. The effect is much more pronounced on wind turbines with downwind rotors, but it still occurs with up-wind rotors. This tower effect can result in a distinct change in sound once per revolution of each blade.

3. Turbulence – Turbulence refers to changes in magnitude and direction of the wind at varying time scales and length scales. The presence of turbulence can affect the nature of the sound.
4. Changes in wind direction – Wind turbines are designed to yaw in response to changes in wind direction. The yawing process takes a finite amount of time and during that time the wind impinging on the rotor will do so at a different direction than it will when the yawing process is complete. Sound produced during the yawing process may have a somewhat different character than after it is complete.
5. Stall – Under some conditions part or all of the airfoils on the blades may be in stall. That is, the angle of relative wind is high enough that the airfoil begins to lose lift. Additional turbulence may also be generated. Again, the nature of the sound produced by the rotor may be different than during an unstalled state. It may also be noted that some turbines intentionally take advantage of stall to limit power in high winds. Under such conditions there may also be a change in sound in comparison to normal operation.

AA.11.a Periodicity of Unsteady Aspects of Wind Turbine Operation

Due to the rotation of the rotor and the nature of the wind, there tend to be certain features of the turbine's operation that are periodic in nature. The most dominant of these have frequencies associated with the rotational speed of the rotor and the blade passage frequency, which is simply the rotational speed times the number of blades. For example, the dominant frequencies in a 3-blade wind turbine rotating at 20 rpm would be 0.33 Hz and 1 Hz. Other significant frequencies may be the first few harmonics of the rotational frequency and blade passage frequency.

AA.12 Wind Turbines and Avoided Pollutants

Wind turbines have a positive impact on human health via avoiding emission of pollutants that would result if the electricity that they generate were produced instead by other generators. While the average emissions of various pollutants per MWh produced from conventional generators is relatively easy to estimate, it is harder to estimate the actual impact of wind turbine generation. This is because the electricity distributed by the electrical grid is produced by different types of generators, and the operation of these generators will be affected differently as a result of the supply of part of the total electrical demand by the wind turbines.

In general, electricity in any large utility network comes from three types of generators: base load, intermediate load, and peaking plants. The fuel or energy source supplying these generators is likely to be coal, fuel oil, natural gas, uranium (nuclear plants), or water (hydroelectric plants). Base load plants are typically coal fired or nuclear plants. Intermediate load plants often use fuel oil or natural gas. Peaking plants are normally natural gas or hydroelectric. There are a considerable number of plants that may be operating at any given time. Which plants are actually operating is determined by the system operator in accordance with what the near term forecasted load is expected to be and the estimated (bid) cost per MWh from all the plant operators in the system. For thermal plants the bid cost is close to that projected fuel cost/MWh. This in turn is found from heat rate of the fuel (kg/MWh) for the plant in question times the unit cost of the fuel ($/kg). Less efficient plants or those with higher unit fuel costs tend to have relatively high bid costs. (Note on the other hand, that wind turbines would have bid costs of zero, since they do not use fuel.)

If a large number of wind turbines are operating such that they are contributing a significant amount of electricity to the total load, the mix of generators may well be different than it would be if the turbines were not present. If only a small number of wind turbines are present, then the mix of generators may not change. However, certain of the plants would be curtailed so as to produce less energy and thus consume less fuel. The emissions of pollutants from all the operating plants could be calculated and so could the projected emissions that would have resulted if the wind turbines were not present. The difference in amount of pollutants produced could then be assigned to the wind turbine as the avoided emissions.

To do such an analysis properly involves estimating the actual impact of wind turbine generation on the mix of generators and the operating level of those generators for every hour of the year. This is a non-trivial exercise, but it has been done for an offshore wind farm that was proposed for the town of Hull, MA. That project was to have included four 3.6 MW turbines, for a total capacity of 14.4 MW. The pollutants considered in the study were CO_2, NO_X, and SO_X. The results of that study are described in detail in (Rached, 2008). The results of that study are summarized in Table AA.1. The results in the table are normalized for a 1 MW (rated) wind turbine and use the medium estimated wind speed for the site. (Note under the assumptions of Rached's study, a one MW (rated) wind turbine in the medium wind speed scenario at the site would generate 2,580 MWh/yr).

Table AA.1:

Avoided emissions of pollutants for 14.4 MW wind project (based on Rached, 2008)

CO_2 (kg/MWyr)	SO_X (kg/MWyr)	NO_X (kg/MWyr)
1,970,000	3,480	1,490

A simpler but less accurate way to estimate the avoided emissions is to use the marginal rates for pollutants as specified by the Massachusetts Greenhouse Gas policy (MEPA, 2007). Applying this method Rached calculated avoided emissions per MW (rated) for the three pollutants for one year of 1,320,000 kg CO_2, 2,080 kg of SO_2, and 701 kg of NO_x.

In the analysis summarized above the majority of the avoidance of pollutant production would be due to reduced consumption of natural gas. If a larger fraction of Massachusetts' energy were to be produced by wind energy, there could be significant reductions of the consumption of fuel oil and coal as well. This should result in larger amounts of avoided pollution per unit of wind turbine production

Appendix B

Wind Turbines – Shadow Flicker

AB.1 Shadow Flicker and Flashing

Shadow flicker occurs when the moving blades of a wind turbine rotor cast moving shadows that cause a flickering effect. This flicker could annoy people living close to the turbine. Similarly, it is possible for sunlight to be reflected from gloss-surfaced turbine blades and cause a "flashing" effect. This phenomenon will occur during a limited amount of time in a year, depending on the altitude of the sun, α_s; the height of the turbine, H, the radius of the rotor, R, and the height, direction and distance to the viewing point. At any given time the maximum distance from a turbine that a flickering shadow will extend is given by:

$$x_{shadow,\max} = \left(H + R - h_{view}\right) / \tan\left(\alpha_s\right) \qquad (27)$$

Where h_{view} is the height of the viewing point.

The solar altitude depends on the latitude, the day of the year, and the time as given in the following equations (Duffie and Beckman, 2006)

$$\alpha_s = 90° - \cos^{-1}\left[\cos(\delta)\cos(\phi)\cos(\omega) + \sin(\delta)\sin(\phi)\right] \qquad (28)$$

Where δ = declination of the earth's axis, ø = latitude and ω = the hour angle

The declination is found from the following equation:

$$\delta = 23.45\sin(360(284 + n)/365) \qquad (29)$$

Where n = day of the year

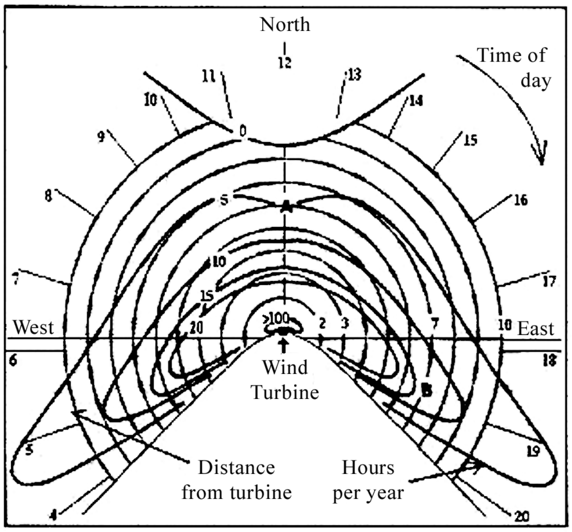
The hour angle is found from the hours from noon (solar time, negative before noon, positive after noon), divided by 15 to convert to degrees.

Another relevant angle is the solar azimuth. This indicates the angle of the sun with respect to certain reference direction (usually north) at a particular time. For example, the sun is always in the south at solar noon, so its azimuth is 180° at that time. The solar azimuth is important since it determines the angle of the wind turbine's shadow with respect to the tower. See Duffie and Beckman (2006) for details on calculating the solar azimuth.

For example, consider a location that has a latitude of 43°. Assume that the day is March 1 (day 60) and the time is 3:00 in the afternoon. Also assume that the turbine has a tower height of 80 m and a radius of 30 m and that the viewing height is 2 m. The declination is -8.3°, the solar altitude is 24.4°, and the solar azimuth is 50.2° W of S. The maximum extent of the shadow is 238 m from the turbine. The angle of the shadow is 50.2° E of N.

Sites are typically characterized by charts such the one illustrated in Figure AB.1 for a location in Denmark (EWEA, 2004). The chart gives the number of hours per year of flicker shadow as a function of direction and distance (measured in units of hub height). In the example shown, two viewing points are considered. One of them (A) is directly to the north of turbine at a distance of 6 times the hub height. The other (B) is located to the south east at a distance of 7 times the hub height. The figure shows that the first viewing point will experience shadow flicker from the turbine for 5 hours per year. The second point will experience flicker for about 12 hours per year.

Figure AB.1: Diagram of shadow flicker calculation (EWEA, 2004)



A, B are viewing points
Note that the equations above assume a clear sky and the absence of rain, clouds, etc.

AB.2 Mitigation Possibilities

Most modern wind turbines allow for real-time control of turbine operation by computer in order to shut down during high shadow flicker times, if necessary. In addition, computer programs can allow for pre-planning of siting location ahead of time to know what a project specific impact will be in terms of shadow flicker when planning a wind turbine project (as discussed in the previous paragraph). This planning can be site-specific in order to avoid potential problems with specific sites based on geographical location or weather patterns.

In terms of safe distances to reduce shadow flicker, these are often project-specific because it depends on whether there are residences or roadways present and what the geographic layout is. This could be particularly important in areas with more forestry and existing shadow, which could reduce nuisance from turbine produced shadow flicker or whether it is an otherwise open land area such as farmland that would be more susceptible to the annoyance of shadow flicker. A general estimate for modeling a shadow flicker risk zone includes 10 times the rotor diameter such that a 90-meter diameter would be equivalent to a 900-meter impact area. However, only certain portions of this zone are actually likely to experience shadow flicker for a significant amount of time. Other modeling considerations include when at least 20% of the sun is covered by the blade and whether to include the blade width in estimates as well. In terms of distance, 2,000 meters is the WindPro computer program default distance (NEWEEP, 2011) for calculations of wind turbine produced shadow flicker. Finally, due to atmospheric effects, 1400 m is the maximum distance from a turbine within which shadow flicker is likely to be significant.

In terms of existing regulations regarding shadow flicker rates, there are no current shadow flicker regulations in Massachusetts (or many other New England states, but there are statewide and local guidelines that have been implemented. These guidelines were provided by the Department of Energy Resources in March 2009 and state that, “wind turbines shall be sited in a manner that minimizes shadowing or flicker impacts” and, “the applicant has the burden of proving that this effect does not have significant adverse impact on neighboring or adjacent uses.” Local Massachusetts regulations include the Worcester, MA zoning ordinance, which requires, “The facility owner and operator shall make reasonable efforts to minimize shadow flicker to any occupied building on a non-participating landowner’s property.” Also, a shadow flicker assessment report is required as is a plan showing the “area of estimated wind turbine shadow flicker.” Similarly, the Newburyport, MA regulations require that wind turbines do not result in significant shadow or flicker impacts and an analysis is required for planned projects (NEWEEP, 2011).

The Maine model wind energy facility ordinance states that wind turbines should, “avoid unreasonable adverse shadow flicker effect at any occupied building located on a non-participating landowner's property." They do not state any specific limit to shadow flicker other than these guidelines. However, the New Hampshire Model Small Wind Energy Systems Ordinance states that wind turbines, "shall be sited in a manner that does not result in significant shadow flicker impacts…significant shadow flicker is defined as more than 30 hours per year on abutting occupied buildings." Similar to Maine, several states in the US have adopted the German model of 30 hours per year of allowed shadow flicker that was primarily based on the government-sponsored study summarized above. However, other states or localities including Hutchinson, Minnesota have enacted stricter guidelines including no shadow flicker to be allowed at an existing residential structure, and up to 30 hours per year of shadow flicker allowed on roadways or residentially zoned properties and a computer analysis is required for project approval (NEWEEP, 2011).

In addition, computer programs such as WindPro are also recommended by most states and localities for use in all new planned installations to reduce this potential nuisance of shadow flicker on residential properties or potential health hazards to drivers on busy highways or roadways.

Appendix C

Wind Turbines – Ice Throw

AC.1 Ice Falling or Thrown from Wind Turbines

Under certain weather conditions ice may form on the surface of wind turbine blades. Normally, wind turbines intended for use in locations where ice may form are designed to shut down when there is a significant amount of ice on the blades. The means to prevent operation when ice is present may include ice sensor and vibration sensors. Ice sensors are used on most wind turbines in cold climates. Vibration sensors are used on nearly all wind turbines. They would cause the turbine to shut down, for example, if ice buildup on the blades resulted in an imbalance of the rotor and hence detectable vibrations in the structure.

Ice built up on blades normally falls off while the turbine is stationary. If that occurs during high winds, the ice could be blown by the wind some distance from the tower. In addition, it is conceivable that ice could be thrown from a moving wind turbine blade under some circumstances, although that would most likely occur only during startup (while the rotational speed is still relatively low) or as a result of the failure of the control system. It is therefore worth considering what the maximum plausible distance that a piece of ice could land from the turbine under two "worst case" circumstances: 1) ice falls from a stopped turbine during very high winds, and 2) ice is suddenly released from a blade when the rotor is rotating at its normal operating speed.

In both cases, the distance that the ice may travel is governed by Newton's laws and the principles of fluid mechanics. Calculations are quite simple when the effect of the air (and the wind) is ignored. For example, in that case if a piece of ice falls from a turbine, it will land directly below where it is released. The situation is a little more complex, but still readily solvable if the piece of ice is moving when it is released. For example, suppose that the ice is initially on the tip of a blade, and the blade is pointing vertically upward. Once the ice is released it will continue moving horizontally at the speed it had when it was still attached to the blade. But it will also begin to fall towards the ground, so the piece of ice will have two components of velocity until the ice hits the ground. The time t_g (s) it takes for the ice to reach the ground (assuming a horizontal surface) is $t_g = \sqrt{2h/g}$ where h = height (m) at which the ice is released and g = acceleration of gravity (9.81 m/s^2). The distance x (m) that the ice would travel is $x = t_g \Omega R$ where Ω is the rotational speed of the rotor (rad/s) and R is the length of the blade (m).

Such an analysis is overly simplified, however. It would underestimate the distance that the ice would travel if it fell from a stationary turbine in a high wind, and it would overestimate the distance that the ice would travel if it were suddenly released from a moving blade. It is necessary to consider the effect of the air and the force that it will impart upon the falling ice. For motion in the vertical (z) direction the equation of motion is the following:

$$F_z = ma_z \tag{30}$$

where F_z is the net force (N), m is the mass (kg), and a_z is the acceleration (m/s^2). The force includes two main components. One is the weight, W (N). It is due to gravity and acts in the negative z direction. The other one is due to the drag of the air and it acts opposite to the direction of the velocity. It is found from:

$$F_D = \frac{1}{2} C_D \rho A V_z^2 \tag{31}$$

where ρ is the density of air (1.225 kg/m^2 under standard conditions), A is the projected area (m^2) of the piece of ice, C_D is the drag coefficient of the ice and V_z is the velocity of the ice (m/s) in the z direction.

Acceleration is the derivative of the velocity, so we can rewrite the equation of motion for the vertical direction as follows:

$$\frac{dV_z}{dt} = \left(-W - sign(V_z) \frac{1}{2} C_D \rho A V_z^2 \right) / m \tag{32}$$

Where *sign* (…) indicates the direction of motion along the z axis. For the general case, the piece of ice may leave the blade with initial speed ΩR at an arbitrary angle θ with respect to the horizontal. Accordingly, there will be two components of the velocity, one in the z direction (as before) V_z, the other in the x direction, V_x. This assumes that the x axis is horizontal, is also in the plane of the rotor, and is positive in the direction of the tip of the blade at its apogee.

These velocities are initially:

$$V_{z,0} = \Omega R \sin(\theta) \tag{33}$$

$$V_{x,0} = \Omega R \cos(\theta) \tag{34}$$

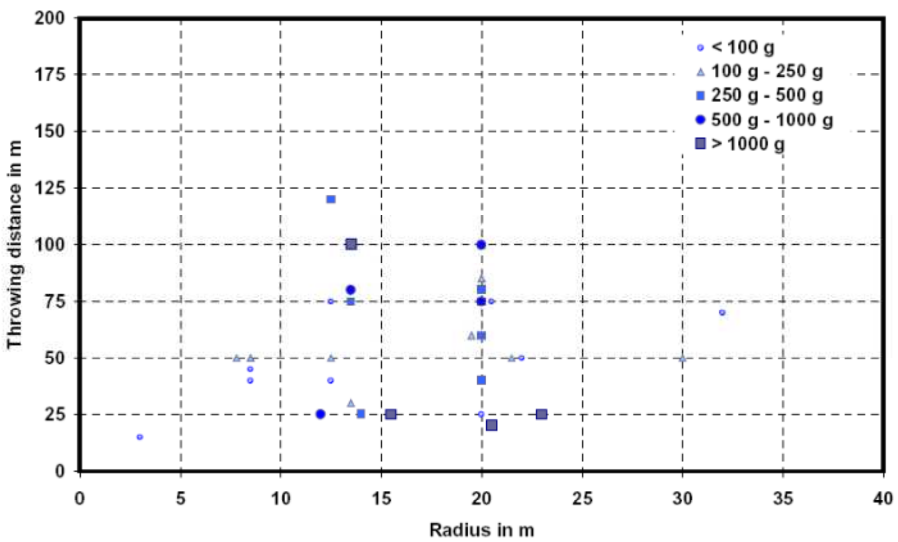
The equation of motion for the *x* direction is:

$$\frac{dV_x}{dt} = \left(-sign(V_z) \frac{1}{2} C_D \rho A V_x^2 \right) / m \tag{35}$$

The above equations are a bit difficult to solve analytically, but they can be solved numerically fairly easily. Similar equations may also be developed for the case of a particle of ice falling from a stationary turbine.

Some data from actual ice throw has been compiled by Seifert et al. (2003). Figure AC.1, taken from that report is shown below.

Figure AC.1: Observed throwing distance of ice (from Seifert et al., 2003)



As may be seen in the figure, the maximum distance that ice was observed to fall from a turbine with a diameter of 20 m during operation was approximately 100 m. Based on the observed data, Seifert et al. suggest the following simplified formula for the maximum throwing distance:

$$x_{\max,throw} = 1.5\left(2R + H\right) \tag{36}$$

Where $x_{max,throw}$ = maximum throwing distance (m), R = rotor diameter (m) and H = hub height (m).

By way of illustration, Equation 36 was used to predict the maximum throwing distance of a piece of ice from a turbine with a rotor radius of 20 m installed on a tower 50 m high. That distance was 135 m. The theoretical equations given previously were also used to calculate throwing distance. The following assumptions were made: spherically shaped piece of ice, drag coefficient of 1.2, air density of 1.225 kg/m^3, ice density of 700 kg/m^3, rotor speed of 40 rpm (corresponding to a tip speed ratio of 7 at a wind speed of 12 m/s), angle of release of 45°, and instantaneous release of the ice. The equations predict a maximum throwing distance of 226 m or somewhat less than twice that predicted from the empirical equation. The difference is deemed to be reasonable, especially considering the idealized shape of the particle. Real pieces of ice would actually be highly non-spherical in shape and experience considerably more drag. It may also be noted that it was reported in Cattin et al. (2007) that ice did not fall as far from a wind turbine in the Swiss Alps as would be predicted from Equation 36. In that case the maximum observed distance from a turbine with radius of 20 m and a tower height of 50 m was 92 m. As noted above, Equation 36 predicts 135 m.

Seifert et al. also considered data regarding ice thrown from stationary turbines. Based on the available data they proposed a simple equation for predicted ice fall. That equation is

$$x_{\max,\,fall} = U\left(R + H\right)/15 \tag{37}$$

Where U = wind speed at hub height in m/s, $x_{max,fall}$ = maximum falling distance (m), R = rotor radius (m), H = hub height (m).

Using Equation 37, the predicted maximum distance for a turbine with a radius of 20 m, a tower height of 50 m, and a wind speed of 20 m/s is 120 m. By way of comparison, the fall distance was predicted from the theoretical equations given above for the same situation. The results are highly dependent on the size of the piece of ice and hence the surface to volume ratio. To take one example, a piece of ice that was assumed to be spherical and to have a weight of 10 g would land 110 m from the tower. In the examples discussed by Seifert et al., all the pieces of ice landed less than 100 m from the tower.

AC.2 Summary of Ice Throw Discussion

As noted above, there are two plausible scenarios in which ice may fall from a wind turbine and may land at some distance from the tower. In the first scenario, ice that falls from a stationary turbine is blown some distance from the tower. In the second scenario, ice is thrown from the blade of an operating turbine during a failure of the control system. In the first case, ice may land 100 m or more from the tower in high winds, depending on the wind speed, the height from which the ice falls, and the dimensions of the ice. In the second case, the ice could land even further from the turbine. Just how far would depend on the actual speed of the rotor when the ice was shed, the height of the tower, the length of the blade, the angular position of the blade when the ice was released, and the size and shape of the ice. In general, it appears that ice is unlikely to land farther from the turbine than its maximum vertical extent (tower height plus the radius.)

Appendix D

Wind Turbine – Noise Introduction

Noise is defined simply as unwanted sound. Sound is defined as the sensation produced by stimulation of the organs of hearing by vibrations transmitted through the air or other medium. In air, the transmission is due to a repeating cycle of compressed and expanded air. The frequency of the sound is the number of times per second, Hertz (Hz), that the cycle repeats. Sound at a single frequency is called a tone while sound that is a combination of many frequencies is called broadband.

The human ear is capable of responding over a frequency range from approximately 20 Hz to 20 kHz (Hz: Hertz = 1 cycle/second; Middle C on a piano is a frequency of 262 Hz).

AD.1 Sound Pressure Level

Sound is characterized by both its frequency and its amplitude. Sound pressure is measured in micro Pascals (μPa). Because sound pressure can vary over a wide range of magnitudes a logarithmic scale is used to convert micro Pascals to decibels. Thus sound pressure level (SPL) is defined by SPL = $10 \log_{10} [p^2/p^2_{ref}] = 20 \log_{10}(p/p_{ref})$ with the resulting number having the units of decibels (dB). The reference pressure p_{ref} for airborne sound is 20×10^{-6} Pa (i.e., 20μPa or 20 micro Pascals). This means that SPL of 0 dB corresponds to a sound wave with amplitude 20μPa. 140 dB is considered the threshold of pain and corresponds to 20,000,000 μPa. Doubling the amplitude of the sound wave increases the SPL by 6 dB.

Therefore, a 40μPa amplitude sound wave would have an SPL of about 6 dB.

When it is stated that there is a large frequency range over which humans can hear, it is also noted that the ear does not hear each frequency similarly. In fact, there is a frequency-dependent threshold of hearing (lower limit) and threshold of pain (higher limit). Experiments have been performed to determine these thresholds. The threshold of hearing curves show that one can hear a tone at 3 kHz (3000 Hz) with an SPL < 0 dB while at 100 Hz one does not hear the tone until its SPL is about 30 dB. Curves showing the thresholds can be easily found in textbooks and online (one online example is at

http://www.santafevisions.com/csf/html/lectures/007_hearing_II.htm). Experiments have also been conducted to determine equal loudness level contours. These contours indicate when two tones of dissimilar frequencies appear to be equally loud.

Some characteristics of human response to sound include:

- Changes in sound level <1 dB cannot be perceived
- Doubling the magnitude of the acoustic pressure leads to a 6 dB increase in SPL
- A 5 dB SPL change will result in a noticeable community response
- A 10 dB SPL change is subjectively heard as an approximate doubling in loudness

AD.2 Frequency Bands

Most sounds in our environment contain multiple frequencies and are variable in that successive identical experiments cannot result in the exact same plot or tabulation of pressure vs. time. Therefore, it is common to use averages that measure approximately the amplitude of the sound and its frequency content. Common averaging methods rely on the principle of octaves, such as 1/10, 1/3, and single octave bands. This means that the entire frequency range is broken into chunks such that the relation between the starting and ending frequencies of each chunk, f_1 and f_2 respectfully, are related by $f_2 = 2^{1/N}f_1$ where N = 1 for a single octave band and 3 for a 1/3 octave band. Because the bands can be constructed based on any starting frequency, a standardized set of bands have been specified. They are usually described by the center frequency of each band. The standard octave-bands are given in Table AD.1 (measured in Hz):

Table AD.1:

Octave bands. Values given in Hz.

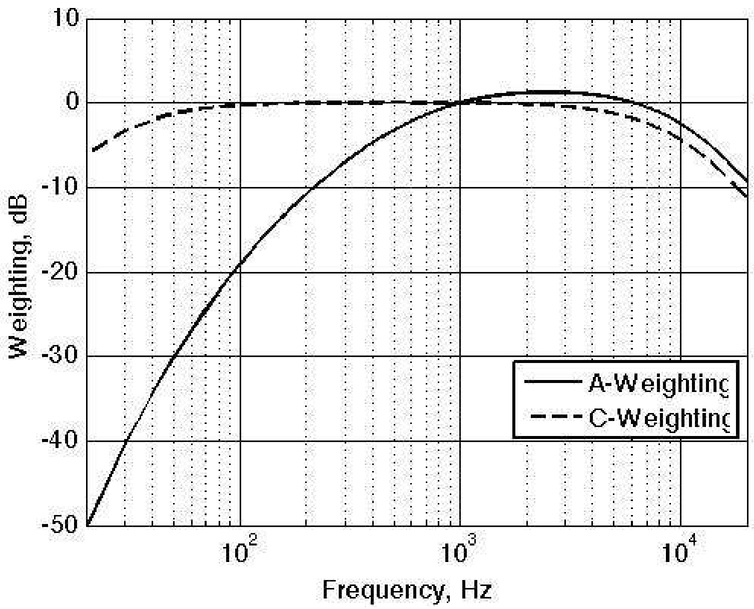
Center Frequency	Lower Band limit	Upper Band Limit
16	11	22
31.5	22	44
63	44	88
125	88	177
250	177	355
500	355	710
1000	710	1420
2000	1420	2840
4000	2840	5680
8000	5680	11360
16000	11360	22720

A similar set of bands can be written for the 1/3 octaves. For each octave band there are 3-1/3 octave bands. Many text and online resources specify the 1/3 octave bands such as (http://www.engineeringtoolbox.com/octave-bands-frequency-limits-d_1602.html). The 1/10 octave band is a narrow-band filter and is used when the sound contains important tones.

AD.3 Weightings

Noise data are often presented as 1/3 octave band measurements. Again, this means that the sound in each frequency band has been averaged over that frequency range. Noise levels are also often reported as weighted values. The most common weighting is A weighting. It was originally intended to be such that sounds of different frequencies giving the same decibel reading with A weighting would be equally loud. The weighting of the octave band centered at 31.5 Hz requires one to subtract 39.4 dB from the actual SPL. The octave bands with centers from 1000 to 8000 where human hearing is most sensitive are corrected by only about +/- 1 dB. When considered together with the threshold of hearing, it is clear that the A-weighting is most applicable for sounds of small amplitude. C-weighting on the other hand subtracts only a few dB from the very highest and very lowest frequency bands. It is therefore more applicable for higher levels of sound. The figure below shows these two weightings. When weighted, the sound pressure level is reported as dBA or dBC respectively.

Figure AD.1: Weighting values for reporting sound pressure levels



.

Noise levels change several times per day. To account for these differences other environmental noise measures are often used as shown in Table AD1.

Table AD 2:

A set of visual examples for these measures can be found at (*http://www.epd.gov.hk/epd/noise_education/web/ENG_EPD_HTML/m2/types_3.html*)

Indicator	**Meaning**
L_{max}	The maximum A-weighted sound level measured
L_{10}, L_{50}, L_{90}	The A-weighted sound level that is exceeded n%, of the time, where n is 10, 50, and 90 respectively. During the measurement period L_{90} is generally taken as the background sound level.
L_{eq}	Equivalent sound level. The average A-weighted sound pressure level, which gives the same total energy as the varying sound level during the measurement period of time.
Ldn	Day-night level. The average A-weighted sound level during a 24-hour day after addition of 10 dB to levels measured in the night between 10 p.m. and 7 a.m.

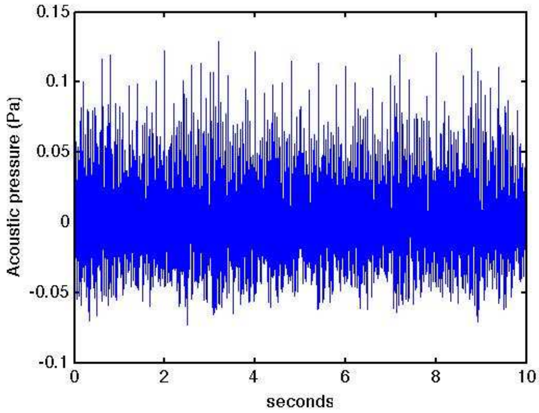
AD.4 Sound Power

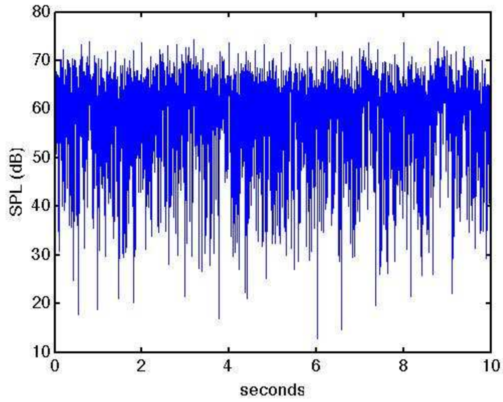
Sound intensity and sound power are also often reported. Sound intensity is a measure of the energy transported per unit area and time in a certain direction. It can be shown that the intensity (I) perpendicular to the direction of sound propagation is related to the amplitude of the pressure wave squared, the density of the air (ρ), and the speed of sound (c), $I \sim p^2/\rho c$. The sound power, P, is the total intensity passing through a surface around a sound source. Intensity has units of Watts per square meter (W/m^2) and Power is measured in Watts (W). Both of these quantities are normally reported in dB where the intensity level is calculated as $L_I = 10 \log_{10} (|I|/I_{ref})$ and the power level is calculated as $L_W = 10 \log_{10}(P/P_{ref})$. The reference intensity level is related to the threshold of hearing at 1000 Hz such that $I_{ref} = 10^{-12}$ W/m^2. The reference power value is $P_{ref} = 10^{-12}$ W (1 picowatt). Here a doubling of the power leads to a 3 dB increase in the sound power level (PWL).

AD.5 Example Data Analysis

This is an example of the type of analysis done on sound measurements from a wind turbine. First, the actual signal might look something like what is shown in Figure AD.2.

Figure AD.2: Pressure signal from a wind turbine

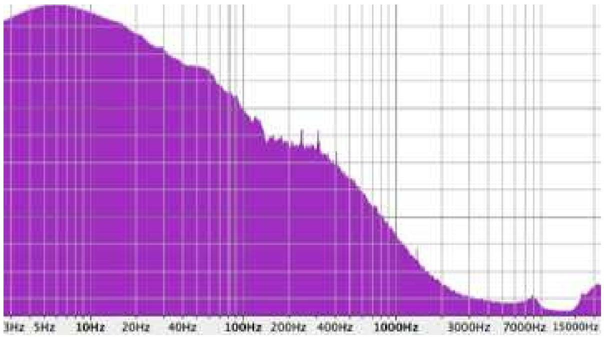




. *(From(van den Berg, 2011), related to Rheine wind turbine farm). Left in Pascals, right as SPL in dB.*

In Figure AD.2, just the acoustic pressure is shown, which means that atmospheric pressure, which is about 103,000 Pa, has been subtracted and the fluctuations then appear around 0 Pa. These data can easily be presented as SPL by transforming the pressure from Pa to dB. In order to analyze the pressure signal for low frequency content, a much longer time signal must be obtained. The frequency content of a long time signal is analyzed by performing a Fourier Transform. A typical transform of data from a wind turbine is shown in Figure AD.3.

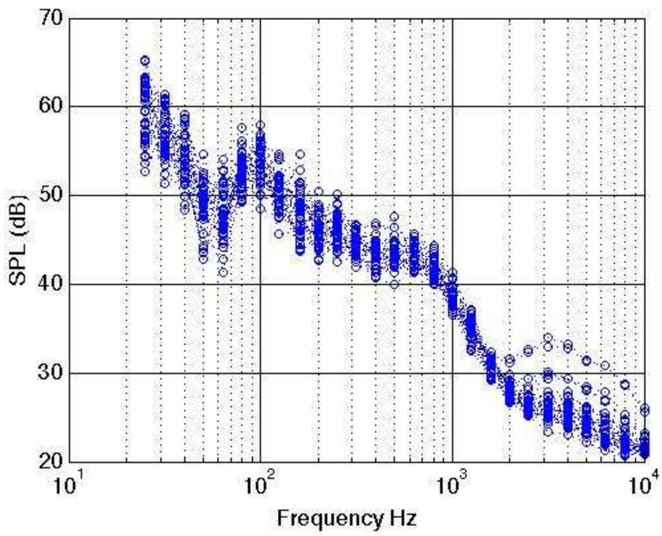
Figure AD.3: Frequency content of typical wind turbine measurement. (from Palmer ASA paper.)



(This figure does not correspond to the Rheine data for which the writer is not able to produce the full frequency domain plot.)

In order to better assess the broadband nature of wind turbine sound, the results are presented in 1/3-octave band form. The averages that are taken in each 1/3-octave band can be done on fast or slow time intervals. For instance, the data in Figure 3 could be averaged on 1/3-octave bands to come up with the overall SPL in the bands. Or, as a measurement is being taken, the instrumentation can provide 1/3-octave band averages on short time scales. For the Rheine data a fast average on 0.05 seconds was recorded. A few of the 1/3-octave band results are shown in Figure AD.4.

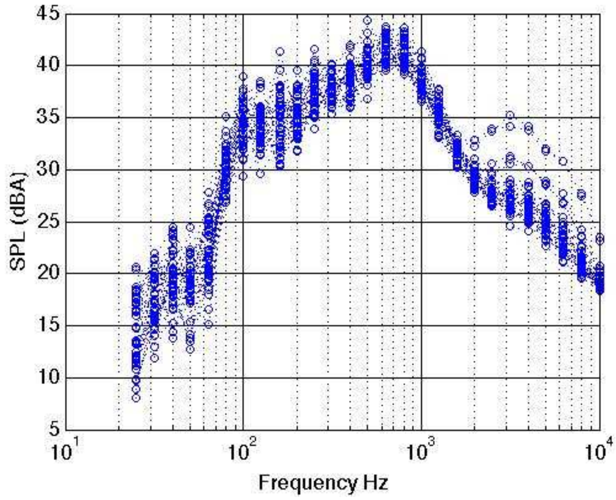
Figure AD.4: Fast averages for 1/3-octave band analysis.



Shown results for 0–0.05, 5–0.05, 10–10.05, …, 200–200.05 seconds.

From these a final overall spectrum emerges. If these were presented as A-weighted spectrum, then Figure AD.5 is what is presented.

Figure AD.5: Fast averages for 1/3-octave band A-weighted analysis.



Shown results for 0–0.05, 5–0.05, 10–10.05, …, 200–200.05 seconds.

AD.6 Wind Turbine Noise from Some Turbines

What is known about aerodynamically generated noise from wind turbines is that it nominally increases with increasing wind speed until the max power is obtained, and it increases with increasing rotor tip speed. A report out of the Netherlands by (van den Berg et al., 2008) reports a vast amount of noise data related to wind turbines. The tables in Appendices B and C from the report clearly show these trends. Some of the data are reproduced here. Only measurements that were made by third parties (not specified by the wind turbine company) are reproduced here.

Table AD.3:

Sound power level in dB(A) from various wind turbines. (van den Berg et al., 2008).

Manufacturer **Make and model**	**Power** **kW**	**Hub Height** **m**	**Diameter** **m**	**rpm**	**4 m/s**	**5m/s**	**7m/s**	**8m/s**	**10m/s**
Enron TW1.5s	1500	80	70	11	100	100	100	100	
Enron TW1.5s	1500	81	70	22		102	102	103	104
NegMicon NM52	900	70	52	15	93	93			
NegMicon NM52	900	70	52	22		98	100	101	103
NegMicon NM54	950	46	54	15		95.6			
NegMicon NM54	950	46	54	22		101.6			
Vesta V66	1650	70	66	15	97	97	98	98	
Vesta V66	1650	70	66	19		101	101	102	102

It must be noted here that what has been reported are the sound power levels, which represents the total sound energy that propagates away from the wind turbine (i.e., the sound energy at the center of the blades, which propagates outward at the height of the hub). The sound level measured at a single position at the base of the turbine can easily be 50 dB lower (Lawrence rep.).

AD.7 Definition of Infrasound

Discussion of the aerodynamic source of sound known as thickness noise or self-noise requires one to define low frequency sound and infrasound. By definition, infrasound is a pressure wave that is not audible. Nominally this means waves with frequency less than 20 Hz. It is noted though that waves with high enough amplitude below 20 Hz may still be audible. Low frequency sound is characterized as having a frequency between 20 and 200 Hz. As mentioned earlier, some mechanical noise sources contribute to the low frequency range, and clearly some of the aerodynamic sources of broadband sound will contribute to noise in the low frequency range. Thickness noise, if present, would have an associated frequency equal to the blade passing frequency. Hence, a turbine with 3-bladed rotor turning at 20 rpm might generate thickness noise at a frequency of 1 Hz, which is clearly in the infrasonic range. Downwind rotors produce slightly stronger infrasound at the blade passing frequency because the blades interact directly with the wake behind the tower. The levels of the thickness noise generated by modern upwind turbines are not perceptible by the human auditory system. Any impulsive noise that is audible, which seems to have a frequency equivalent to the blade passing frequency, is actually the broadband noise generated by the other mechanisms being modified by differences in the flow that occur on a once-per-rev basis as discussed above. The frequencies of this pulsating sound are all in the audible range, and thus this sound is not infrasound.

Appendix E

Wind Turbine – Sound Power Level Estimates and Noise Propagation

AE.1 Approximate Wind Turbine Sound Power Level Prediction Models

The following are some approximate equations that are sometimes used to estimate the A-weighted sound power level, L_{WA}, from a typical wind turbine. The first equation gives the estimate in terms of the rated power of the turbine, P_{WT} (W). The second gives the estimate in terms of the diameter, D (m). The third gives it in terms of both the tip speed, V_{Tip} (m/s), and diameter. These equations should only be used when test data is not available.

$$L_{WA} = 10(\log_{10} P_{WT}) + 50 \tag{38}$$

$$L_{WA} = 22(\log_{10} D) + 72 \tag{39}$$

$$L_{WA} = 50(\log_{10} V_{Tip}) + 10(\log_{10} D) - 4 \tag{40}$$

AE.2 Sound Power Levels due to Multiple Wind Turbines

When multiple wind turbines are located close to each other, the total sound power can be estimated by applying logarithmic relations. For example, for two turbines with sound power levels L_{W1} and L_{W2}, the total sound power is:

$$L_{total} = 10 \log_{10} (10^{L_1/10} + 10^{L_2/10}) \tag{41}$$

For N turbines, the corresponding relation is:

$$L_{total} = 10 \log_{10} \sum_{i=1}^{N} 10^{L_i/10} \tag{42}$$

where L_{wi} is the sound power level of the i^{th} turbine. For turbines that are some distance away from each other the mathematics is more complicated, and the relations of interest (actually the sound pressure level) take into account the relative position of the turbines and the location of the observer as described below.

AE.3 Noise Propagation from Wind Turbines

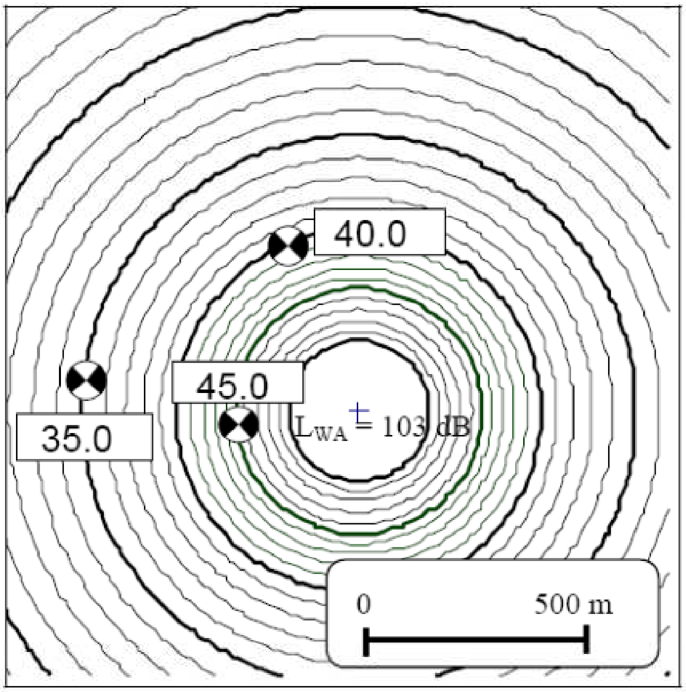
The sound pressure level will decrease with distance from a turbine. For estimation purposes, a simple model based on hemispherical noise propagation over a reflective surface, including air absorption, is given as:

$$L_p = L_W - 10 \log_{10}(2\pi R^2) - \alpha R \quad (43)$$

where L_p is the sound pressure level (dB) a distance R from a noise source radiating at a power level L_W (dB) and α is the frequency-dependent sound absorption coefficient. For broadband estimates the absorption coefficient is often approximated by a constant value of 0.005 dB(A)/m.

Figure AE.1 (from Materialien 63) indicates the sound pressure level as a function of distance from a single wind turbine with a sound power level of 103 dB(A).

Figure AE.1: Typical sound pressure level vs. distance from a single wind turbine (From Materialien 63)



The results are summarized in Table AE-1.

Table AE-1

Sound pressure level vs. distance

Sound Pressure, dB(A)	**Distance, m**
45	280
40	410
35	620

It may be seen that Equation 43, using the broadband absorption coefficient, predicts results close to those in the table (270 m, 435 m, and 675 m respectively).

AE.4 Noise Propagation from Multiple Wind Turbines

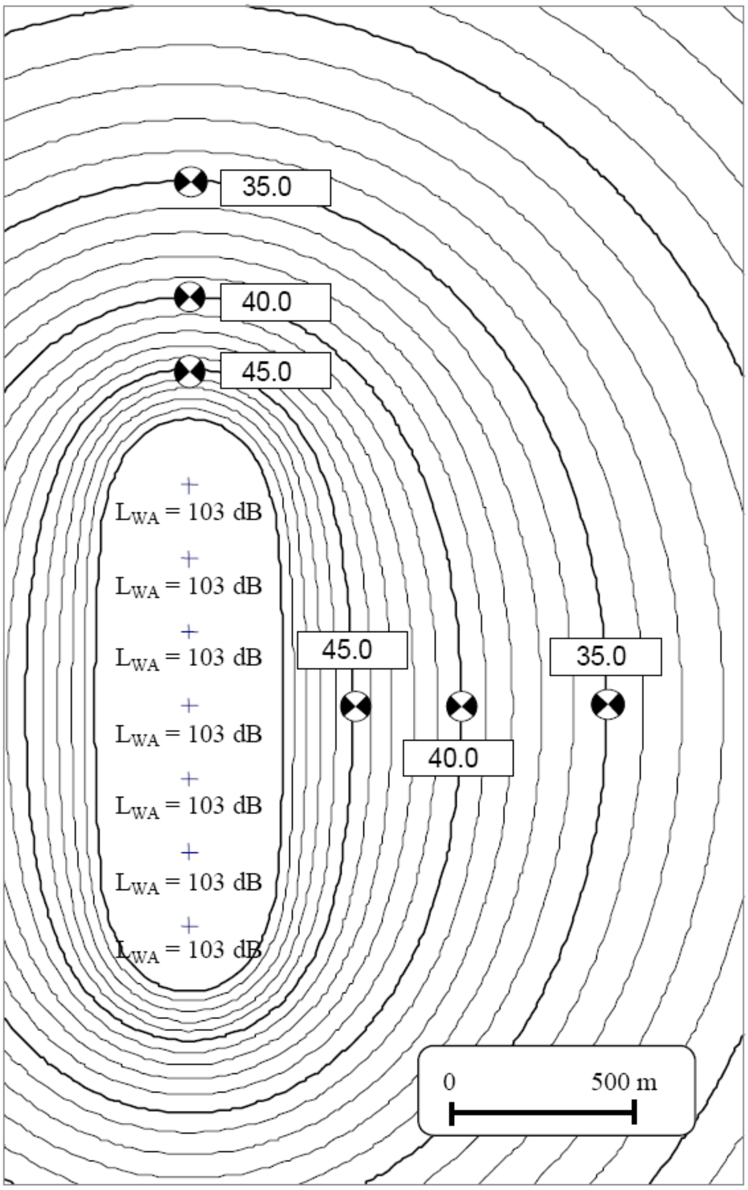
The sound perceived at a distance from multiple wind turbines is a function of the sound power level from each wind turbine and the distance to that turbine. The perceived value can be approximated by the following equation:

$$L_p = 10\log_{10}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N}\frac{10^{\left(L_{W,i}/10-\alpha R_i/10\right)}}{2\pi R_i^2}\right] \qquad (44)$$

Where R_i is the distance to the ith turbine.

Figure AE-2 illustrates the sound pressure level at various distances and directions from a line of seven wind turbines, each of which is operating at a sound power level of 103 dB(A).

Figure AE.2: Sound pressure level due to a line of seven wind turbines, each operating at a sound power level of 103 dB(A) (from Materialien 63



The results are summarized in the Table AE-2.

Table AE 2:

The distances shown are in the direction perpendicular to the line of the turbines

Sound Pressure, dB(A)	**Distance**
45	440
40	740
35	1100

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Appendix F

Wind Turbine – Stall vs. Pitch Control Noise Issues

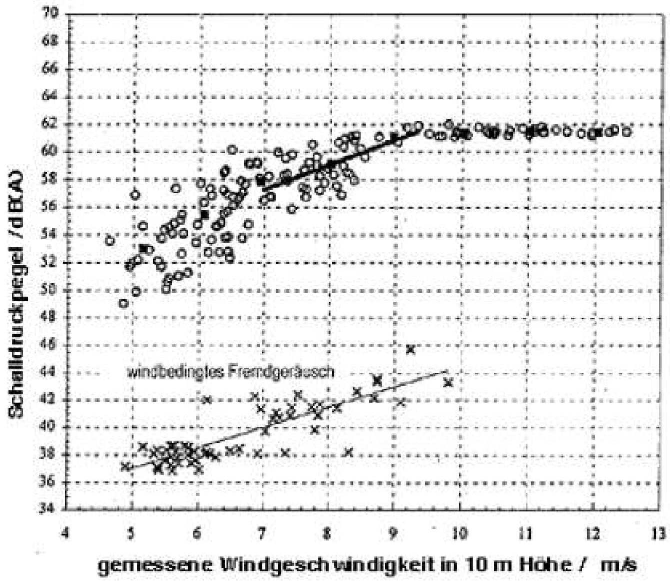
As noted in Appendix A, pitch regulated turbines are quieter than those with stall control. This is particularly the case at higher wind speeds. This appendix illustrates the difference, based on one source.

AF.1 Typical Noise from Pitch Regulated Wind Turbine

The figure below illustrates sound pressure level as a function of wind speed from a pitch regulated wind turbine (The data was taken at an unspecified distance from the turbine).

As can be seen, the noise level increases with wind speed up to a certain wind speed, here 9 m/s. After that wind speed is reached the blade pitch regulates the power and the noise level remains constant.

Figure AF.1: Sound pressure vs. wind speed from a pitch regulated wind turbine (from Materialien 63)



y-axis: sound pressure level, dB(A)

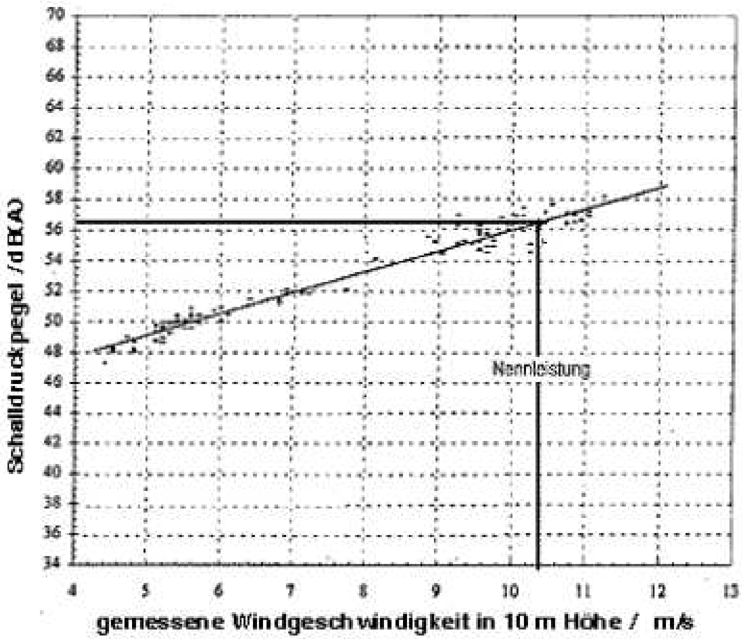
x- axis measured wind speed at 10 m height, m/s

lower line: wind-induced background noise

AF.2 Noise from a Stall Regulated Wind Turbine

The figure below illustrates sound pressure level as a function of wind speed from a stall controlled wind turbine (The data was taken at an unspecified distance from the turbine).

Figure AF.2: from Materialien 63



y-axis: sound pressure level, dB(A)

x- axis measured wind speed at 10 m height, m/s

The rated wind speed of this turbine is 10.4 m/s

As can be seen, the noise level increases approximately linearly with wind speed and does not level off.

Appendix G

Summary of Lab Animal Infrasound and Low Frequency Noise (IFLN) Studies

Table AG.1

Summary of Lab Animal Infrasound and Low Frequency Noise (IFLN) Studies

Study #	Animal Model	Endpoint	"Dose"	Timing	Measured Effects	Notes	Citation
1	Male Sprague-Dawley rats; 32 rat, 10 wks	Cardiac: ultrastructure observations, Ca2+, SERCA2 expression	5 Hz at 130 dB 5 Hz at 130 dB 5 Hz at 130 dB	2 hrs - 1 day 2 hrs - 7 days 2 hrs - 14 days	inc in [Ca2+]i; sig inc. SERCA2 inc in [Ca2+]i; Sig decr. In SERCA2 compared with control & 1 day inc in [Ca2+]i; Sig decin SERCA2 compared with control and 7 day group	No noted observation of frank toxicity. Responses increased across groups; heart rates increased in 1 day group, not in others; left ventricular pressures increased with dose chamber; Animal dose is at or slightly below 5 Hz/130 dB; Pentobarb anesthesia	Pei et al., 2007
2	Male Adult Sprague-Dawley rats	Cardiac: whole-cell L-type Ca2+ currents (WLCC) in rat ventricular myocytes	5 Hz at 130 dB	2 hrs - 1 day; examined 1, 7 or 14 days post-exposure	Inc in [Ca2+](I) levels, LCC & SERCA2	No noted observation of frank toxicity. [Ca2+](I) levels as well as expression of LCC and SERCA2 may contribute to the infrasound exposure-elicited cardiac response; cannot concur with micrograph data	Pei et al., 2009
3	Male Sprague-Dawley rats	Neuronal release of stress-induced hormones	16 Hz at 130 dB	2 hrs - single exposure	activation of microglial cells and upregulation of Corticotrophin releasing hormone receptor (CRH R1); also upregulation expression is blocked by antalarmin	No noted observation of frank toxicity. .Measured in the hypothalamic paraventricular neurons. Antalarmin is a non-peptide drug that blocks the CRF-1 receptor, and, as a consequence, reduces the release of ACTH in response to chronic stress	Du et al., 2010
4	Male Sprague-Dawley rats	Neurogenesis	16 Hz at 130 dB	2 hrs/day - 7 days (sacrificed at 3, 6, 10, 14 & 18 days post-exposure)	Measured early migration and differentiation in newly generated progenitor cells by examining BUdR uptake in cells in the hippocampus (dentate gyrus)	No noted observation of frank toxicity. Authors conclude infrasound inhibits cell proliferation and that effects on proliferation appear to be reversible in the 18 days post exposure groupbackground - 40 dB; authors report reversibility, but the data don't support this - also, comparisons are with the "normal" group (in chamber, but no infrasound) but no comparison with control.	Liu et al., 2010
5	Male Albino Wistar Rats	Neural: Behavioral Performance - vestibular function	16 Hz at 72-105 dB		Rota-rod Treadmill evaluation	No noted observation of frank toxicity. Rats selected for superior performance were unaffected, but inferior rats were less able to perform for as long at same exposures.	Yamamura & Kishi, 1980
6	Male Wistar rats	Neurological - biochemical	2 Hz at 105 dB 7 Hz at 122 dB 26 Hz at 124 dB	1 hr & then sac'd 1 hr & then sac'd 1 hr & then sac'd	Measured brain neurepinephrine levels Measured brain neurepinephrine levels Measured brain neurepinephrine levels	No noted observation of frank toxicity. No control to determine whether Norepi levels were due to experimental design - not well controlled.	Spyraki et al., 1978
7	Female rats - no strain given	Neural	2 Hz at 105 dB 7 Hz at 122 dB 16 Hz at 124 dB		Observations made about rats' activity	Decreased time to sleep and decreased activity. Chamber and set-up is somewhat archaic and confirmatory measures are not made.	Spyraki et al., 1978
8	adult male Sprague-Dawley rats	Neural: hippocampus -dependent spatial learning and memory	16 Hz at 130 dB	14 days	Observations made using Morris water maze, measured expression and protein levels of brain-derived neurotrophic factor-tyrosine kinase receptor B.	No noted observation of frank toxicity. Calibration of sound chamber not discussed.	Yuan et al., 2009

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Assessing Sound Emissions from Proposed Wind Farms & Measuring the Performance of Completed Projects

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A report for the Minnesota PUC
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BEST PRACTICES GUIDELINES FOR

ASSESSING SOUND EMISSIONS FROM PROPOSED WIND FARMS
and
MEASURING THE PERFORMANCE OF COMPLETED PROJECTS

October 13, 2011

Prepared for:

The Minnesota Public Utilities Commission

Under the auspices of the National Association of Regulatory Utility Commissioners (NARUC), Washington, DC.

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1.0 Introduction

The noise produced by wind turbines differs fundamentally from the noise emitted by other power generation facilities in terms of how it is created, how it propagates, how it is perceived by neighbors and how it needs to be measured. Essentially everything about it is unique and specialized techniques need to be employed in order to rationally assess potential impacts from proposed projects and to accurately measure the sound emissions from newly operational projects.

Existing ISO[1,2], and ANSI[3,4] standards that are perfectly appropriate for evaluating and measuring noise from conventional power generation and industrial facilities were not written with wind turbines in mind and contain certain provisions that make them unsuitable for application to wind turbines. For example, most test standards, quite sensibly, allow valid measurements only under low wind or calm conditions in order to preclude, or at least minimize, wind-induced directional effects, among other things. At a conventional power plant, which may operate around the clock, this requirement simply implies a wait for appropriate weather conditions. At a wind turbine project, however, there is nothing to measure during calm wind conditions, since the project is normally idle. Significant noise generation largely occurs during wind conditions that are generally above the permissible limit. At the present time, a lone standard, IEC 61400-11[5] exists for evaluating wind turbine sound levels, but only for the specific purpose of measuring the sound power level of a single unit. Sound power level is an arcane, intangible, derived quantity that is used as an input to analytical noise models and has little relevance to the sound level a wind farm is producing at someone's home. Consequently, this highly specialized test cannot be used or even adapted to serve as a way of determining whether a new multi-unit project is in compliance with a noise ordinance, for instance.

What all this suggests is that the standards and methodologies that exist for assessing and measuring noise from conventional industrial noise sources cannot be applied wholesale to wind turbine noise and completely different assessment and field measurement methodologies are required that are tailored to, and take into account, the unique circumstances and technical challenges surrounding their noise emissions. These guidelines seek to address this situation by describing suggested assessment and measurement techniques that have been developed over the past decade through field experience on roughly 70 wind projects, primarily in the Midwest and Eastern United States, nearly all of which were located in rural, yet moderately populated areas. Without question many mistakes were made in the early going into this uncharted field of study and many naïve assumptions about wind turbine noise were found to be incorrect. It is hoped that what was learned from this experience and what is summarized in these guidelines can help others circumvent this learning curve.

After a brief discussion on the nature of wind turbine noise, the following principal topics are discussed:

- Suggested design goals for new projects
- Evaluating potential noise impacts from proposed projects through noise modeling and field surveys of existing conditions
- Measuring the noise emissions from operational projects to determine compliance with design goals or regulatory limits

1.1 Executive Summary

Wind turbine noise differs fundamentally from the noise produced by other power generation and industrial sources in how it is produced, how it propagates and how it is perceived by neighbors. Because existing sound measurement standards were never written with wind turbines in mind they are largely unsuitable for use in wind turbine analyses, if only because measurements both prior to and after construction essentially must be performed in the windy conditions necessary for the project to operate – conditions that are prohibited by virtually all current test standards. Consequently, new and unique evaluation and measurement techniques must be used that are adapted to the special circumstances germane to wind turbines. These guidelines are intended to help remedy this situation by suggesting design goals for proposed project, outlining a methodology for evaluating potential impacts from new projects and describing how to accurately measure the noise emissions from operating projects.

Studies and field surveys of the reaction to operating wind projects both in Europe and the United States generally suggest that the threshold between what it is normally regarded as acceptable noise from a project and what is unacceptable to some is a project sound level that falls in a gray area ranging from about 35 to 45 dBA. Below that range the project is so quiet in absolute terms that almost no adverse reaction is usually observed and when the mean project sound level exceeds 45 dBA a certain number of complaints are almost inevitable. In view of this, it would be easy to avoid any negative impact by simply limiting the sound level from a proposed wind project to 35 dBA at all residences, but the reality is that such a stringent noise limit cannot normally be met even in sparsely populated areas and it would have the effect of preventing noise impacts by making it virtually impossible to permit and build most projects. In fairness then, any noise limit on a new project must try to strike a balance that reasonably protects the public from exposure to a legitimate noise nuisance while not completely standing in the way of economic development and project viability. It is important to realize that regulatory limits for other power generation and industrial facilities never seek or demand inaudibility but rather they endeavor to limit noise from the source to a reasonably acceptable level in terms of either an absolute limit or an allowable increase relative to the background level.

Based on the observed reaction to typical projects in United States, it would be advisable for any new project to attempt to maintain a mean sound level of 40 dBA or less outside all residences as an ideal design goal. Where this is not possible, and even that level is frequently difficult to achieve even in sparsely populated areas, a mean sound level of up to 45 dBA might be considered acceptable as long as the number of homes within the 40 to 45 dBA range is relatively small. Under no circumstances, however, should turbines be located in places where mean levels higher than 45 dBA are predicted by pre-construction modeling at residences. It is important to note that a project sound level of 40 dBA does not mean that the project would be inaudible or completely insignificant, only that its noise would generally be low enough that it would probably not be considered objectionable by the vast majority of neighbors.

Noise impact assessments for proposed projects can be absolute or relative in nature. In an absolute analysis the sound level contours from the project are plotted over a map of the turbine layout and the surrounding potentially sensitive receptors, normally permanent residences, and the sound levels are evaluated relative to the 40 and 45 dBA criteria discussed above. A relative assessment involves, as a first step, a field survey of the existing soundscape at the site followed by a noise modeling analysis. The potential impact of the project is evaluated in terms of the differential between the existing background sound level and the calculated project-only sound level, importantly, under identical wind conditions. As a general rule of thumb, an increase of up to 5 dBA above the pre-existing L_{A90} sound level is usually found to be acceptable whereas greater increases should be avoided. This design approach only holds for background levels of about 35 dBA or above. When lower background sound levels are found a design goal of 40 dBA or less at all residences should be sought.

Commercially available software packages based on ISO 9613-2 are suggested for noise modeling analyses. Recommended modeling procedures would consist of the following steps.

- Begin with a base map showing the turbine locations and all potentially sensitive receptors in and around the project area (residences, schools, churches, etc.)
- Build up the topography of the site in the noise model if the terrain features consist of hills and valleys with a total elevation difference of more than about 100 ft. – otherwise flat terrain can be assumed
- Locate point sources at the hub height of each turbine (typically 80 m)
- Use the maximum octave band sound power level spectrum, measured per IEC 61400-11, for the planned turbine model or the loudest model of those being considered
- Assume a ground absorption coefficient (A_g from ISO 9613-2) appropriate to the site area (a moderate value of 0.5 generally works well as an annual average for rural farmland)
- Assume ISO "standard day" temperature and relative humidity values of 10 deg. C/70% RH unless the prevailing conditions at the site are substantially and consistently different than that
- Plot the sound contours from the project assuming an omni-directional wind out to a level of 35 dBA
- Evaluate the potential impact of the project at residences relative to the suggested 40 and 45 dBA thresholds

A relative impact analysis is recommended whenever unusually high or low background levels are suspected at a site, the project is large or controversial, or when there is simply a desire to carry out a thorough analysis. The baseline field survey of existing environmental sound levels should:

- Use 6 to 14 measurement positions depending on the complexity of the site
- Select positions at residences (to the extent possible) that are representative of all the distinct settings that may be present within the site area, such as sheltered valleys, exposed hilltops, wooded areas, near major roadways, remote and secluded, etc.
- Monitor in continuous 10 minute intervals for a period of at least 14 days to capture a wide variety of wind and weather conditions
- Record a number of statistical parameters, giving precedence to the relatively conservative L_{A90} measure
- Use Type 1 or 2 integrating sound level meters fitted with oversize (7" diameter, or greater) windscreens
- Mount the microphones approximately 1 m above ground level, where feasible, to minimize self-induced wind noise
- Use one or more temporary weather stations at the most open and exposed measurement positions to record wind speed at microphone height and other parameters, such as rainfall.
- Apply a correction, if necessary, to the A-weighted sound levels for wind-induced, self-noise based on the microphone height anemometer readings
- Evaluate the L_{A90} results for consistency over the various measurement positions, segregating the results for different settings if there are clear and consistent differences
- Normalize the wind speed measured by the highest anemometers on all on-site met towers to a standard height of 10 m per Eqn. (7) of IEC 61400-11
- Correlate the design site-wide or individual setting background levels to the normalized wind speed to determine the mean value as a function of wind velocity
- Use the 6 m/s result as the critical design wind speed or determine the site-specific critical wind speed from a comparison between the turbine sound power and background levels
- Use the mean L_{A90} background level at the critical wind speed as a baseline for evaluating the modeled sound emissions of the project under those same conditions

The accurate measurement of noise from an operational project requires a determination of the concurrent background sound level present at the time each sample of operational noise is measured so that the wind and atmospheric conditions are consistent. Background levels measured at a different time and under inevitably different conditions are not suitable for use in correcting operational sound measurements.

The objective of an operational survey is to quantify the project-only sound level exclusive of background noise, which can easily be comparable to the project level at typical set back distances. Ignoring this background component will normally result in an overestimate of the project's actual sound levels.

A methodology is outlined in these guidelines for estimating the simultaneous background sound level by monitoring at a number of positions outside of the site area in locations and settings that are similar in nature to the on-site positions but remote from all turbine noise. In general, an operational survey to determine the sound emissions exclusively due to the project should:

- Use 6 to 10 on-site measurement positions depending on the complexity of the site and focused on the residences with maximum exposure to turbine noise (irrespective of their participation in the project)
- Set up 3 to 4 off-site background measurement positions at positions at least 1.5 miles from the project perimeter in diametrically opposed directions. These positions should be similar in setting and character to the on-site positions but removed from any exposure to project noise
- Monitor in continuous 10 minute intervals for a period of at least 14 days to capture a wide variety of wind and weather conditions
- Record a number of statistical parameters, giving precedence to the L_{A90} measure
- Use Type 1 or 2 integrating sound level meters fitted with oversize (7” diameter, or greater) windscreens
- Mount the microphones approximately 1 m above ground level, where feasible, to minimize self-induced wind noise
- Use one or more temporary weather stations at the most open and exposed measurement positions to record wind speed at microphone height and other parameters, such as rainfall.
- Apply a correction, if necessary, to the A-weighted sound levels for wind-induced, self-noise based on the microphone height anemometer readings
- Evaluate the off-site L_{A90} results for consistency over the various measurement positions, segregating the results for different settings if there are clear and consistent differences. Develop one or more design background levels to be used to correct the on-site levels.
- Subtract the appropriate design background level from the total measured level at each on-site receptor to derive the project-only sound level at each receptor position
- Normalize the wind speed measured by the highest anemometers on all on-site met towers to a standard height of 10 m per Eqn. (7) of IEC 61400-11
- Plot the derived project-only sound levels as a function of time or wind speed.
- Exclude all data points measured during calm conditions when the project was not operating
- Exclude all data points that appear to be associated with local contaminating noises; i.e. noise spikes, usually occurring at only one position, that are not accompanied by a simultaneous spike in wind speed
- Evaluate the final results with respect to the applicable design goal or ordinance limit. If the measured levels are lower than the design target at least 95% of the time the project can be considered in compliance.

2.0 Characteristics of Wind Turbine Noise

The magnitude and nature of wind turbine noise is entirely dependent on time-varying wind and atmospheric conditions, whereas a conventional fossil-fueled power station operates, often continuously and steadily, in a manner that is completely independent of the local environment. Consequently, a combustion turbine plant, for example, is most apt to be perceptible and a potential noise problem during calm and still weather conditions while a wind turbine project would, under most normal circumstances, not make any noise at all under those same conditions. During moderately windy conditions increased background noise would tend to diminish the perceptibility of the fossil fueled plant while the wind project would generally be at its loudest relative to the background level. At very high wind speeds background noise often becomes dominant to the extent it can obscure both sources.

In addition to simply being dependent on prevailing wind and atmospheric conditions, wind turbine noise usually has a distinctive, identifiable character to it that makes it more readily perceptible than other industrial sources of comparable magnitude[6,7,8]. The fundamental noise generation mechanism, the turbulent interaction of airflow over the moving blades, is dependent on the characteristics of the air mass flowing into the rotor plane. For example, when the airflow is fairly constant and steady in velocity over the swept area noise is generally at a minimum. While such ideal, laminar flow conditions may exist much of the time, particularly during the day, they do not occur all of the time, and the reality is that the wind often blows in the form of intermittent gusts separated by short periods of relative calm rather than as a smooth continuous stream of constant velocity. In addition, the flow may contain turbulent eddies, may be unstable in direction and the mean velocity may vary considerably over the vertical diameter of the rotor, which is typically in the 77 to 112 m (250 to 370 ft.) range on the utility scale turbines now in common use. These uneven and unstable airflow conditions generally cause more noise to be generated - and it is generated sporadically as each gust sweeps past and as the wind varies amorphously in speed or direction over the rotor plane. Such unstable conditions can lead to sound levels that change very noticeably in the short-term not only in general volume but also in character.

Qualitatively, under average circumstances rotor noise, as perceived at a common set back distance of around 400 m (1200 ft.), might be described as a churning, mildly periodic sound due to blade swish, particularly when there are several units at comparable distances from the point of observation. The normally non-synchronized and incoherent sounds from multiple units tend to blur the sound and minimize the perception of swish, although it is most commonly weak during “normal” circumstances even if only one unit is present. Another common description is that the noise is reminiscent of a plane flying over at fairly high altitude. This apt comparison is probably partly due to the basic similarity in frequency content of the two sounds but also to the phenomenon where the sound can fade in and out randomly. In the case of an actual plane it is the intervening non-homogeneous atmosphere that alternately enhances or hinders sound propagation from the distant source producing this effect while, in the case of the wind turbine, it is more likely to be short-term variations in noise generation at the source itself, or a combination of both source and path effects.

A pure path effect that occasionally occurs is the enhanced propagation of turbine noise due to thermal layering, known as a stable atmosphere, where the air is warmer above the surface than at the surface causing sound rays to diffract downward and making a distant sound louder than it would otherwise be. At night, this phenomenon, most likely in combination with the wind speed gradient, is most likely to lead to an increase in periodic noise (generally referred to as amplitude modulation, or AM)[9,10]. The exact mechanism behind this noise, particularly when it becomes unusually pronounced, is not entirely understood, but, in simple terms, it is thought to be caused when the wind speed at the top of the rotor is significantly higher than the wind speed at the bottom; i.e. when the vertical wind speed gradient is more slanted and less vertical, as is usually the case at night. Having said that, however, this phenomenon is not always present or particularly pronounced at all sites, but *when of sufficient magnitude*, the fairly pronounced swishing or thumping sound that can result on certain evenings can and does give rise to quite legitimate complaints. In fact, this is probably the primary cause of serious complaints about wind project noise. In general, the occurrence of this phenomenon in its pronounced or enhanced form is rather rare making detailed measurements difficult[11] but a major effort[(ibid)] is currently underway in the United Kingdom seeking to quantify and further understand this noise.

2.1 Low Frequency Noise and C-weighted Sound Levels

When the swishing, thumping or beating noise alluded to above does occurs it is usually at a rate of about once per second, or 1 Hz, which is the blade passing frequency of a typical three-bladed rotor turning at 20 rpm. Although the "frequency" of its occurrence at 1 Hz obviously falls at the very low end of the frequency spectrum, this noise is not "low frequency" or infrasonic noise, per se. It is simply a periodic noise where the actual frequency spectrum may contain some slightly elevated levels in the lower frequencies but where the most prominent noise is roughly centered around 500 Hz near the middle of the audible frequency spectrum. In general, the widespread belief that wind turbines produce elevated or even harmful levels of low frequency and infrasonic sound is utterly untrue as proven repeatedly and independently by numerous investigators[12,13,14,15,16] and probably arose from a confusion between this periodic amplitude modulation noise and actual low frequency noise. Problematic levels of low frequency noise (i.e. those resulting in perceptible vibrations and complaints) are most commonly associated with simple cycle gas turbines, which produce tremendous energy in the 20 to 50 Hz region of the spectrum – vastly more than could ever be produced by a wind turbine.

The mistaken belief that wind turbines produce high levels of low frequency noise can also be attributed, perhaps even more definitively, to wind-induced microphone error where wind blowing through virtually any windscreen will cause the low end, and only the low end, of the frequency spectrum to substantially increase due to self-generated distortion. The magnitude and frequency response of this error has been theoretically/mathematically quantified by van den Berg[10] and empirically by Hessler[17] by subjecting a variety of commonly used windscreens to known air speeds in a massively silenced wind tunnel – thereby directly measuring the frequency response to air flow alone (the specific results of this study and its applications are discussed further in Section 5.1). The results of this wind tunnel experiment were used to evaluate measurements of actual wind turbine noise at a site in Southern Minnesota by Hessler in 2008[18]. Figure 2.1.1 below shows, as an example, the frequency spectra measured under fairly windy conditions in a rural soybean field 1000 ft. from an isolated unit and, at the same time, in an identical soybean field 3 miles away from any turbines.

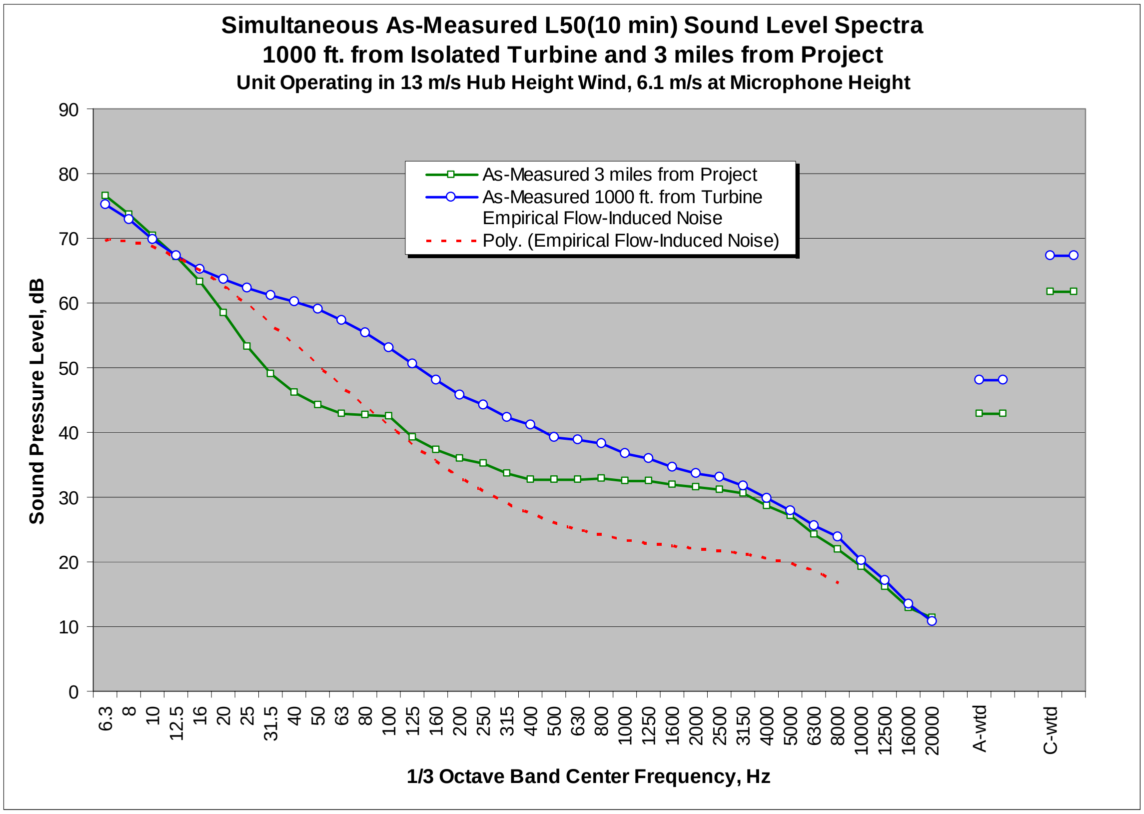

Figure 2.1.1

The two measurements show the same values in the lowest frequency bands. Since there is clearly no source of low frequency noise present in the background measurement, the low frequency levels - in both measurements – simply represent self-generated distortion and are not the actual sound emissions of anything. This can be confirmed from the wind tunnel study where the measured frequency spectrum for this particular windscreen (7" diameter) subjected to a 6.1 m/s wind is also plotted in Figure 2.1.1[a].

What all this shows is that virtually any measurement taken under moderately windy conditions will be severely affected by false-signal noise in the lower frequencies, even

[a] It should be noted that the wind tunnel results quantify the minimum amount of false-signal noise measured under more or less laminar flow conditions in the absence of possible further distortion from turbulence and atmospheric conditions.

when a large windscreen is used as in the example above. The measurement will appear to show high levels of low frequency noise - whether a wind turbine is present or not.

Figure 2.1.1 also illustrates another important point concerning C-weighted sound levels; namely, that the C-weighted levels at 1000 ft. and 3 miles are somewhat similar at 67 and 62 dBC, respectively. The significance of this is that C-weighted sound levels, as opposed to the much more common A-weighted metric, are normally used for the specific purpose of quantifying, investigating or placing a limit on noise sources that are rich in low frequency noise. The reason for this is that C-weighting does not mathematically suppress the low frequencies the way A-weighting does making it highly sensitive to and usually dominated by the low frequency content of a sound. Figure 2.1.2 shows this graphically for the example measurement at 1000 ft. from a wind turbine.

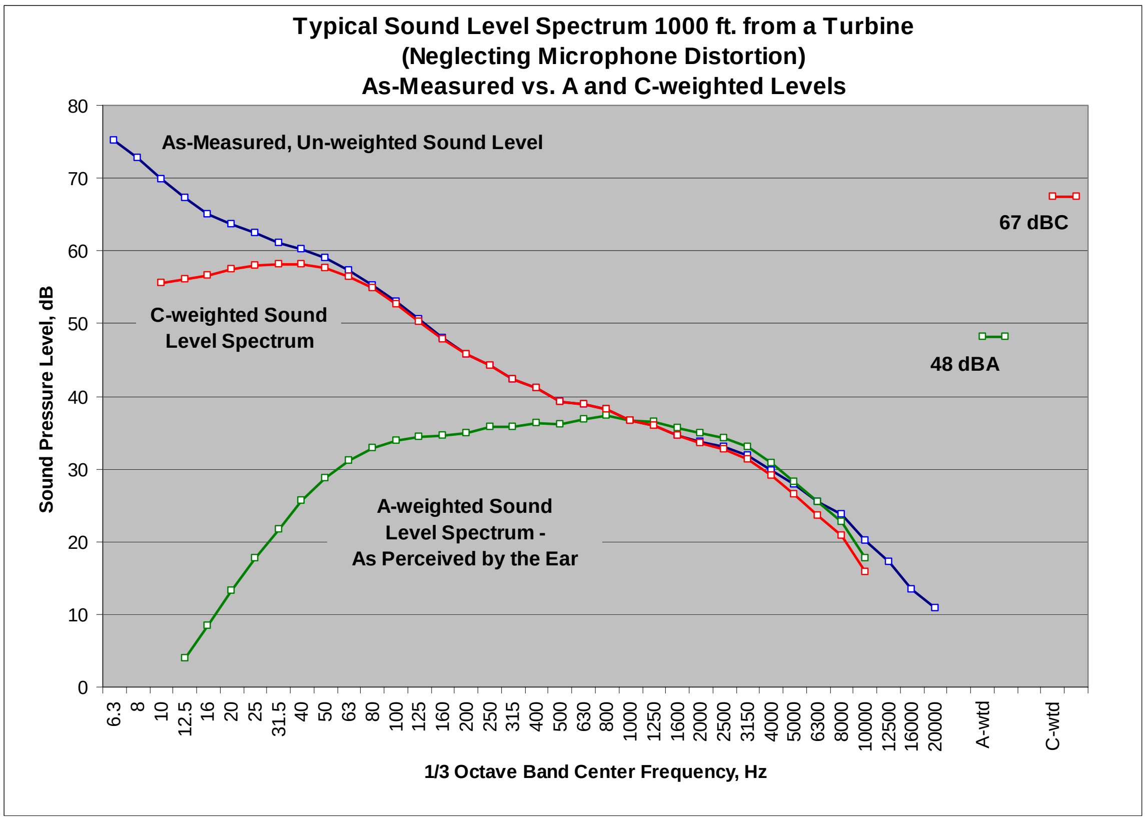

Figure 2.1.2

The as-measured sound level, warts and all, without any weighting applied is the blue trace. C-weighting reduces the low end of the frequency spectrum by a moderate amount whereas A-weighting reduces it substantially. There is no tangible or physiological rationale behind C-weighting but A-weighting serves the very useful purpose of adjusting the frequency spectrum of the sound so that it matches the way it is subjectively perceived by the human ear, which is relatively insensitive to low frequency sounds. Figure 2.1.2 shows that what is actually heard at 1000 ft. from this turbine is mid-frequency sound from roughly 100 to 2500 Hz – and even if the artificially elevated low frequency levels were actually attributable to the turbine nothing would still be audible in the low frequencies (recall that this measurement is unadjusted for low frequency false-signal noise).

The ultimate point of this discussion is that C-weighted sound levels cannot be measured in any kind of meaningful way in the windy conditions associated with turbine operation, since they essentially quantify the level of low frequency microphone distortion rather than any actual noise.

As another example, the plot below shows the C-weighted sound levels measured over a two week period at a residence surrounded by several wind turbines and simultaneously by a monitor located miles away from the project area in a similar setting (rural Midwestern farm country).

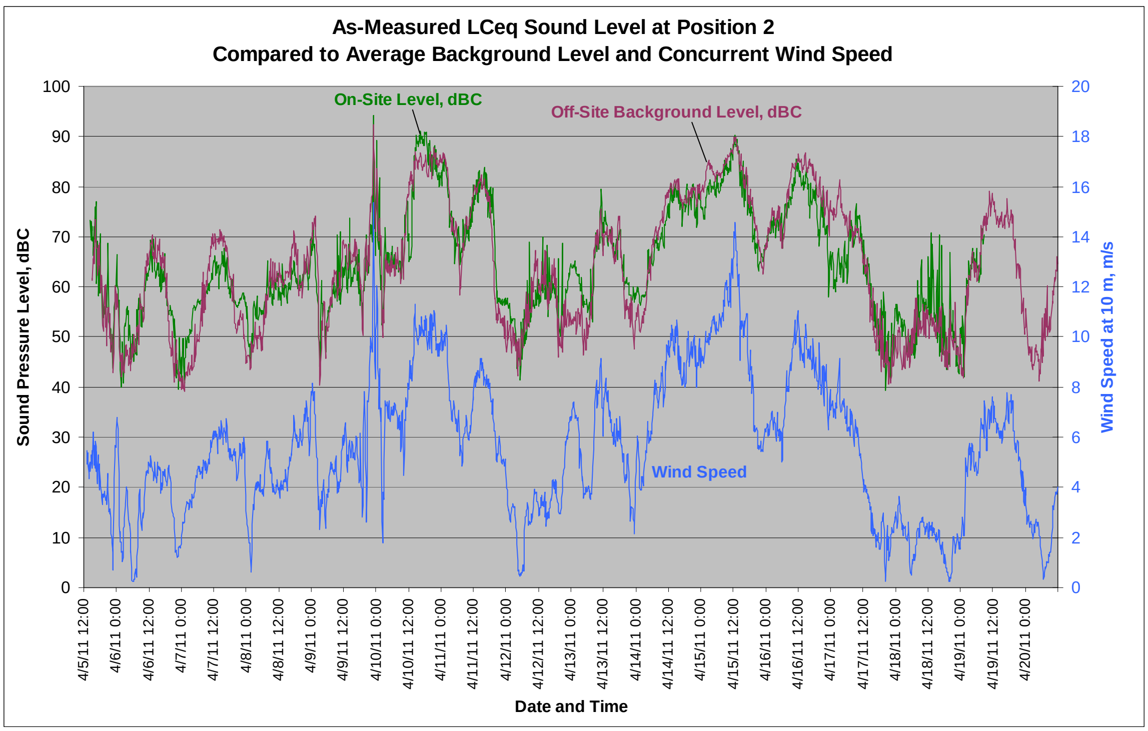

Figure 2.1.3

In essence, the levels are largely the same at both places and are more a measurement of the prevailing wind speed and its effect on the microphone rather than any real source of low frequency noise.

Consequently, despite their occasional appearance in local ordinances as an intended way of limiting the low frequency noise emissions from wind projects, by either an absolute limit or a dBA-dBC differential, C-weighted sound levels have no practical place in the measurement of wind turbine sound.

3.0 Recommended Design Goals

It would be a trivial solution to set an extremely low sound level of, say, 30 dBA as a permissible sound level for a new wind project at potentially sensitive receptors or to impose massive set back distances to any residences. While such restrictions would probably ensure that there was no adverse impact whatsoever from the project, the effective inaudibility of project noise would be due more to the fact it was never built than to its low sound emissions. Realizing virtual inaudibility or maintaining set backs of several thousand feet from all residences is generally an impracticality at all but the most remote sites. In fairness then, any noise limit on a new project must try to strike a balance that reasonably protects the public from exposure to a legitimate noise nuisance while not completely standing in the way of economic development and project viability. It is important to realize that regulatory limits for other power generation and industrial facilities never seek or demand inaudibility but rather they endeavor to limit noise from the source to a reasonably acceptable level either in terms of an absolute limit (commonly 45 dBA at night) or a relative increase over the pre-existing environmental sound level (typically 5 dBA[19]).

Research, principally by Pedersen[20,21] and Persson-Waye[22], on what the reaction is to wind turbine sound levels and what levels might be considered acceptable has been on-going for some time now in Europe. These studies analyze the responses to blind questionnaires distributed to residents living near wind farms in Sweden and The Netherlands in an effort to correlate the level of annoyance with noise and other factors with the calculated project sound level at each residence. In general, the results suggest among many other important findings that a project sound level in the 40 to 45 dBA range can lead to relatively high annoyance rates of around 20 to 25%[(ibid)]; however, it important to understand that these numbers refer to the percentage of those with exposure to such sound levels and not the entire population in the vicinity of the projects. Viewed within the context of the total survey population the rate of adverse reaction comes down to a handful of individuals or very roughly about 4 to 6% when residences are exposed to project sound levels in the 40 to 45 dBA range.

A somewhat similar rate of complaints/annoyance expressed as a percentage of the total population living within 2000 ft. of a turbine was found by Hessler[23] during compliance sound testing at a number of typical, newly operational wind projects in the United States. In each survey the total number of residents where complaints or even mild concerns about noise had been called in was obtained from project operations and the actual sound levels at all of these locations were measured over 2 to 3 week periods. The fundamental results are summarized in the following table.

Table 3.0.1 *Number of Observed Complaints Relative to the Total Number of Households in Close Proximity to Turbines [Hessler, 23]*

Project	Total Households in the Site Area (Approx.)	Number of Complaints as a Function of Project Sound Level (dBA) (a)			Total Number of Complaints	Percentage Relative to Total Households
		< 40	40 - 44	45 or Higher		
Site A	107	0	2	1	3	3%
Site B	147	0	3	3	6	4%
Site C	151	0	3	0	3	2%
Site D	268	0	2	4	6	2%
Site E	91	1	1	4	6	7%
					Overall Average:	4%
(a) Sound levels expressed as long-term, mean values						

Although the purpose of these surveys was to confirm compliance with regulatory noise and not specifically to evaluate community reaction, the findings, taken together with the European research mentioned above, suggest that the vast majority of residents living within or close to a wind farm have no substantial objections to project noise, particularly if the mean sound level is below 40 dBA. It is important to add that all of the sites investigated in these studies were just as prone as any other site to all the adverse character issues mentioned above, such as amplitude modulation, stable atmospheric conditions, highly variable sound levels and higher nighttime noise levels. While the possibility of annoyance, if not serious disturbance, can almost never be completely ruled out, it appears that the total number of complaints would be fairly small as long as the mean project level does not exceed 40 dBA. Above that point, specifically in the 40 to 45 dBA range, complaints can be expected with some certainty but, as indicated in Table 3.0.1, still at a fairly low rate of about 2% relative to the total population in close proximity to the project.

Consequently, it would be advisable for any new project to attempt to maintain a mean sound level of 40 dBA or less outside all residences as an ideal design goal. Where this is not possible, and it frequently is difficult to achieve even in sparsely populated areas, sound levels of up to 45 dBA might be considered acceptable as long as the number of homes within the 40 to 45 dBA range is relatively small. Under no circumstances, however, should turbines be located in places where mean levels higher than 45 dBA are predicted by pre-construction modeling at residences. A project sound level of 40 dBA does not mean that the project would be inaudible or completely insignificant, only that its noise would generally be low enough that it would probably not be considered objectionable by the vast majority of neighbors based on the actual reaction to other projects.

It is important to note that the sound levels in Table 3.0.1 and the suggested sound level targets discussed above are mean, long-term values and not instantaneous maxima. Wind turbine sound levels naturally vary above and below their mean or average value due to wind and atmospheric conditions and can significantly exceed the mean value at times. Extensive field experience measuring operational projects indicates that sound levels commonly fluctuate by roughly +/- 5 dBA about the mean trend line and that short-lived (10 to 20 minute) spikes on the order of 15 to 20 dBA above the mean are occasionally observed when atmospheric conditions strongly favor the generation and propagation of noise. Because no project can be designed so that all such spikes would remain below the 40 or 45 dBA targets at all times, these values are expressed as long-term mean levels, or the central trend through data collected over a period of several weeks.

4.0 Noise Impact Assessments

4.1 Noise Modeling

The principal mechanism for evaluating the potential impact of a proposed wind project is to analytically model its noise emissions. A sound level contour map showing the expected sound emissions from the project relative to all the residences in the area is essentially a graphic illustration of the potential impact. It follows from the preceding discussion of ideal design goals that predicted levels below 40 dBA at residences can be associated with a relatively low adverse impact, while higher levels, particularly those higher then 45 dBA, suggest a relatively high probability of serious complaints.

Because there are few options to reduce noise from a project once it becomes operational, any necessary noise abatement must essentially be designed into the project while it is still in the planning stage. Computer modeling allows the potential noise impact to be visualized but, importantly, also allows mitigation options to be explored, since the effects of relocating or removing individual turbines or using alternate turbine models can be easily evaluated. Such optimization studies are best performed early in the development process while there is still some flexibility to move things around. This process can be repeated iteratively as the design develops and lease and easement agreements evolve to help keep community noise levels as low as possible within the context, of course, of many other constraints.

4.1.1 *Acceptable Sound Propagation Standards*

Wind turbine noise is actually rather simple to model because the project consists of more or less ideal point sources located high in the air. Consequently, the dominant sound propagation factor is simply spherical wave spreading with distance, which is an axiomatic law of physics that is built into every modeling software package. All other effects, such as ground or air absorption, are minor subtleties by comparison so great sophistication in modeling software is not required. In fact, all that is really necessary is to calculate sound propagation from the project using ISO 9613-2 *Acoustics – Attenuation of sound during propagation outdoors. Part 2: General method of calculation* (1996)[24], which is, by far, the prevailing and most widely accepted worldwide standard for such calculations and the basis for essentially every commercial noise modeling program.

Like the other test standards alluded to in the introduction, ISO 9613-2 was not written with wind turbines in mind and its applicability to elevated sources (usually 80 m) and long propagation distances is occasionally questioned. Table 5 in the standard gives the estimated accuracy of the method for noise sources up to 30 m high and for propagation distances up to 1000 m. This 30 m height figure is sometimes interpreted to mean that the standard cannot be used for 80 m high sources, but it is just that no specific accuracy estimate is given for such cases, not that the standard is inappropriate. As mentioned earlier, the principal sound propagation loss in wind turbine modeling is simple geometric spreading of the sound wave, which is a phenomenon that has no dependence on the specific point of origin or its height above ground level.

Source height is a factor, however, in the relatively minor ground absorption loss (i.e. the tendency of the ground surface to variously absorb or reflect sound waves) but measurements of actual wind turbine sound levels vs. predictions show reasonably good agreement indicating that the calculation of the ground absorption loss and, indeed, the entire methodology, is perfectly valid for wind turbines.

Having said that, it should be noted that ISO 9613-2 does not consider atmospheric conditions, such as the wind and temperature gradients, stability, turbulence, etc., and was always intended to portray very long-term or average propagation conditions under slightly conservative downwind conditions. Consequently, the model results using this standard need to be interpreted as the expected sound level under "average" conditions, meaning that the actual sound level will be close to the prediction much of the time but higher *and* lower levels will occur with about equal regularity due to fluctuating atmospheric conditions, which affect both the generation and propagation of wind turbine noise. The plot below shows a typical comparison between the measured project-only sound levels over a two week period compared to predictions at various wind speeds. The model predictions tend to agree with the central trend line. The scatter evident in this chart is normal and inevitable and reflects the natural variability of wind turbine sound levels as observed at a distant point.

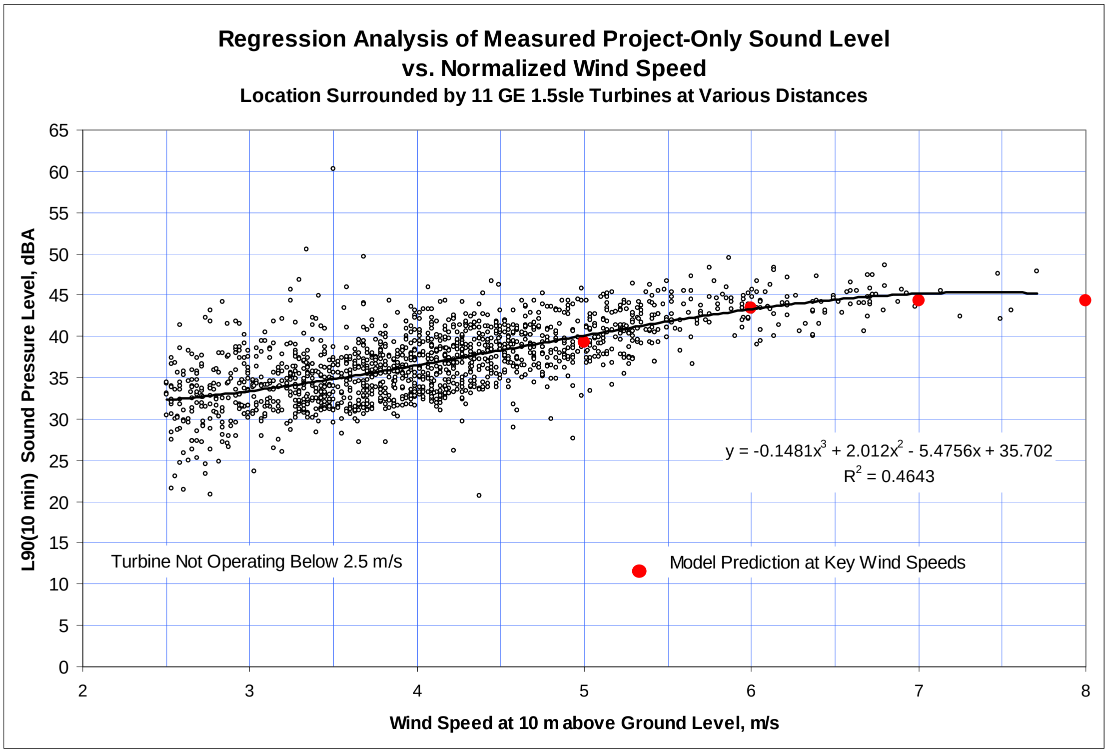

Figure 4.0.1

It should be pointed out that there is an alternative prediction methodology to ISO 9613-2 that takes atmospheric conditions into account: NORD2000[25], which is a proprietary software package that has been in development in Denmark for quite some time. However, it is rather complicated and is not in wide use partially because it has not been integrated or fully integrated into the most commonly used modeling programs. This sound emissions model is based on the fundamental mathematics of wave propagation rather than the empirical studies that form the basis for most of the propagation losses in ISO 9613-2, but despite its sophistication it does not seem to yield substantially better results than ISO 9613-2[26]. As exemplified by Figure 4.0.1, there is no reason why the more common and simpler ISO 9613-2 methodology should not be used.

4.1.2 *Modeling Software*

In theory, then, any program based on ISO 9613-2 can ostensibly be used to model wind turbines but there is more to it than the calculation of sound propagation losses. What emerges as the key differentiation between programs is basically how well and easily the site plan can be imported into the program and the quality and nature of the program's output.

Typical wind projects consist of dozens of units either spread out over many square miles in flat or rolling country or strung out along ridgelines. At the first type of site the turbines are frequently mixed in with potentially sensitive receptors (typically permanent residences) that can easily number into the hundreds. With ridgeline projects the nearest receptors are usually all around the base of the mountain or promontory on which the turbines are proposed and the effective project area (i.e. the region where residences exist within possible earshot of the project) can be vast. Consequently, it is best, if not essential, to use a modeling program that allows for the reasonably easy importation and scaling of a site map that shows not only the turbine locations but also all of the surrounding potentially sensitive receptors. Such a map is normally in shapefile (.shp) format with a layer for the turbines, a layer for structures (unfortunately not often differentiated into houses, barns, garages, commercial buildings, etc.) and layers for other features such as roads or topography. While nominally possible, it is not normally desirable to use only numerical tables of turbine coordinates to create the model for the principal reasons that a separate base map needs to be found and imported and different coordinate systems can become confused. In addition, publically available maps (used as a base map for the model) almost never show, or at least accurately show, all the residences in the vicinity of the project.

In addition to the turbines and houses the topography of the site often needs to be considered in the model – not only because of the line sight between the turbines and houses may be partially blocked or obstructed, but more generally because the source-receptor distance at sites with fairly dramatic terrain is affected and usually lengthened when modeled in three-dimensions. Consequently, a program that has the ability to import terrain contours and then mathematically consider their effect on sound propagation is essential for any project in a hilly or mountainous setting. This factor can only be safely ignored for sites with fairly flat or gently rolling topography.

In terms of output the most important element is the ability of the program to map sound contours in high resolution over the input base map. The potential impact from any wind project is normally graphically evaluated from contour plots. It is the number of houses within a certain threshold or sound level that usually determines whether the project is likely to result in complaints or not or whether it will comply with regulatory noise limits.

In terms of specific programs, Cadna/A® developed by Datakustik GmbH (Munich, Germany), appears to be used most often by engineers and consultants and is fully capable of importing shapefiles, modeling complex terrain and producing detailed contour maps.

The second most common noise prediction program is the sound emissions component of the WindPRO® software package (EMD International A/S, Denmark), which is a generalized siting tool for wind farms. The noise prediction module is only one aspect of the much larger program.

SoundPLAN® (Braustein & Berndt GmbH, Backnang, Germany), is evidently similar in capability to Cadna/A® but, for reasons that are unclear, is not often used for wind turbine analyses despite its apparent capability to integrate the NORD2000 algorithm as an optional calculation methodology.

One other program, WindFarm® (ReSoft Ltd, U.K.), is another general project design package of which the noise component is only a small part.

Any one of these programs would be generally acceptable for modeling the noise from a new project.

4.1.3 *Model Inputs*

In contrast to models of acoustically complex fossil fueled power plants that consist of dozens of major sources, the sound levels of which often need to be estimated, the input to a wind turbine project model is a single sound power level spectrum that is known with considerable accuracy. Turbine sound power levels are tested in accordance with IEC 61400-11[5], in which highly specialized and meticulous techniques are used to derive the sound power level of a wind turbine over a range of wind speeds from 6 to 10 m/s (as measured at 10 m above ground)[b]. The best input to use for any model is the maximum octave band sound power level frequency spectrum taken directly from a field test report.

Although such reports are sometimes made available by manufacturers, it is more common for the acoustical performance to be reported second-hand (based on either an IEC 61400-11 test or analytical calculations) in a technical specification document published by the manufacturer. The reported sound levels may or may not contain an explicit design margin and/or may be stated as warranted sound levels. While input sound levels that have been artificially inflated would tend to needlessly overstate the potential impact of a project, there often isn't any alternative to using whatever performance the manufacturer decides to publish. Whatever the source of the data is, it should be clearly stated in the impact assessment report.

4.1.4 *Modeling Methodology*

Recommended procedures for modeling wind turbine project noise are as follows:

- Begin with a base map showing the turbine locations and all potentially sensitive receptors in and around the project area (residences, schools, churches, etc.)
- Build up the topography of the site in the noise model if the terrain features consist of hills and valleys with a total elevation difference of more than about 100 ft. – otherwise flat terrain can be assumed
- Locate point sources at the hub height of each turbine (typically 80 m)
- Use the maximum octave band sound power level spectrum for the planned turbine model or the loudest model of those being considered
- Assume a ground absorption coefficient (A_g from ISO 9613-2) appropriate to the site area (a moderate value of 0.5 generally works well as an annual average for rural farmland, although higher values specifically for farm fields during summer conditions may be appropriate. A value of 0 (100% reflective ground) is likely to produce highly conservative results)

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[b] In its current edition (2.1). A revision to this standard has been in development for some time that would expand this wind speed range and add a number of other refinements (and complexities) to the test procedure. It is unclear whether this new edition will ever actually be adopted.

- Assume ISO “standard day” temperature and relative humidity values of 10 deg. C/70% RH unless the prevailing conditions at the site are substantially and consistently different than that
- Plot the sound contours from the project assuming an omni-directional wind out to a level of 35 dBA (shading the area between each 5 dBA gradation with a different color often greatly improves legibility)

The assumption of an omni-directional wind means that the sound power level of the turbine, which is measured in the IEC 61400-11 procedure downwind of the unit, is modeled as radiating with equal strength in all directions; i.e. the sound level in every direction is the downwind sound level. Although this may seem be depict an unrealistic situation and over-predict upwind sound levels, the fact of the matter is that this approach generally results in predictions that are consistent with measurements irrespective of the where the receptor point is located. Although somewhat counterintuitive, the reason for this is that wind turbine noise under most normal circumstances is not particularly directional and generally radiates uniformly in all directions. As an example, the plot below shows the sound levels measured in three directions 1000 ft. from a typical unit in a rural project in Southern Minnesota. Although there are periods when the levels differ, implying some directionality, the majority of the time all three sound levels are generally about same irrespective of the wind direction. Moreover, the sound level at the downwind position is almost never elevated relative to other directions as one might expect.

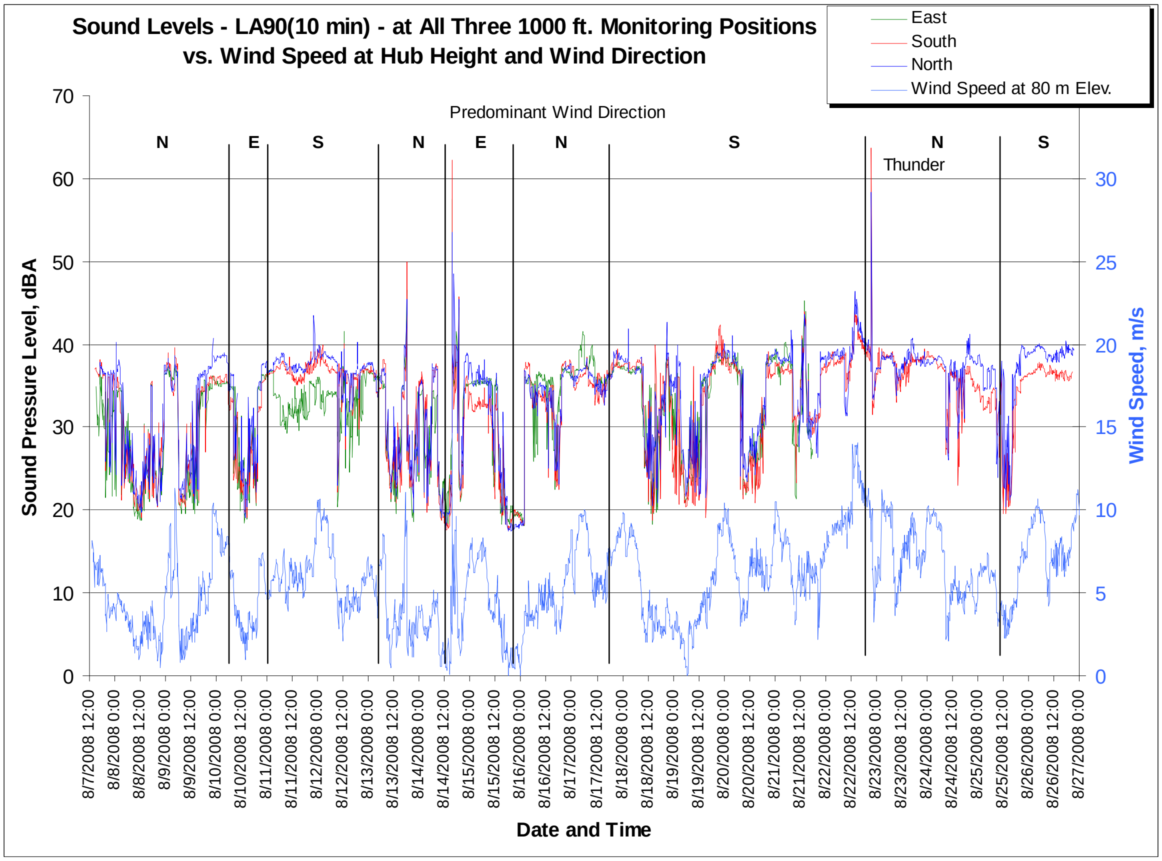

Figure 4.1.4.1 *Sound levels at 1000 ft. from a Typical Unit in Three Directions*

4.1.5 *Interpretation of Model Results*

An example plot for a hypothetical project, prepared using Cadna/A® and the procedures outlined in Section 4.1.4, is shown in Figure 4.1.5.1. In this instance, the units are located on a fairly prominent ridgeline and the topography has been recreated in the model.

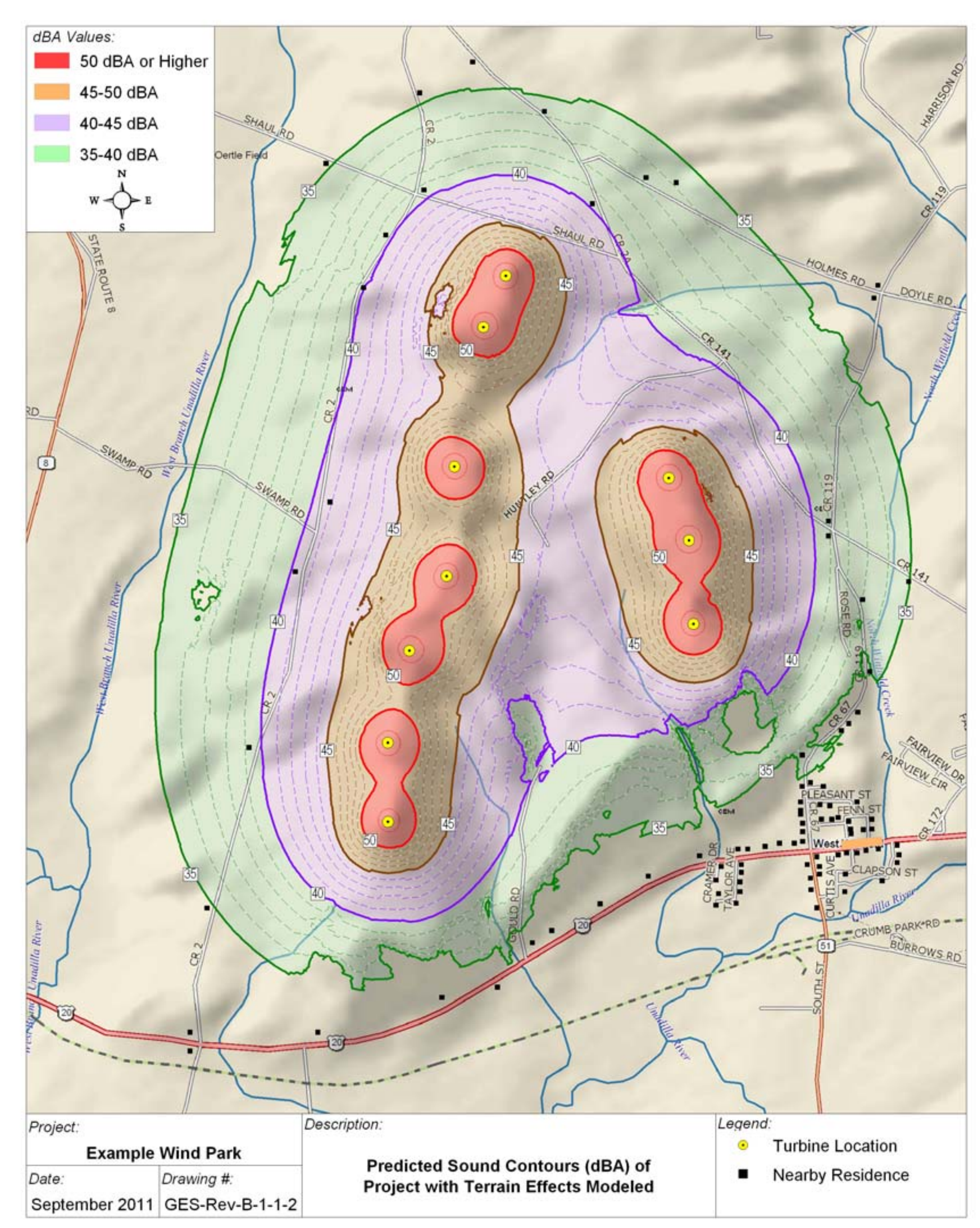

Figure 4.1.5.1 *Noise Model Plot – Example A*

Based on the plot, the potential noise impact from this project can be characterized as being fairly mild in the sense that nearly all of the residences in the vicinity of the project are expected to see a mean sound level of 40 dBA or, in most cases, less. The few houses that are nominally above 40 dBA are only marginally above that threshold and none are close to the 45 dBA absolute upper limit. The green region between 40 and 35 dBA generally represents the area where in all likelihood project noise would still be readily audible some of the time, if not much of the time, but at a fairly low magnitude. The audibility of and reaction to sound levels in this range would be somewhat dependent on the level of natural background sound in the area, since environmental sound levels in rural areas are commonly in the mid to high 30's dBA during the moderate wind conditions necessary for the project to operate – or, in other words, the background sound level could be roughly equivalent to the project sound level limiting its perceptibility. Below 35 dBA project noise generally becomes so low that it is only rarely considered objectionable even in extremely low noise environments. Complete inaudibility does not occur for quite some distance from most projects in quiet areas because of the distinctive, periodic nature of wind turbine noise. The actual distance to the point of inaudibility varies amorphously with atmospheric conditions and is generally much further at night than during the day. Consequently, the exact reaction to any project can never be predicted with certainty because project noise is often audible to some extent, at least intermittently, far from the project. However, the studies of response to wind turbine noise discussed in Section 3.0 suggest that the threshold between a mild or acceptable impact and a fairly significant adverse reaction is a gray area centered at 40 dBA.

An additional sound contour plot is shown in Figure 4.1.5.2 representing another hypothetical but typical project, this time in essentially flat Midwestern farm country.

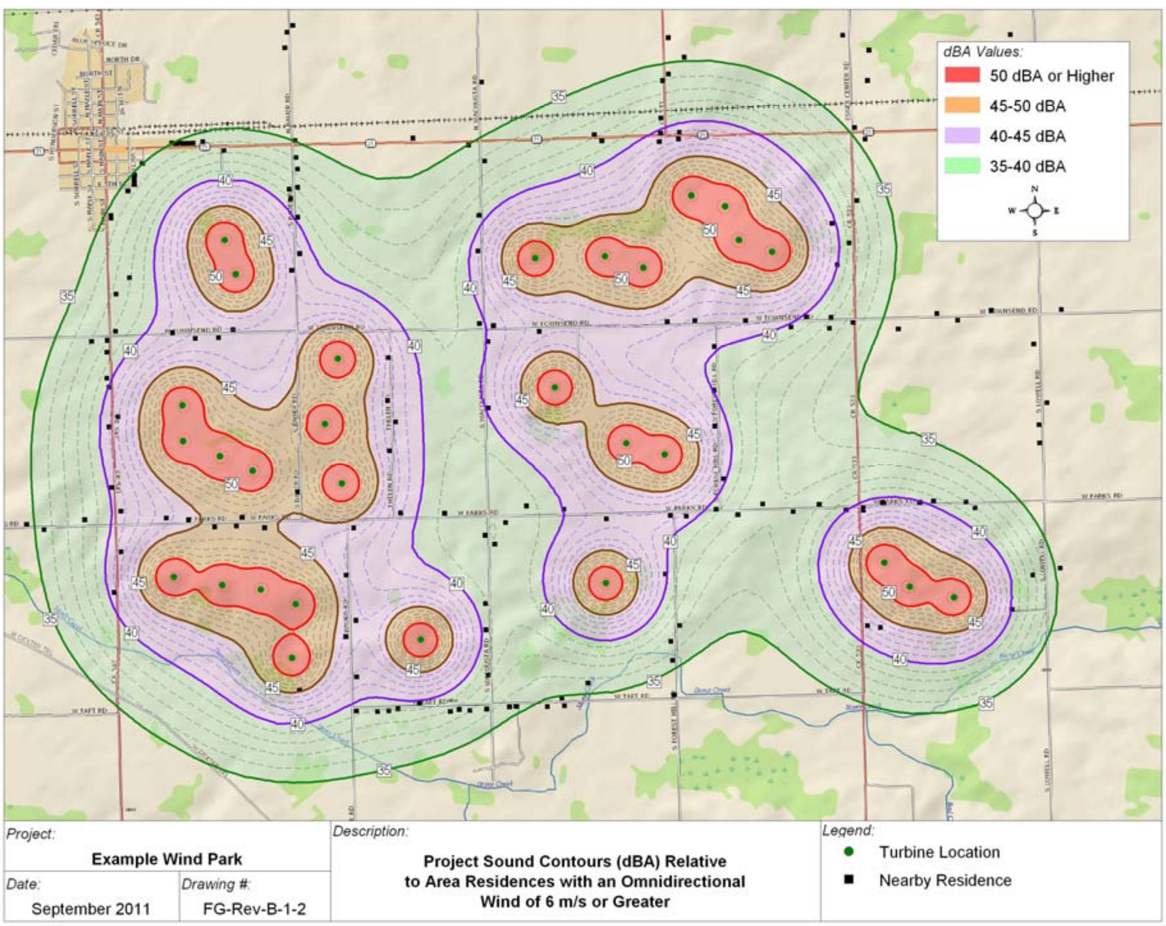

Figure 4.1.5.2 *Noise Model Plot – Example B*

In contrast to Example A, there are many homes inside of the 40 dBA sound contour in this scenario and even a few above 45 dBA, which is a common occurrence. One would have to conclude that at least a few complaints about noise would arise from this project if it were to proceed to completion in this configuration. The population density is such at this site that an optimization study should be undertaken to evaluate the feasibility of removing and relocating turbines outside of the present site area so that sound levels are substantially reduced at the homes with predicted levels of above 45 dBA and so that the number of residences above 40 dBA is dramatically diminished.

4.2 Pre-Construction Background Sound Surveys

Noise impacts can be evaluated in both absolute and relative terms. In the discussion immediately above the reaction to the example projects was estimated directly from the predicted project sound levels, neglecting background noise or essentially assuming a rural setting with generally quiet background sound levels. However, not all sites are the same and it is often prudent to perform a survey of existing conditions to establish just what the baseline sound levels are at residences in the proposed project area. In general, the audibility of, and potential impact from, any project is a function of how much, if at all, its noise exceeds the prevailing background level. A comparison between the predicted/modeled sound level from a proposed project and the actual background sound level measured in the project area under comparable wind and weather conditions gives a site-specific indication of the potential relative impact from the project.

Such a survey is not essential in all cases but is recommended when:

- Unusually high background levels are suspected (e.g. due to the proximity of a major highway, urban areas or existing industrial facilities)
- Unusually low background levels are suspected
- The project is unusually large or controversial
- There is simply a desire to carry out a complete and thorough assessment

4.3 Recommended Field Survey Methodology

The objective of a pre-construction survey is to establish what levels of environmental sound are currently being experienced at typical residences within the general project area in order to form a baseline against which the predicted sound emissions from the project can be compared. There is no need, nor would it be practical, to measure at every house. The idea is to get a set of samples that can be considered representative of the overall site area. In rural areas away from significant sources of man-made noise, it is common to find that the sound levels at all positions are generally similar indicating that background sound levels are for all intents and purposes uniform throughout the site area.

Contrary to popular belief, such a survey is *not* useful for the purpose of establishing the pre-existing environmental sound level as a baseline against which to compare the measured sound emissions from the completed project. The background sound level varies dramatically with time, typically over a dynamic range of 30 dBA or more, depending not only on the wind speed but many other factors, such as the prevailing atmospheric conditions, the time of day, season of the year, etc., so the level measured one or two years earlier cannot be taken to accurately represent the background level present during an operational compliance test. In fact, the only valid background level is the background level occurring, literally, at the same time that the operational sound level is measured. A methodology for overcoming this seeming impossibility is discussed later in Section 5.1.

4.3.1 *Measurement Positions*

Specific monitoring positions should ideally be located at or near typical residences in the site area. It is the sound level where people actually are most of the time and especially at night that is of primary importance (rather than at property lines, for instance). Permission to set up equipment on private property is usually freely granted upon request.

If a site is largely flat and homogenous in nature (e.g. rural farmland away from any major highways, urban areas or industry) monitor positions should be selected at points that are more or less evenly distributed over the project area. In such simple cases, 6 to 8 monitoring positions are usually more than sufficient even if the project area is fairly large.

For more complex sites, where the topography is significant or where man-made noise sources already exist, more monitoring positions will generally be required with the objective of capturing sound levels at residences in each kind of setting. A "setting" is defined as an area where the prevailing environmental sound level is suspected of differing significantly from other parts of the project area. For example, houses in the bottom of ravines or valleys may experience different ambient sound levels than nearby houses on exposed hilltops. Monitors should be located at positions representative of both of these settings. Another type of unique setting might be at homes that are located directly on a major road or highway or in an urban area versus others in the project area that are in remote areas. In some cases, a wind farm already exists adjacent to the area where a new project is proposed. Measurements should be made at homes that have maximum exposure to the sound emissions from the operating turbines for comparison to measurements at residences that are remote from the existing project. The total number of monitoring positions is generally limited by equipment availability and logistical concerns but no more than about 12 to 14 positions are normally required, even for the most complex sites.

4.3.2 *Survey Duration and Scheduling*

Short duration spot samples are insufficient to capture environmental sound levels over the variety of wind and atmospheric conditions that are relevant to project operation. For example, a brief sample on a calm, quiet night is meaningless in the sense that it does not represent the background sound level that will exist on a continuous basis or during the moderately windy conditions necessary for the project to generate noise. In fact, background sound levels in the rural areas where wind projects are most commonly sited are remarkable for their variability and substantial dependency on wind speed. It is the background sound level that occurs when it is moderately windy that is actually of interest for comparison to project sound emissions. In the very typical example below, the background sound level measured at four positions widely distributed over a proposed wind project site in the Midwest can be seen to parallel the concurrent wind speed and, moreover, to vary dramatically from 17 dBA during calm conditions to 54 dBA during windy conditions.

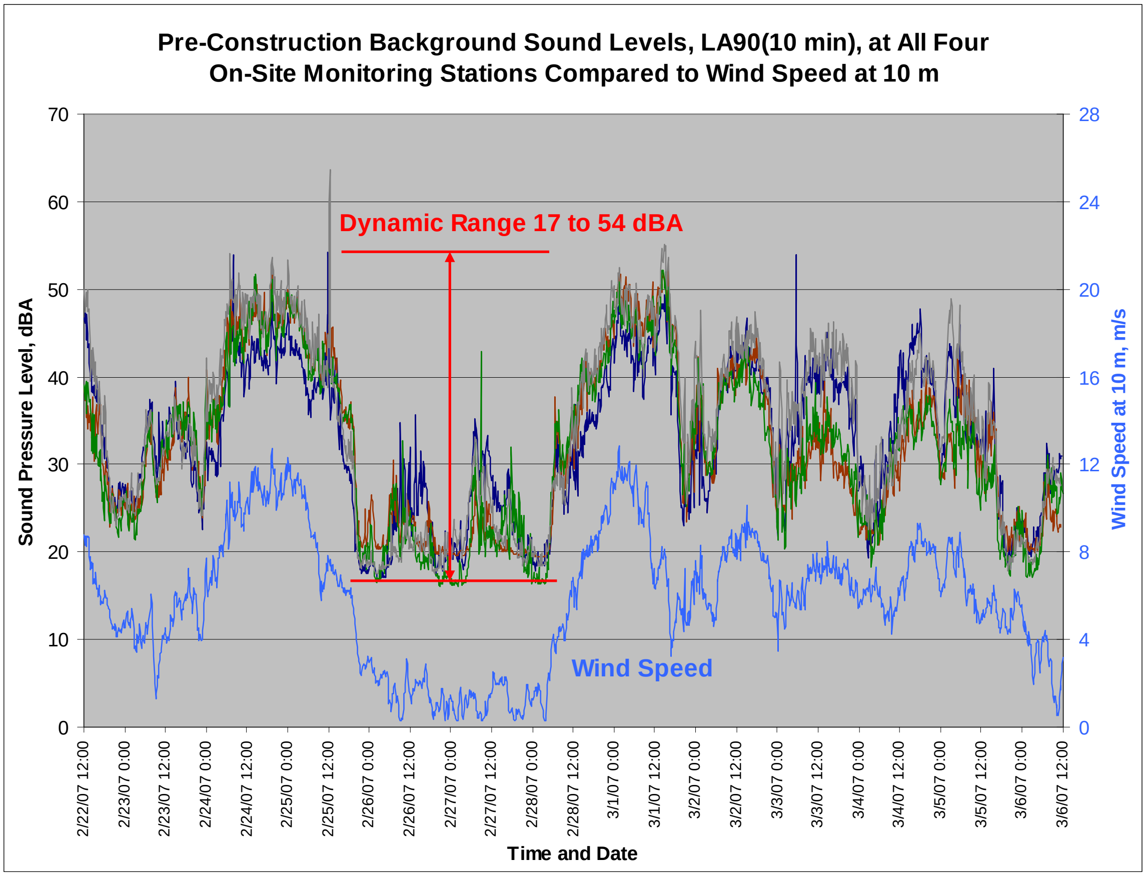

Figure 4.3.2.1

Consequently, a long-term, continuous monitoring approach is needed in which multiple instruments are set up at key locations and programmed to run day and night for a period of about two weeks or more. In essence, it is necessary to cast a wide net in order to capture sound levels during a variety of wind and atmospheric conditions and provide sufficient data so that the relationship between background noise and wind speed can be quantitatively evaluated.

Field experience suggests that an adequate range of wind speeds, from 0 to 10 m/s at 10 m above ground level, will usually be observed over any given 14 day period at most wind energy project sites, except perhaps during the low wind season at sites that might have very pronounced seasonal wind characteristics. Probably the principal reason for this observation is that this length of time is large relative to the time normally taken for weather patterns, wind directions and general atmospheric conditions to change, which essentially ensures that the data are statistically independent, as discussed in great detail in ANSI S12.9-1992/Part 2[27]. Data independence implies that the test results can be taken to represent the longer-term acoustic situation for that area, at least for the general time of year of the test. However, if a review of the weather conditions that occurred during the survey period shows that the winds were unusually calm or if an insufficient number of data points were collected at the higher wind speeds, the survey may need to be extended for another two weeks. Low wind conditions are most commonly captured and the vast majority of the measurements will be for conditions below or just above the cut-in wind speed. High winds normally occur intermittently over a few hours or a few days separated by sometimes lengthy periods of relatively calm conditions. It may sound counterintuitive, but it is not critical to capture extremely high wind conditions, say higher than about 12 m/s at 10 m, since most complaints and issues with wind turbine noise occur during moderate or even light wind conditions, while background noise tends to predominate under very windy conditions.

As a practical matter, the instruments for such a survey are set up, started and left to run unattended for the nominal two-week test period following which they can be retrieved and downloaded. Of course, one could stay on site through the test making additional intermittent manned measurements and observations but the very high cost of such an effort would be difficult to justify, particularly since it would not necessarily guarantee a better or more definitive result than could be derived from the monitor data alone.

In terms of scheduling, it is highly preferable to conduct this type of survey during cool season, or wintertime, conditions to eliminate or at least minimize possible contaminating noise from summertime insects, frogs and birds. In addition, it is best for deciduous trees to be leafless at sites where they are present in quantity to avoid elevated sound levels that might not be representative of the minimum annual level. Human activity, such as from farm machinery or lawn care, is also normally lower during the winter. While summertime surveys can be successful they should, as a general rule, be avoided wherever possible because nocturnal insect noise, for instance, can easily contaminate the data and make it impossible to quantify the relationship between sound levels and wind speed.

In addition to seasonal concerns, it is desirable, when practical, to attempt to schedule the survey set up to just precede a predicted period of moderate or high winds. This not only ensures that the survey period will capture these winds but also creates an opportunity for manned observations and measurements to be made for a day or two to augment to the longer term monitoring survey.

4.3.3 *Instrumentation and Test Set-up*

As with any field sound survey, what equipment is used and how it is deployed must adhere to certain minimum technical standards. These requirements are generally described in numerous standards, such as ANSI S12.9-1992/Part 2[27]; however, the focus of this section is not to repeat and belabor those details but rather to point up what adaptations need to be made for the specific application of performing general site-wide surveys for wind turbine projects. As mentioned earlier, no standard exists that can be directly used for this purpose, if only because they limit data collection to low wind conditions.

In terms of instrumentation, most environmental sound measurement standards recommend the use of Type 1 precision equipment per IEC 61672-1[28] or ANSI S1.43-1997[29] while also allowing for the use of Type 2 equipment. There is certainly no reason on technical grounds to oppose this recommendation but, from a practical perspective, it is often necessary to use Type 2 equipment for surveys of this type because of the large number of instruments needed. The normally negligible difference in technical performance between these two instrument classes is totally inconsequential within the inherently and unavoidably imprecise nature of this type of survey. It is much more important that the equipment is durable, reliable and specifically designed for extended use in the outdoors. Delicate and expensive Type 1 precision grade equipment can be unreliable in such applications or even unable to be programmed as a data logger.

Although high cost and extreme precision are not essential, the functional capabilities to statistically integrate sound levels over a user defined time period and automatically store the results are necessary. Because the on-site wind and weather monitoring towers, or met towers, normally integrate and store measurements in 10 minute increments it is convenient, if not necessary, to measure and store sound data in synchronization with the wind data collected by these towers for later correlation. It is evidently universal practice for met towers to store data 6 times an hour in 10 minute intervals that begin at the top of the hour; as in 9:00, 9:10, 9:20, etc. Consequently, sound data logging should be started using a trigger function to begin at the top of an hour and not randomly by the manual push of the start button. The timers on all instruments should be exactly synchronized to local time. Of course, all of the instruments must be field calibrated at the beginning of the survey and checked again for drift at the end of the survey.

Because this long-term survey approach involves unattended monitoring, the instrument and the microphone must be capable of withstanding damage, interference or outright destruction from rain and snow, which, among other things, means that the ground plate technique specified in IEC 61400-11 – where the microphone is laid flat in the center of a board on the ground and covered with one or more hemispherical windscreens – is not a viable option, despite its otherwise highly desirable advantage of minimizing wind-induced pseudo noise. Consequently, the microphone must be mounted above ground level and protected from wind-induced distortion by a spherical weather-treated windscreen, which normally entails a higher density foam that is hydrophobically treated to shed water (windscreens and wind-induced noise are discussed in detail later). As a general rule, a slightly lower than normal microphone height of about 1 m above ground level is preferred for this application on the premise that wind speed diminishes exponentially with decreasing elevation theoretically going to zero at the surface, or boundary layer. To illustrate this, the nominal wind speed profile, or shear gradient, per Eqn. (7) in IEC 61400-11 is illustrated below in Figure 4.3.3.1 for a common turbine operating condition where the wind speed is 6 m/s at the standard elevation of 10 m above ground level.

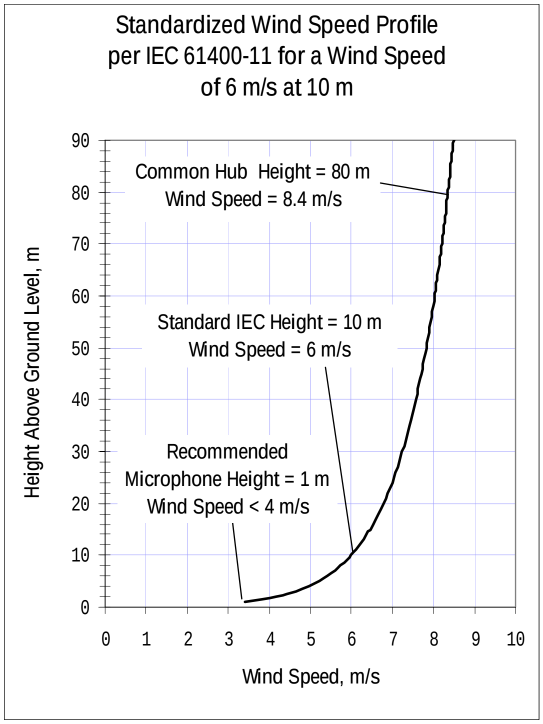

Figure 4.3.3.1

For these moderate wind conditions, the wind speed at a 1 m microphone height would be less than about 3 or 4 m/s, which as shall be seen later, means that distortion from wind blowing through the windscreen is of little or no consequence with respect to the A-weighted sound level so long as an extra large windscreen is used (typically 7" in diameter, as a minimum).

In addition to arranging for the microphone to be about 1 m off the ground so that it is not adversely affected by precipitation, it is also necessary to keep the instrument itself dry and secure in a waterproof case, which is best mounted above the ground on a fencepost, utility pole or other support.

While the microphone can be remotely connected to the instrument with a cable and independently supported, another option is to use a self-contained system where the microphone is attached to the instrument case with a rigid boom to hold the microphone away from the box and the entire assembly is mounted 1 m above ground level with a strap as shown, for example, in Figure 4.3.3.2. While there is nothing wrong with supporting the microphone separately on a tripod there is a tendency, unique to wind turbine survey work, for tripods to blow over, even after being weighted down and/or firmly staked to the ground. The use of temporary metal fence posts to support either the microphone alone or the entire system is a more reliable option and is sometimes the only option in places where there are no existing supports, such as in open fields.

Figure 4.3.3.2 *Typical Integrating Sound Monitor with 7" Weather-treated Windscreen*

In addition to sound level meters it is also advisable to set up at least one temporary weather station at the most exposed measurement position in order to measure the wind speed at microphone height and other parameters such wind direction and rainfall. All weather data should also be logged in 10 minute increments for later correlation to the sound data.

4.3.4 *Measurement Quantities*

For a background survey of this type the principal quantity of interest is the L_{A90} statistical measure, which is the A-weighted sound level exceeded 90% of the measurement interval (10 minutes in this case). What this means is that the sound level is higher than the L_{A90} value most of the time and, conversely, that the L_{A90} level represents the near-minimum sound level for each interval. It essentially captures the momentary, quiet lulls between sporadic noise events, like cars passing by, and, as such, is a conservative measure of the environmental sound level.

The average A-weighted sound level, or L_{Aeq}, which is the fundamental metric for highway noise surveys and the calculation of the Day-Night Average Level, L_{dn}, is unsuitable for wind turbine background surveys in rural areas because this level is extremely sensitive to contaminating noise events, such as from occasional traffic, planes flying over or dogs barking – things that cannot be relied on to be consistently present and available to potentially mask project noise on a permanent basis. The L_{A90} measure, on the other hand, automatically excludes these events for the most part and essentially defines the true "background" noise floor.

4.4 Analysis and Interpretation of Results

4.4.1 *Data Analysis and Wind Speed Correlation*

At the completion of the survey the L_{A90} sound levels measured at all positions should be plotted together to evaluate their consistency and to determine if the levels in different settings should be segregated. For example, if the sound levels at sheltered valley locations are consistently lower than measurements on higher ground then the data should be analyzed separately to develop typical background levels for each setting. Somewhat surprisingly, the need for this kind of separate treatment is rare and the much more common result is for the sound levels at all of the positions to be generally similar in magnitude at any given time with each generally following the same temporal trends and intertwining with each other. As a typical example, the as-measured L_{A90} levels at 7 positions spread over a fairly large site in Southern Minnesota are shown below.

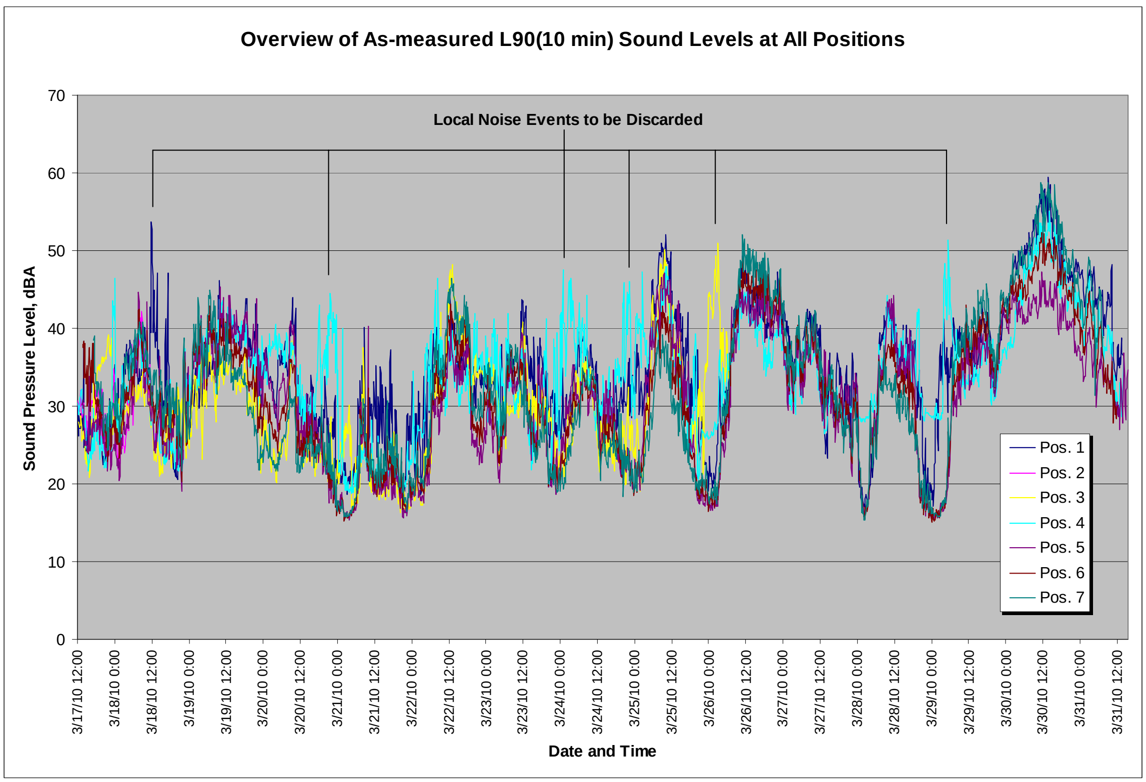

Figure 4.4.1.1

All positions follow each other and there is no one position that is consistently higher or lower than the others. Since these positions are miles apart from each other one would not expect exact agreement yet the levels are remarkably similar indicating that the environmental sound level over the entire site are is more or less uniform (sometimes termed a "macro-ambient"). If obvious contaminating events - those occurring at only one position - are discarded (as noted in the figure) the arithmetic average of the remaining data points can reasonably be considered the typical sound level over the site area. However, the question becomes: what is the sound level? The level varies substantially with time from almost complete silence (17 dBA) to nearly 60 dBA. The background level is obviously not a single number. The reason for this variation becomes clear if the average site-wide sound level is compared to the concurrent wind speed (Figure 4.4.1.2).

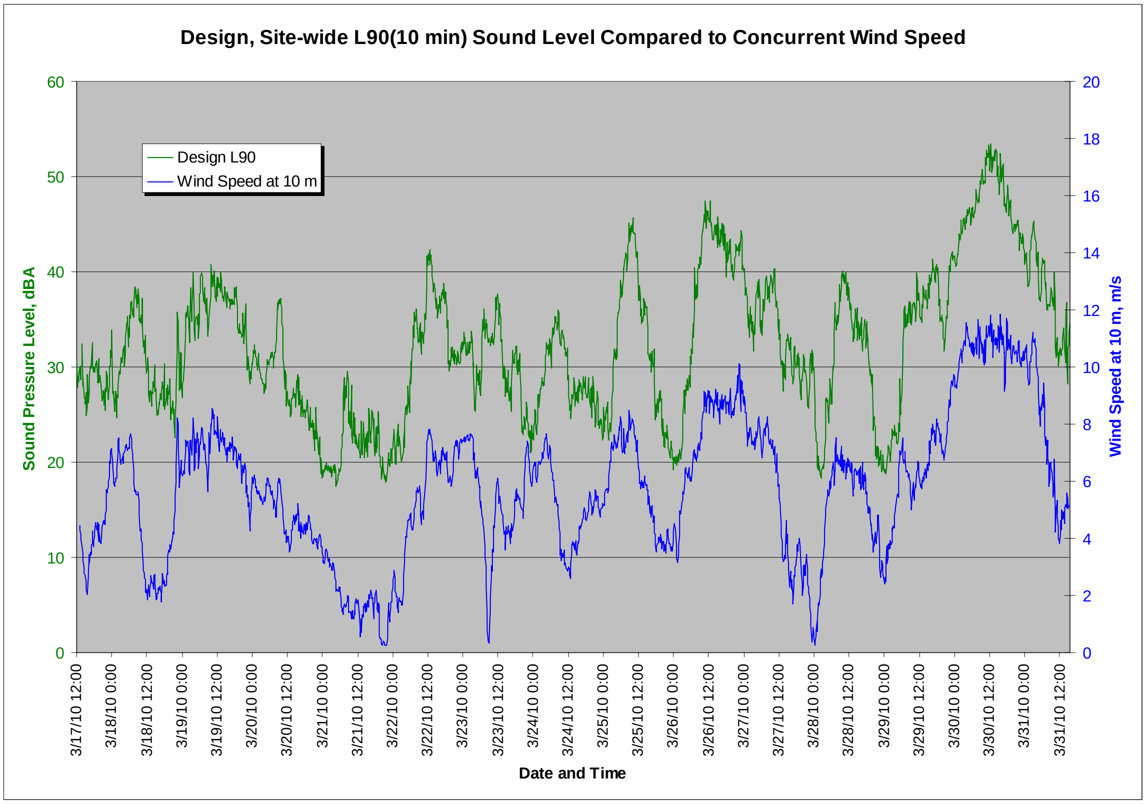

Figure 4.4.1.2

Clearly, the sound level in this area is driven by wind-induced sounds; in this case, mostly grass or crops rustling. Consequently, the sound level is almost entirely a function of the wind speed occurring at any given moment. This relationship can be quantified by re-plotting the sound levels in Figure 4.4.1.2 as a function of wind speed (normalized to a standard height of 10 m per Eqn (7) in IEC 61400-11).

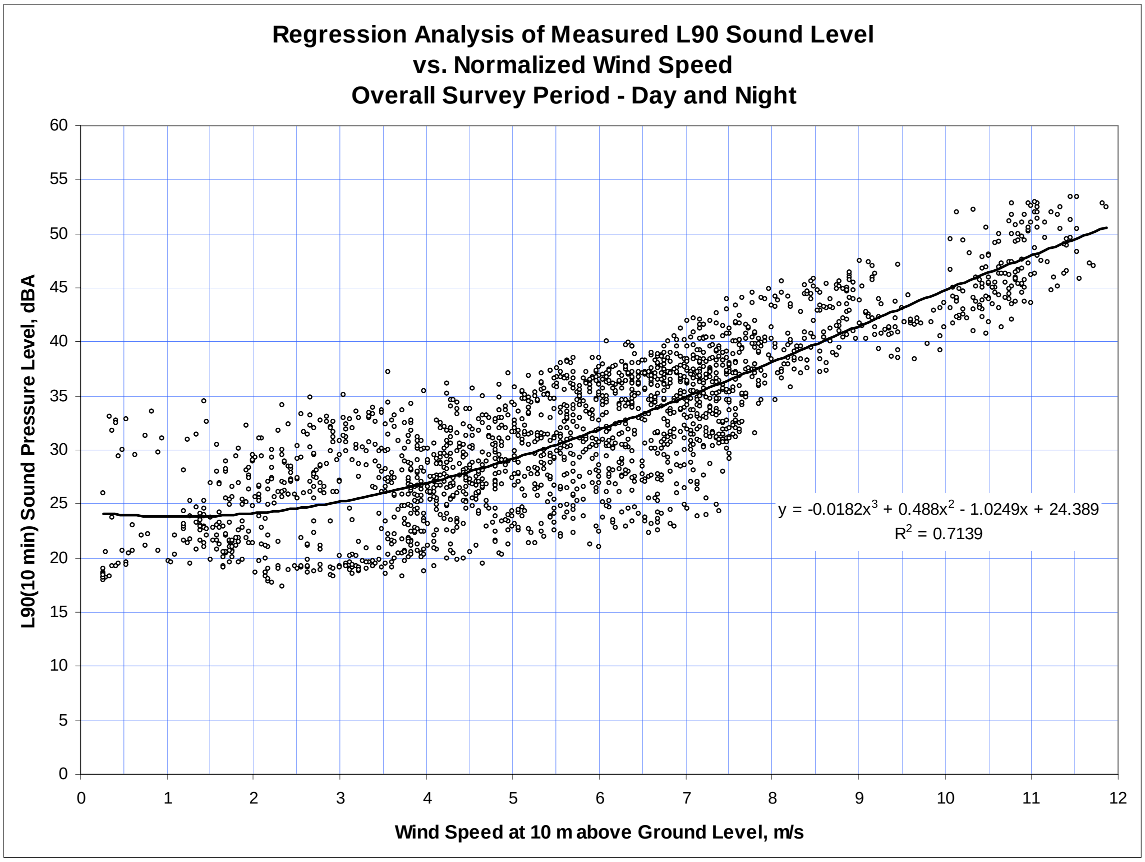

Figure 4.4.1.3

The central trendline through the data gives the mean L_{A90} sound level for any particular wind speed – at least in terms of the overall survey period.

It is important to point out in this context that, although the wind speed correlated to the sound data is the normalized value at the IEC standard elevation of 10 m, the measurement is actually taken at the top of the met tower, usually 60 m (197 ft) above ground level. Thus, the wind speed associated with turbine operation (not far below hub height) is directly correlated to the sound level measured near ground level; where the wind speed may well have been negligible. In other words, Figure 4.4.1.3 is *not* showing the relationship between the sound level and wind speed at the measurement position, as is quite often supposed.

4.4.2 *Daytime vs. Nighttime Levels*

Since nighttime conditions are of the most relevance with respect to potential disturbance from project noise, the data should be broken down into daytime (7 a.m. to 10 p.m.) and nighttime (10 p.m. to 7 a.m.) levels to see if it is significantly quieter at night - something that is not always particularly apparent in the level vs. time data (Figure 4.4.1.1). In this instance, the nighttime levels (Figure 4.4.1.4) are substantially quieter than during the day (Figure 4.4.1.5), particularly, in the vicinity of 6 m/s, which is usually the point where wind turbines first start to generate significant noise but the background level is typically still rather low thereby maximizing the potential audibility of project noise. In these examples, the mean background level for 6 m/s wind conditions during the day is 34 dBA while the nighttime level is about 28 dBA. Both of these levels are extremely quiet, but 28 dBA is so low that any potential masking from background noise can essentially be neglected as insignificant.

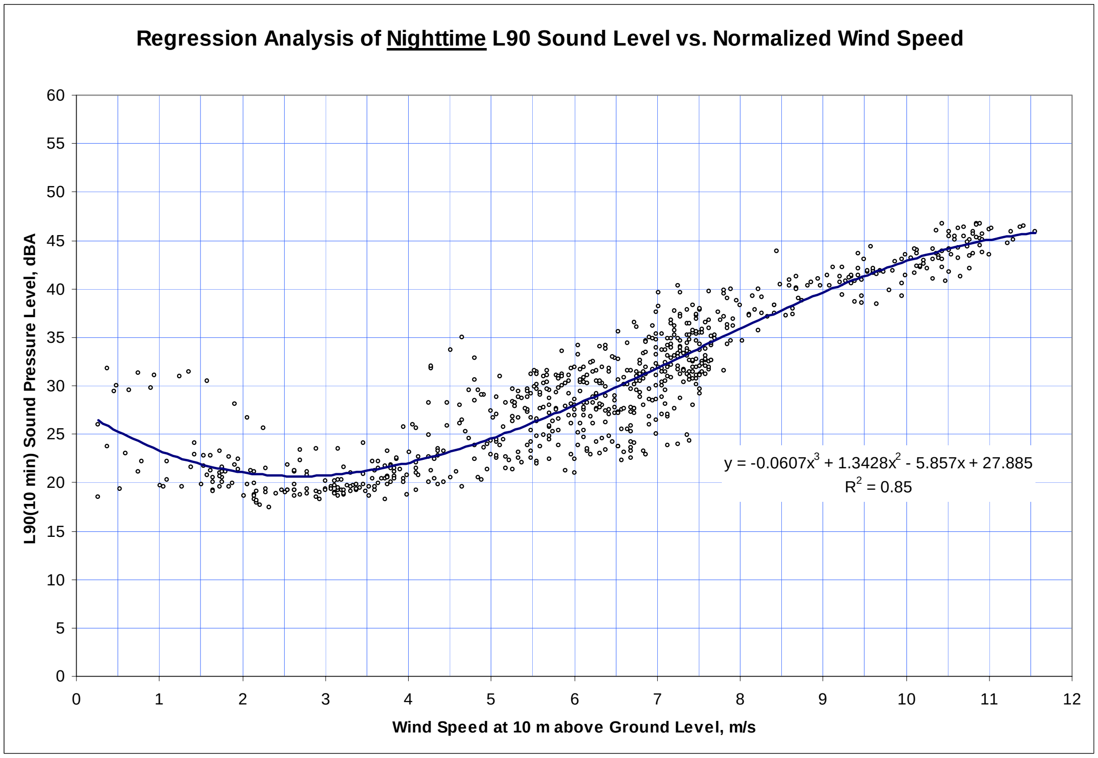

Figure 4.4.1.4

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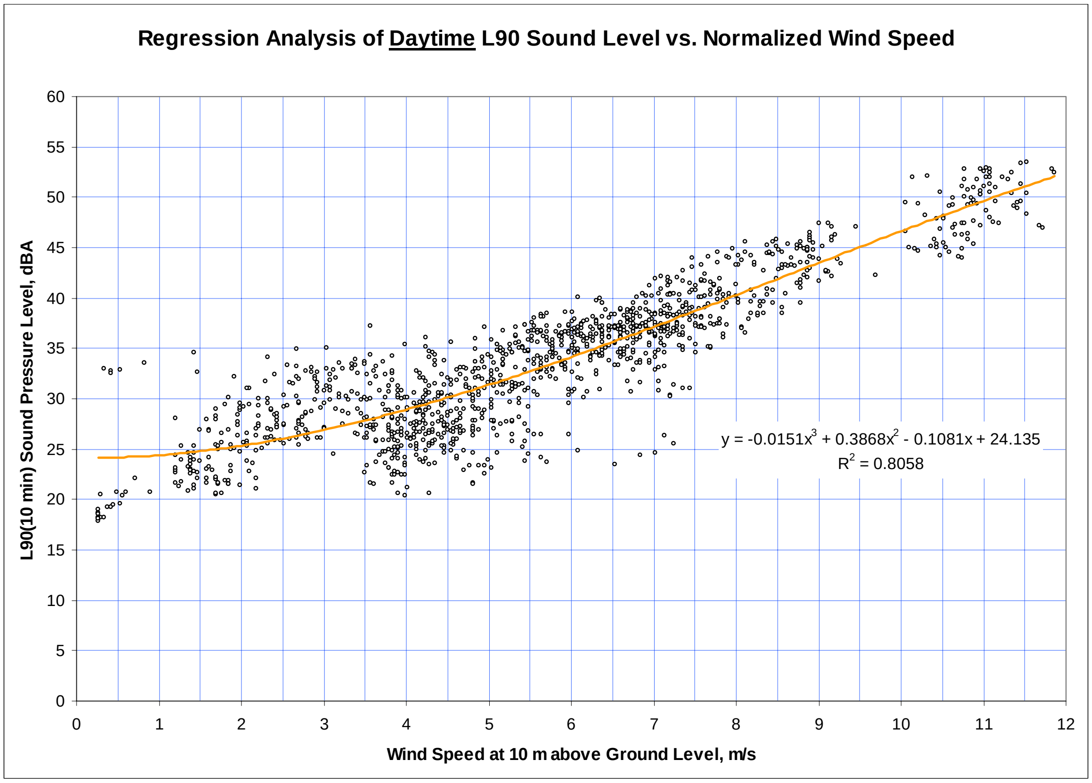

Figure 4.4.1.5

4.4.3 *Assessing the Potential Impact*

The sound levels measured in this survey, especially at night, indicate this site is an extremely quiet rural environment where any masking from wind-induced background noise can effectively be disregarded during moderate wind conditions (4 to 7 m/s). Under high wind conditions, say around 10 m/s, background noise is in the mid-40's dBA irrespective of time of day and therefore will act to partially obscure project noise, but during low wind conditions when the project is operating at low load an adverse impact can be expected unless the mean project sound level is kept to a relatively low level at residences. In this instance, it would be advisable to strictly design the project so that all residences are predicted to have average sound levels no higher than 40 dBA.

In general, background survey results may be used to establish a very rough impact threshold of 5 dBA over the ambient when the nighttime L_{A90} is about 35 dBA or more under what is usually the critical wind speed of 6 m/s. For example, if the measured level is 40 dBA then little adverse reaction might be expected from project levels up to 45 dBA (predicted with the project operating during comparable 6 m/s wind conditions). This 5 dBA increase metric does not hold for very low background levels (<35 dBA) because the background sound level and the project level both become so low as to be insignificant in absolute terms. If the background were 10 dBA, for instance, there would be no need to design a project to not exceed 15 dBA – both levels represent almost complete silence and are inconsequential. For low background situations like the example discussed above the outcome of the survey would be to set a firm upper limit of 40 dBA at residences. In terms of a potential noise impact, a low background level combined with predicted project levels of more than 40 dBA at numerous residences would be an undesirable situation likely to lead to complaints.

Although 6 m/s may be assumed in most cases to be the critical wind speed - i.e. the point where turbine noise is likely to be loudest relative to the amount of background noise available to potentially obscure it – the site-specific critical wind speed may also be calculated by comparing the sound power levels of the particular turbine model planned for the project with the L_{A90} background levels actually measured at the site. The critical condition corresponds to the point where the simple differential between these two values is maximum, as illustrated in the following example.

Table 4.4.3.1 *Comparison of Turbine Sound Power Levels to Measured Background Levels to Determine Critical Wind Speed*

Wind Speed at 10 m, m/s	Measured Overall L_{90}, dBA	Turbine Sound Power Level, dBA re 1 pW[c]	Differential
4	27	95	68
5	29	99	69
6	**32**	**102**	**70**
7	35	104	69
8	38	104	66
9	41	104	63
10	45	104	59
11	48	104	56

In this case (based arbitrarily on the data in Figure 4.4.1.3) the maximum differential of 70 occurs at 6 m/s – meaning that the sound emissions from the turbine are the highest at this particular point relative to the background level indicating that project noise would theoretically be most audible under these conditions. Ironically, the maximum audibility point does not usually correspond to the wind speed when the turbine first reaches its maximum noise emission point (in this example 7 m/s and a sound power level of 104 dBA re 1 pW).

As a side note, this analysis illustrates one of the reasons why it is beneficial to normalize the met tower wind speed data to 10 m; namely, because wind turbine sound power levels are expressed as a function of wind speed at 10 m above grade (and not at hub height). Consequently, the background sound levels and the turbine sound levels are all compared on an equal footing.

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[c] The fundamental unit of sound power is Watts and sound power levels are expressed with reference to 1 picoWatt, or 10^{-12} W. By convention this reference is explicitly stated to help distinguish power levels from pressure levels, which are measured in terms of Pascals.

5.0 Measuring Wind Turbine Sound Emissions

5.1 Project-wide Compliance Testing

5.1.1 *Historical Approaches*

In general, it has been difficult, historically, to devise or settle on a completely satisfactory methodology for testing newly completed wind projects for the purpose of determining whether or not they are in compliance with permit or regulatory conditions. One of the principal stumbling blocks has generally been accounting in some meaningful way for background noise, since the total measured sound level at the typically substantial distances to residences and, therefore, the point of measurement, commonly contains a very prominent background component that cannot be disregarded without causing the result to be erroneously high. It is, of course, the project-only sound level and not the total sound level that is limited by regulations. Consequently, it is the project-only sound level that is sought in such surveys.

Existing guidelines and standards that mention the topic of compliance testing at all do not lay out or detail test procedures that are entirely satisfactory in this and other respects. For example, the often beleaguered[30] ETSU-R-97 report *The Assessment and Rating of Noise from Wind Farms*[31] published by the Department of Trade and Industry in the U.K. addresses the issue of background noise in one sentence, quoted below, by suggesting simply that one might want to measure operational turbine noise at night.

> To minimize the effects of extraneous noise sources it may be necessary to perform these measurements during night-time periods when other human and animal activity noise sources are likely to be at a minimum.

This approach, which involves measuring only for a relatively short period of time (20 to 30 $L_{A90,\ 10\ min}$ samples), is connected with the idea of taking measurements only at, or close to, a specific critical wind speed identified from "monitoring", carried out in an unspecified manner, and correlated to logged observations by complainants as to when the "noise is most intrusive" (ibid). In short, the idea is for the test engineer to be physically at the location and ready to take measurements when the wind conditions that result in maximum noise are occurring - so long as those conditions are happening at night on a night when the background sound level is negligible (i.e. roughly 10 dBA or more lower in magnitude than the turbine sound level). As might be imagined, the unfortunate reality is that the probability of all these things coming together at the same time is miniscule. In particular, it is typically difficult, for a number of reasons, for a test engineer to schedule a site visit to coincide with a particular wind speed or direction.

In general, the notion of being on hand to observe and measure wind turbine noise when it is at its loudest may sound reasonable on paper but it is seldom practical to actually do it.

Another approach to the issue of background noise that has been used, for example in the New Zealand Standard NZS 6808:1998 *Acoustics – The assessment and measurement of* *sound from wind turbine generators*[32], is to measure the background level at one time, say, prior to construction or start-up, and the operational noise from the project at another time - and then subtract the two to derive the project-only sound level. While this is often thought of or suggested as a reasonable approach, the problem is that both the background and wind turbine sound levels are extremely dependent on circumstances that vary significantly with time in both the short and long-term. The two sounds are highly specific not only to the prevailing wind speed at a particular time but also to factors such as the stability of the wind (whether it's gusty or constant in nature, for instance), wind direction, shear gradient, thermal gradient, time of day and time of year. Moreover, the background level is also exclusively influenced by foliage (bare trees vs. leafed out trees, for example), insects, frogs, distant or nearby traffic, farm equipment and a myriad of other human activities that occur sporadically and unpredictably. Consequently, a background sound level measured days, months or years before can't be used with a tremendous amount of confidence to correct a later measurement of operational noise, even if both have been normalized to similar wind speed conditions, because so many other unquantifiable factors may have had a hand in shaping the final results. What is needed, of course, is the background sound level that would have existed at that particular time and at that place if the project had not been operating.

This latter objective can sometimes be essentially realized by using the technique of temporarily shutting down, or parking, the nearest turbines to a measurement position, if not the entire project. While this technique has its applications, which will be discussed later, it is not usually a practical method that can be used for a general site-wide compliance test. Widespread or complete shutdowns would be required repeatedly over a variety of wind speed conditions and times of day to get even a minimally complete set of usable background levels.

Thus, there are certain impracticalities associated with the few existing guidelines, standards or common practices that deal with the testing of operational noise from wind turbine projects.

5.1.2 *Test Methodology*

The suggested methodology outlined below, which has been developed over time through field experience on a variety of wind projects, does not purport to completely solve the problems of background noise and capturing the periods of maximum noise, among other things, but it has been found to work very well in numerous field applications.

5.1.3 *Survey Duration and Scheduling*

In order to overcome the problem of being on hand to take short-duration measurements when conditions might favor noise generation at the source and/or sound propagation from the turbines to typical receptor points, a long-term, continuous monitoring approach is needed in which multiple instruments are set up at key locations and programmed to run day and night for a period of about two weeks or more. In essence, it is necessary to capture sound levels during a variety of wind and atmospheric conditions; something that is extremely difficult to achieve by taking intermittent manned samples, which amount to static snapshots of a dynamic situation.

Field experience suggests that an adequate range of wind speeds, from 0 to 10 m/s at 10 m above ground level, will usually be observed over any given 14 day period at most wind energy project sites, except perhaps during the low wind season at sites that might have very pronounced seasonal wind characteristics.

As a practical matter, the instruments for such a survey are set up, started and left to run unattended for the nominal two-week test period following which they can be retrieved and downloaded.

In terms of scheduling, it is highly preferable to conduct this type of survey during cool season, or wintertime, conditions to eliminate or at least minimize possible contaminating noise from summertime insects, frogs and birds. In addition, it is best for deciduous trees to be leafless at sites where they are present in quantity to decrease this source of wind-driven background noise and maximize the signal to noise ratio. Human activity, such as from farm machinery or lawn care, is also normally lower during the winter. While summertime surveys have been successful they should, as a general rule, be avoided wherever possible because nocturnal insect noise, for instance, can easily render the project sound level indeterminate at some or all of the measurement positions. If measurements are required during the summer, and they often are for reasons of project scheduling, high frequency contamination can be analytically factored out by taking the measurements in octave or 1/3 octave bands and correcting the spectra, as will be discussed later in greater detail.

In addition to seasonal concerns, it is desirable; when practical, to attempt to schedule the survey set up to just precede a predicted period of moderate or high winds. This not only ensures that the survey period will capture these winds but also creates an opportunity for manned observations and measurements to be made for a day or two to augment to the longer term monitoring survey. There is generally nothing to observe or measure at a wind turbine site when the winds are calm, so if one can be on site with the proper equipment just before a windy period useful short-term measurements can probably be made that can later be viewed within the context of the long-term monitor results for that time period.

As an alternative or supplemental approach, another opportunity for these supplemental manned observations can sometimes be arranged by coordinating the instrument retrieval visit with a predicted windy period. The specific end date for the survey is usually flexible, although instrument battery life is normally the limiting factor. The principal danger in carrying out manned measurements just before the end of a survey, however, is that all of the long-term monitors may not still be recording due to power supply issues or any number of other lamentable and sometimes comical things, such as tampering, weather damage or the removal of the windscreen by livestock.

5.1.4 *Test Positions*

The test positions should be selected to capture data at a number of potentially sensitive receptors (usually non-participating and participating residences within or near the site area) or other relevant points of interest, where maximum project sound levels might be expected either from modeling or a simple inspection of the site plan. In just about every case, it is not practical or even possible to establish a monitoring station at every house in the vicinity of a project so it is necessary to carefully select a limited but adequate number of sites that are representative of the worst-case exposures at potentially sensitive receptors in all relevant settings. Examples of specific settings would be: homes in sheltered valleys below ridge top turbines; homes on high, open ground with exposure to the wind and nearby project turbines; homes in generally flat open country with turbines in multiple directions; homes in wooded area; homes on the outer edge of a project area, etc. Because every site is unique the number of monitoring stations required to adequately evaluate project noise will vary but the general concepts are to reasonably account for different settings, to cover a number of points were maximum project sound levels are likely to occur at residences and to cover the entire project area with a generally even but somewhat random distribution. Adding one or two deliberately random positions can help increase the statistical independence of the data and avoid inadvertent bias. For sparsely populated sites in open and uniform farm country only about 4 or 5 on-site monitors might be needed while at more densely populated sites with more complex topography the number of monitoring stations would only be limited by the quantity of equipment reasonably available to the test engineer either from in-house stock or outside rental. Realistically, it is seldom possible to gather enough equipment for more than about 10 to 14 on-site monitoring points, but that is normally enough. A typical survey at a fairly large project site with numerous residences intermixed with the turbines might call for about 10 positions at receptors within the project area.

As mentioned above, the general objective is to capture sound levels throughout the site area at key receptors in all distinct settings within the project area. In addition, it is commonly necessary and desirable to establish a measurement position at all homes where complaints or concerns about noise have been expressed to the operations staff. In these instances, it is sometimes possible to enlist the help of residents by having them try to keep a date and time log of when the noise becomes particularly noticeable or unusually loud or when other non-project sounds are present; for example, from lawn moving, farm activity, etc. When this is actually done the comments can provide some valuable insights that help explain and identify peaks in the recorded sound levels.

It is often assumed that project noise is of no concern to project participants who were, and presumably still are, favorably disposed to the project and are receiving lease royalties for units on their land; however, experience at a number of sites suggests that this is not always the case largely due to the confluence of two factors: (1) these residences are typically the closest ones to turbines (sometimes only a few hundred feet away) and (2) the actual sound levels from these nearby units can turn out to be substantially louder than they expected them to be or they were led to believe. Consequently, monitoring at the homes of project participants in response to complaints is fairly common – even though participants are often, but not always, technically exempt from ordinance or permit noise limits.

It is usually best to start the site selection process a week or two in advance of the actual survey by circling proposed measurement areas on a site map or sound contour plot and submitting this to operations personnel at the site for their input on who, within or near each designated area, might be willing to host a sound monitor at their house and where else, outside of these proposed areas, it might be also be desirable to measure (at complaint locations, for instance). The objective of this preparatory review is to obtain approval and permission from homeowners to set up equipment on their property prior to arrival. Although it is desirable to inspect the proposed locations and make a judgment as to their suitability in person, attempts to arrange for permission on the day of the survey are often unsuccessful due to the simple fact that people are not at home and cannot be reached. Calling ahead usually settles the issue before the equipment is shipped to the site. Setting up the equipment in the rear yard of a house where permission has been obtained generally ensures that the equipment will still be there upon returning at the end of the survey, that the equipment won't be interfered with and that it can be minimally attended to, if necessary (replacing the windscreen after the family dog has run off with it, for example). Positions that are not at anyone's house, such as on utility poles along the public right-of-way, are sometimes necessary to collect data at strategic locations without a suitable host, but they do not have any of these advantages and, in fact, the risk of theft or tampering is uncomfortably high.

In terms of the specific placement of the monitor at each position, it should be located in an area representative of but away from the house, or any other building with large reflective surfaces, and that is not prone to frequent activity or contaminating local noises, such as from air conditioning units, milking machines at dairy farms or flowing streams or rivers.

As a final note on placement, it is best to avoid using fences or posts to mount the monitor or microphone in areas where livestock or other domestic animals may be able to get at the equipment during the survey. Microphone windscreens are evidently of keen interest to cows, horses and dogs, among others.

5.1.5 *Background Noise*

On the important issue of background noise, an approach that has worked well in a number of field applications is to set up a number of monitoring stations outside of the project area in settings similar to those at the on-site monitor positions. Of course, considerable judgment is involved in selecting these positions but in an ideal situation of, say, an isolated project in open farm country that is largely uniform in character both within and beyond the project area one would want monitors at least 1.5 to 2 miles from the perimeter of the project (nearest turbines) in the four cardinal directions. The locations should be far enough away that project noise is negligible and yet close enough that they are reasonably representative of the site area. At the end of the survey the off-site positions can then be evaluated for consistency. If the levels are generally similar, and, somewhat surprisingly, this is usually the result, the average can be taken as a time history record of the background sound level that probably would have existed within the site area and then used to correct the on-site measurements taken, importantly, at the same time under identical environmental conditions.

Figure 5.1.5.1 below is an example from a site in the Eastern United States where the landscape is rural and generally homogenous in nature within the project area and for some distance beyond it in terms of topography (rolling hills), vegetation (a mix of farm fields and wooded areas) and population density (farms and residences scattered more or less uniformly over the site area). The 80 or so 1.5 MW turbines are spread throughout a roughly 20 sq. mi. project area on numerous parcels of private land and thoroughly intermixed with the residences in the area. Proxy background measurement positions were set up about 1.5 miles beyond the perimeter of the turbine array to the northwest, east and south of the project (a neighboring wind project to the west prevented measurements in that direction) at locations that were similar in character to the various settings near on-site residences: one was on an open and exposed hilltop, another was at the edge of a field with nearby trees and a third was essentially in a forested area. The expectation was that there might be a consistent difference between these different positions – with the sheltered forest location being quieter than the windy hilltop, for instance – in which case background corrections for a particular setting would be applied to on-site measurements at positions with comparable settings. However, as can be seen from the figure, the levels at all three locations, each many miles from the others, were largely the same at any given time and, perhaps more significantly, no one position is consistently higher or lower than the others. Consequently, the arithmetic average of all three, with the site area physically lying between them, can be taken as a reasonably reliable estimate of the on-site background level at any particular time that accounts for the specific wind speed, direction, time of day and atmospheric conditions prevailing during that 10 minute period.

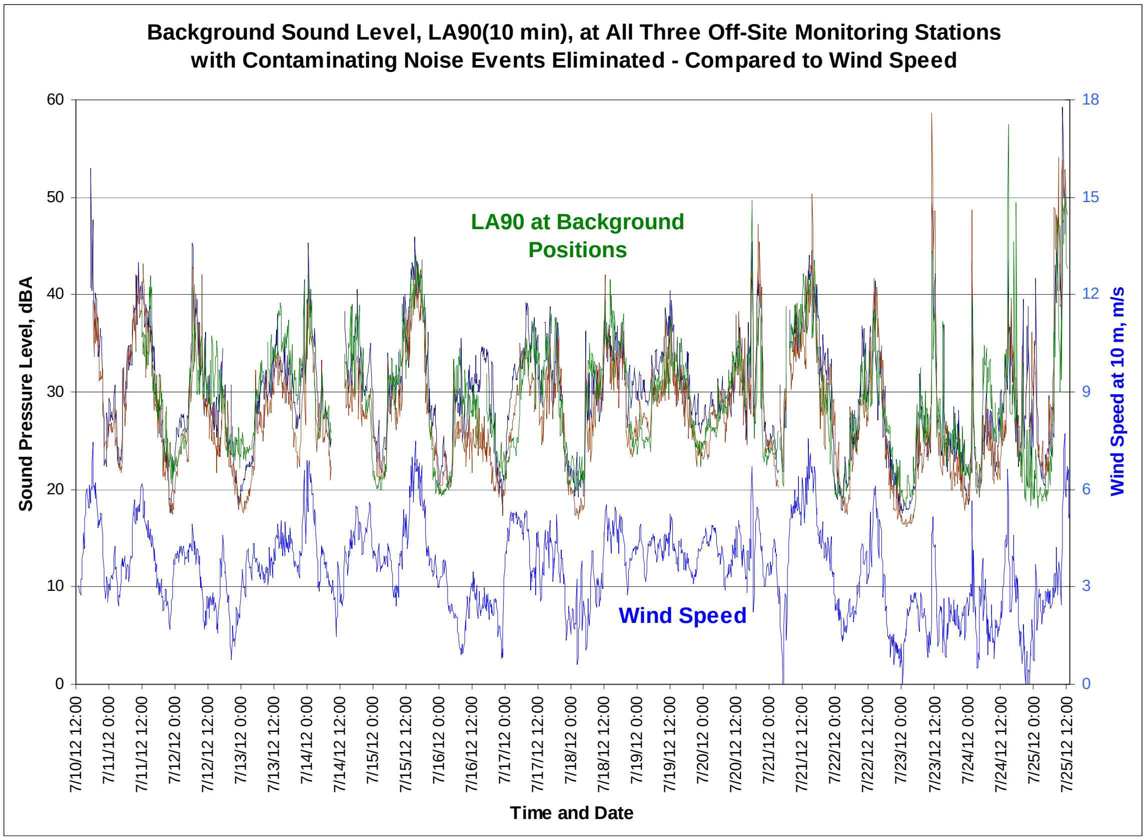

Figure 5.1.5.1 *Measured Background Sound Levels at Three Off-Site Proxy Positions*

The data in Figure 5.1.5.1 have been edited to remove noise spikes that were observed only at one position and not at any others, indicating a contaminating local noise event that is not representative of the area as a whole. Spikes were also deleted (from both the on-site and background data) if there were no concurrent spike in wind speed, even if they may have occurred at multiple locations, on the premise that the noise was not associated with the turbines and may have been due to thunder, rain, a helicopter flyover or some other area-wide noise event.

The results shown in the example above are not unique to that site and a similar consistency between the off-site proxy location sound levels has been observed at a number of other projects in rural areas even though the background monitors are deliberately set up in diverse settings. Fortunately, for the purpose of estimating simultaneous background sound levels, most wind projects are located in rural areas but, of course, not all of them are and other situations exist. In urban settings or near major highways the background sound is no less important, in fact more so, but its dependence on wind and atmospheric conditions is greatly diminished, if not relegated into complete insignificance. In such cases, the proxy background technique is still theoretically viable although the selection of background positions that are representative of receptors potentially affected by project noise becomes highly specific to the circumstances at each receptor. In the case of a highway, for instance, one might try to find a background position that is the same distance from the roadway as the actual point of interest and similar in all other ways but far enough from any turbines that they are undetectable. In this kind of a complicated situation where the background level is more dependent on man made noise than natural, wind-induced sounds it may be necessary to perform a pre-construction survey at the key receptors near turbines and at a number of candidate background positions to evaluate the validity of the proxy locations before the project turbines become operational.

5.1.6 *Sound Test Equipment and Set up*

As with any field sound survey, what equipment is used and how it is deployed must adhere to certain minimum technical standards. Most environmental sound measurement standards recommend the use of Type 1 precision equipment per IEC 61672-1[28] or ANSI S1.43-1997[29] while also allowing for the use of Type 2 equipment. There is certainly no reason on technical grounds to oppose this recommendation but, from a practical perspective, it is often necessary to use Type 2 equipment for surveys of this type because of the large number of instruments needed. The utterly intangible difference in technical performance between these two instrument classes is totally inconsequential within the inherently and unavoidably imprecise nature of this type of survey. It is much more important that the equipment is durable, reliable and specifically designed for extended use in the outdoors.

Although high cost and extreme precision are not essential, the functional capabilities to statistically integrate sound levels over a user defined time period and automatically store the results are necessary. Because the on-site wind and weather monitoring towers, or met towers, normally integrate and store measurements in 10 minute increments it is convenient, if not necessary, to measure and store sound data in synchronization with the wind data collected by these towers for later correlation. It is evidently universal practice for met towers to store data 6 times an hour in 10 minute intervals that begin at the top of the hour; as in 9:00, 9:10, 9:20, etc. Consequently, sound data logging should be started using a trigger function to begin at the top of an hour and not randomly by the manual push of the start button. The timers on all instruments should be exactly synchronized to local time or to the project's SCADA control system clock, if it is different from the actual time, which it often is.

Of course, all of the instruments must be field calibrated at the beginning of the survey and checked again for drift at the end of the survey.

Because this long-term survey approach involves unattended monitoring, the instrument and the microphone must be capable of withstanding damage, interference or outright destruction from rain and snow, which, among other things, means that the ground plate technique specified in IEC 61400-11 – where the microphone is laid flat in the center of a board on the ground and covered with one or more hemispherical windscreens – is not a viable option despite its otherwise highly desirable advantage of minimizing wind-induced pseudo noise. Consequently, the microphone must be mounted above ground level and protected from wind-induced distortion by a spherical weather-treated windscreen, which normally entails a higher density foam that is hydrophobically treated to shed water (windscreens and wind-induced noise are discussed in detail later). As a general rule, a slightly lower than normal microphone height of about 1 m above ground level is preferred for this application on the premise that wind speed diminishes exponentially with decreasing elevation theoretically going to zero at the surface, or boundary layer.

For these moderate wind conditions, which are often when turbine noise tends to be most prominent relative to the background level, the wind speed at a 1 m microphone height would be less than about 3 or 4 m/s, which as shall be seen later, means that distortion from wind blowing through the windscreen is of little or no consequence with respect to the A-weighted sound level.

In addition to arranging for the microphone to be about 1 m off the ground so that it is not adversely affected by precipitation, it is also necessary to keep the instrument itself dry and secure in a waterproof case, which is best mounted above the ground on a fencepost, utility pole or other support.

While the microphone can be remotely connected to the instrument with a cable and independently supported, another practical option is to use a self-contained system where the microphone is attached to the instrument case with a rigid boom to hold the microphone away from the box and the entire assembly is mounted 1 m above ground level with a strap. While there is nothing wrong with supporting the microphone separately on a tripod there is a tendency, unique to wind turbine survey work, for tripods to blow over, even after being weighted down and/or firmly staked to the ground. The use of temporary metal fence posts to support either the microphone alone or the entire system is a more reliable option and is sometimes the only option in places where there are no existing supports, such as in open fields.

5.1.7 *Weather Stations and Wind Speed Monitoring*

In addition to the sound monitors it is also advisable to establish at least one temporary weather station at the sound monitoring position with the most exposure to wind. The primary reason for this station is to measure the maximum wind speed at microphone height (about 1 m) for use in correcting the measured sound data for wind-induced distortion as described in a later section. Wind speed at 1 m, direction and rainfall are the primary parameters to be recorded by this station, or others set up in other settings as appropriate, such as at a sound monitoring position sheltered from the wind by the local terrain (to demonstrate, for instance, that wind-induced distortion is negligible at such locations). This data should be integrated and stored in 10 minute blocks in synchronization with the sound monitors.

This temporary anemometer at 1 m above ground is solely there to evaluate microphone wind exposure and it is the on-site met tower anemometers, usually at 50 to 80 m above ground level, that should be used to correlate the measured sound levels at ground level to the wind speed essentially experienced by the turbine rotors. Turbine nacelle anemometers scattered throughout the site may also be used to determine wind speed, but this is somewhat less desirable because a free field correction usually needs to be applied to this data to account for the energy extracted from the wind by the rotor just upstream of the wind speed sensor.

It is customary to normalize mast top or nacelle wind speeds to a standard elevation of 10 m above grade per IEC 61400-11. It is this result that is compared to the measured sound levels.

5.1.8 *Measurement Quantities and Parameters*

The objective of a compliance survey is to extract the project-only sound level from the total soundscape and compare that result to the permissible limit. As such, the principal challenge is identifying and eliminating contaminating noises that are unrelated to the project over many days and thousands of measurements. If it were practical to take a manned sample for 20 minutes, removing spurious noises by pausing the instrument or discarding contaminated subsamples, and declare the result as the performance of the project it would be a trivial matter; however, over a relatively long time period of unattended monitoring it is necessary to use the L_{A90} statistical measure to generally perform this function in an automated manner, since it captures the consistently present sound level during relatively quiet periods between common interfering and identifiable noise events like cars passing by or planes flying over. A 10 minute sampling duration has been found to work very well since it allows direct correlation with met mast wind speed data and is generally short enough that fairly rapid changes in project noise are captured.

The use of the average, or $L_{Aeq,\ 10\ min}$, sound level or a finer time resolution of, say, 1 minute come to mind as alternatives to the L_{A90}, but these approaches have their own serious drawbacks. If the L_{Aeq} is used to measure at on-site positions with the idea of better quantifying turbine sound levels, then the L_{Aeq} measured at the proxy background positions must also be used as an apples-to-apples correction factor. But the L_{Aeq} is often completely unusable for this application. As an example, multiple statistical measures were recorded at the off-site background measurement positions previously mentioned in connection with Figure 5.1.5.1, including the L_{Aeq}. Figure 5.1.8.1 below shows the average L_{A90} and L_{Aeq} levels measured at all three locations compared to wind speed.

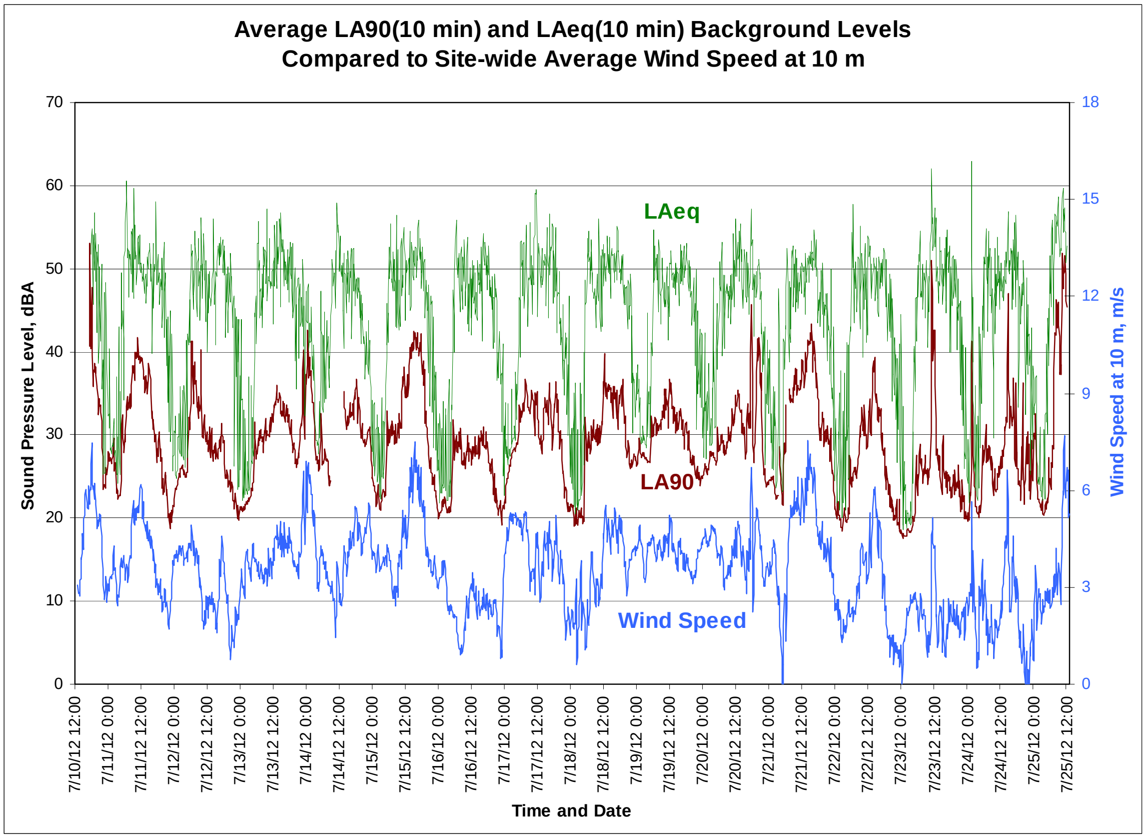

Figure 5.1.8.1

What is immediately obvious from this plot is that the $L_{Aeq,\ 10\ min}$ level is clearly driven by daily human activity; primarily intermittent vehicular noise on nearby sparsely traveled roads (noise that is filtered out by the L_{A90}). The L_{Aeq} levels rise to about 53 dBA every morning, stay there all day irrespective of the wind conditions and then gradually fall off in the evening hours bottoming out briefly somewhere around 23 dBA every night. The L_{A90} level, on the other hand, is clearly more attuned to the natural environmental sound level, which in rural areas like this one is normally a function of wind speed. The unsuitability of the $L_{Aeq,\ 10\ min}$ as a measure that might quantify project noise can be seen in Figure 5.1.8.2 where the average background L_{Aeq} level from Figure 5.1.8.1 is compared to the L_{Aeq} level measured at a typical, randomly selected on-site receptor.

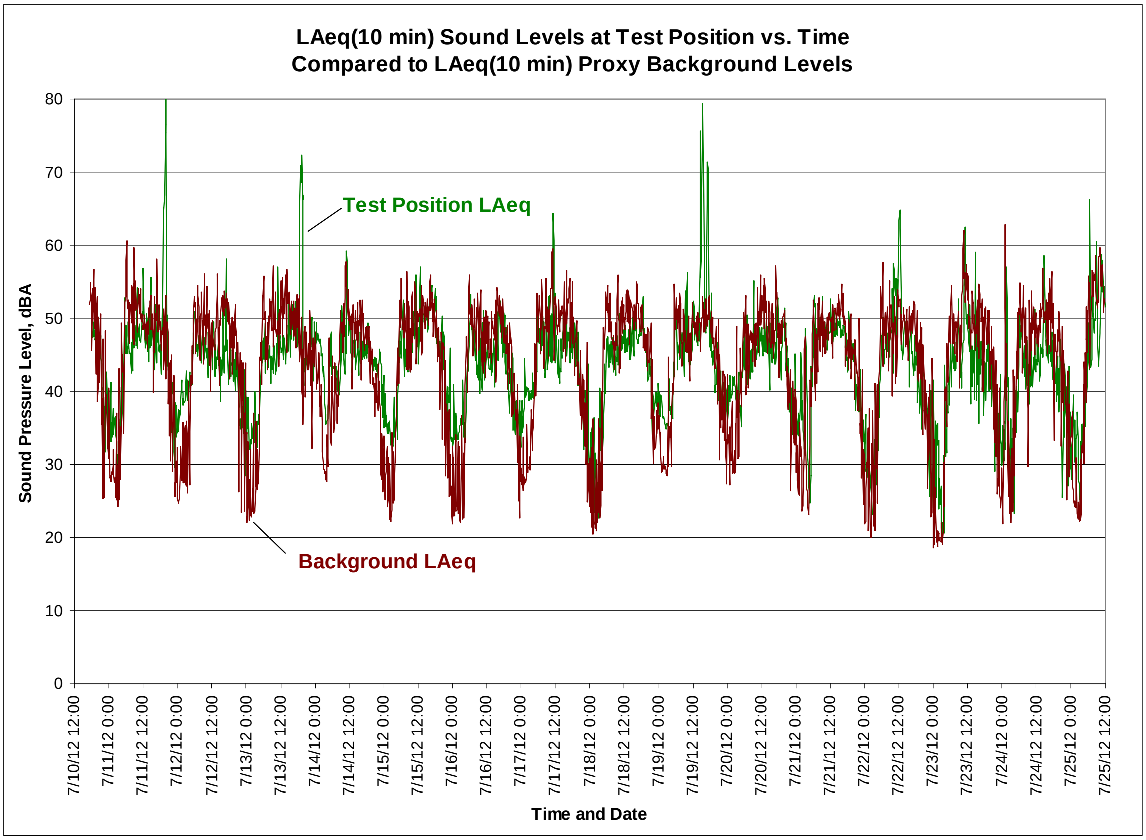

Figure 5.1.8.2

The $L_{Aeq,\ 10\ min}$ sound levels at both positions are virtually indistinguishable meaning that the project-only sound level simply cannot be deduced. Furthermore, it could even be reasoned that project noise is utterly inconsequential at this location because the on-site level is about the same or even lower than the off-site level, which is entirely free of any turbine noise, but, as we shall see later, that is not at all the case at this particular test position.

Finally, it is desirable to use instruments capable of measuring the frequency spectrum in 1/3 octave bands at one or two key locations with, usually Type 2, monitors measuring overall A-weighted levels at the majority of positions. The use of one or more frequency analyzers at key positions allows for some frequency analysis, although great caution must be exercised with the lower frequency bands, as discussed later, since wind-induced false signal noise is largely inevitable and the low frequency results cannot be taken at face value. Fortunately, this phenomenon does not significantly affect the measurement of A-weighted sound levels, however.

The use of 1/3 octave band analyzers is largely essential for surveys that, for one reason or another, must be conducted during summertime conditions when insect, frog or cicada noise is present. Measurements taken under these unfavorable conditions can be "corrected" to a certain extent by smoothing the high end of the frequency spectrum, where this kind of noise is usually obvious, and then recalculating the overall A-weighted sound level as shown in the (generic) example below.

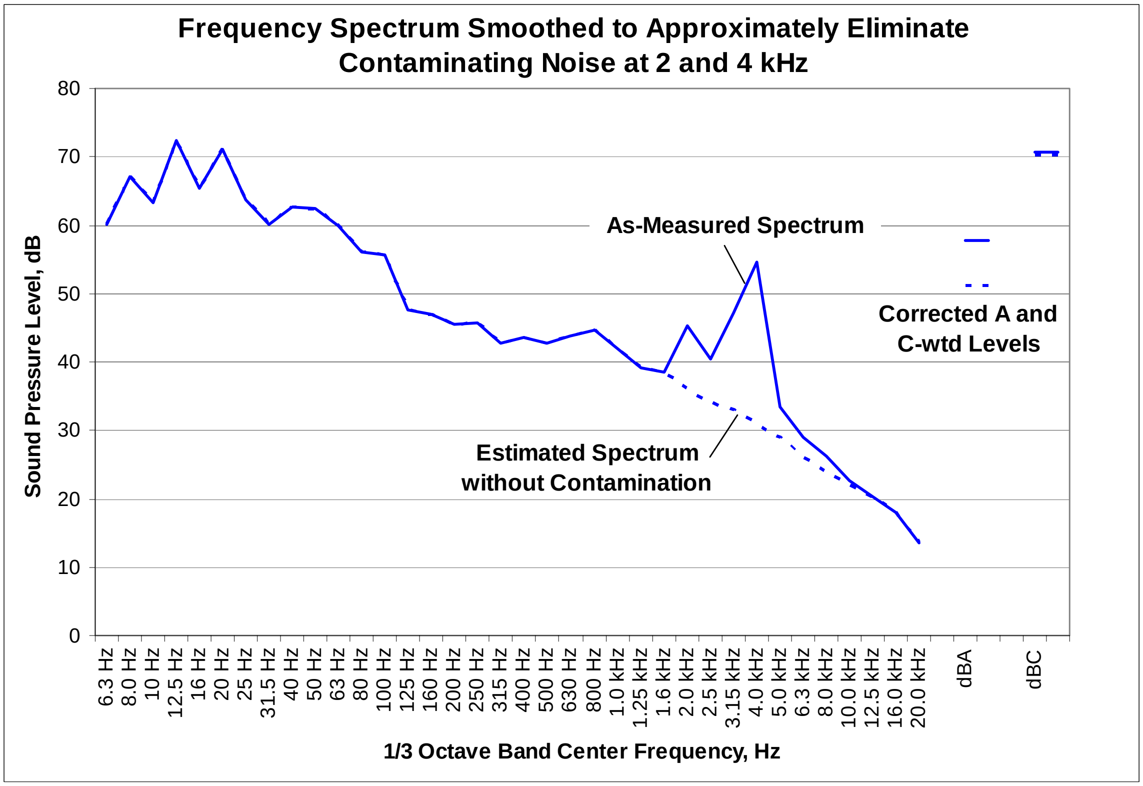

Figure 5.1.8.2

Of course, this correction would be laborious to perform for thousands or even just dozens of measurements so it is usually necessary to determine a typical correction, such as the -7 dBA adjustment that resulted in the example above, and apply that to all periods when this noise was apparently present. This is, of course, an imperfect remedy and the best policy is to avoid, if possible, measuring under these circumstances in the first place.

A solution to this common problem is currently being proposed by Hessler[33] and Schomer[34] in the form of a modified A-weighted network, termed "Ai-weighting", where all of the measured sound above 1000 Hz, or the 1250 Hz 1/3 octave band, is disregarded in situations where insect noise is present and an adjusted A-weighted sound level is calculated from the truncated spectrum.

5.1.9 *Wind-induced Microphone Distortion*

One of the principal errors in measuring wind turbine noise is false signal noise from wind blowing through the windscreen and over the microphone tip, which is manifested in the form of artificially elevated sound levels in the lower frequency bands. Taken at face value any measurement made in moderately windy conditions will ostensibly indicate relatively high levels of low frequency noise, irrespective of whether a wind turbine is present or not. This measurement error is probably one of the principal reasons wind turbines are mistakenly believed to produce high, if not harmful, levels of low frequency and infrasonic noise.

Some degree of distortion is essentially inevitable in any measurement taken above ground level when the wind is blowing, even when using an extra-large windscreen. It is in an effort to minimize this error that the IEC 61400-11 test procedure prescribes measuring on a reflective plate at ground level, where the wind speed is theoretically, although often not actually, zero. As previously mentioned, this ground plate technique is fine for short-term, attended measurements but is impractical for long-term surveys due to the potential for rain or melted snow to damage the microphone. Consequently, for lengthy compliance and evaluation surveys it is necessary to measure above ground level using a large, weather-treated windscreen - perhaps augmented with a very large secondary windscreen, although the practicality of such devices is questionable in harsh winter conditions.

Because environmental sound measurements of most other sources apart from wind turbines are not generally conducted in windy conditions as mandated by applicable standards, the significance and even existence of this measurement error has long gone unnoticed. Although this phenomenon and its physical basis were theorized decades ago by Strasberg[35,36] it is only fairly recently that its relevance to wind turbine sound measurements has been examined in detail and quantified. In particular, the subject of wind generated self-noise was thoroughly reviewed in 2006 by van den Berg[37] where he showed that the magnitude of the distortion depends not only on the mean incident wind speed but also on the amount of atmospheric turbulence present at the microphone position (largely a function of the local surface roughness) and on atmospheric stability. Measurements taken at 1 or 2 m above a smooth surface during stable, nighttime atmospheric conditions, when the surface winds are usually light, generally contain the least amount of self-generated noise ultimately replicating the case where the principal noise generation mechanism is wake turbulence trailing off the windscreen. In other less ideal circumstances self-noise levels can be developed by estimating the local surface roughness and atmospheric turbulence factor, Ψ, from wind speed measurements at two heights and/or from observations of cloud cover, time of day, general wind conditions, or meteorological data, if available.

The minimum level of false-signal noise due to wind, excluding the effect of atmospheric turbulence, can be estimated based on an empirical wind tunnel study carried out by Hessler and Brandstätt in 2008[38] in which conventional ½" microphones fitted with an array of common windscreens and were subjected to known wind velocities in a massively silenced wind tunnel. The measured sound levels during each test were essentially a direct measure of the false-signal noise – although for more or less laminar flow conditions corresponding to an outdoor setting with a very low surface roughness in neutral atmospheric conditions. Nevertheless, for the specific windscreens examined it is possible to generally estimate both the overall A-weighted or un-weighted (dBZ) sound level of the distortion from the microphone height wind speed and then subtract it from the total measured level to *largely* reverse the error.

An example is shown in Figure 5.1.9.1 where the overall A-weighted level of self-noise is calculated as a function of wind speed and subtracted from the as-measured sound level. The plot is a three day detail of a wind turbine survey where oversized 175 mm (7”) diameter treated windscreens (ACO Model WS7-80T) were used. This particular windscreen was found to be the best performer, in terms of minimizing wind-induced self-noise, in the wind tunnel study.

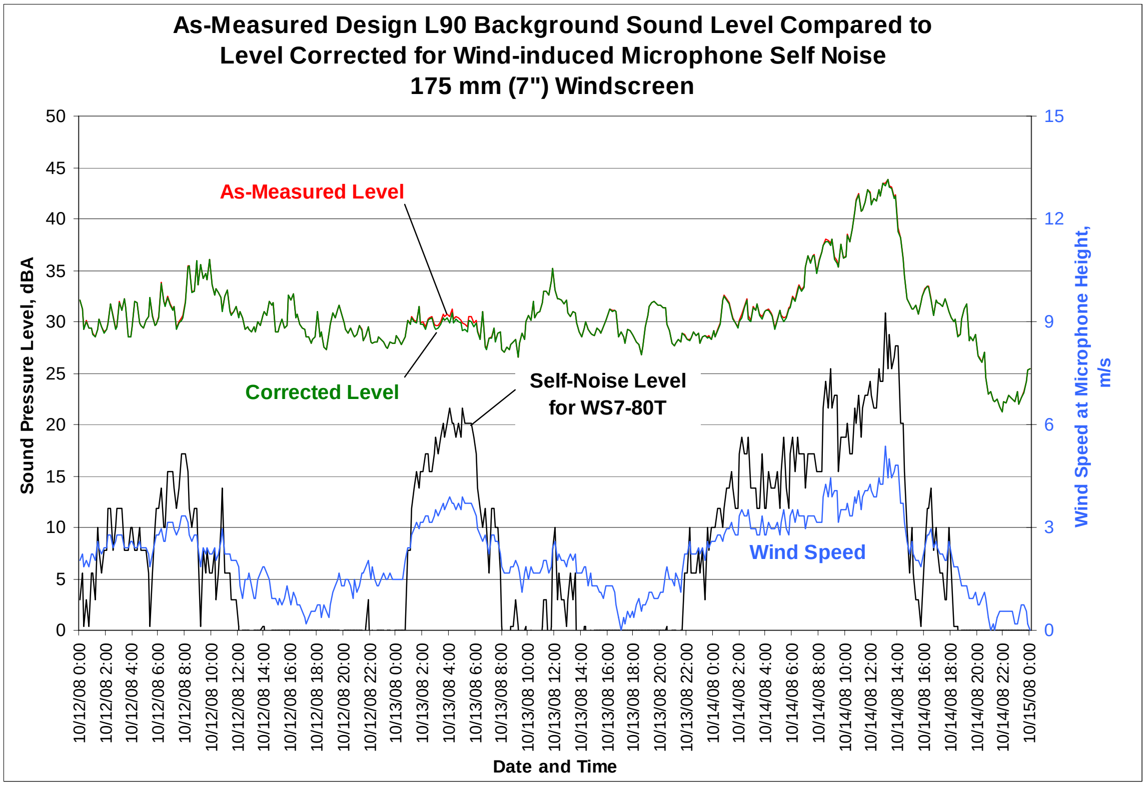

Figure 5.1.9.1

This figure shows the very typical result, at least where extra-large windscreens are used, that the correction is insignificant and can be essentially neglected when it comes to A-weighted sound levels. This is because with a large windscreen the distortion is confined to the very lowest frequencies where it has almost no impact on the A-weighted sound level. With a conventional 75 mm (3”) windscreen, on the other hand, wind-induced noise begins to become significant in the mid-frequency region, between about 63 and 400 Hz, where it has much more influence on the A-weighted sound level. Consequently, standard windscreens are not recommended for this type of survey and windscreens with a minimum diameter of 7” are recommended for wind turbine field work.

The empirical wind tunnel study results for 175 and 75 mm treated windscreens are shown below.

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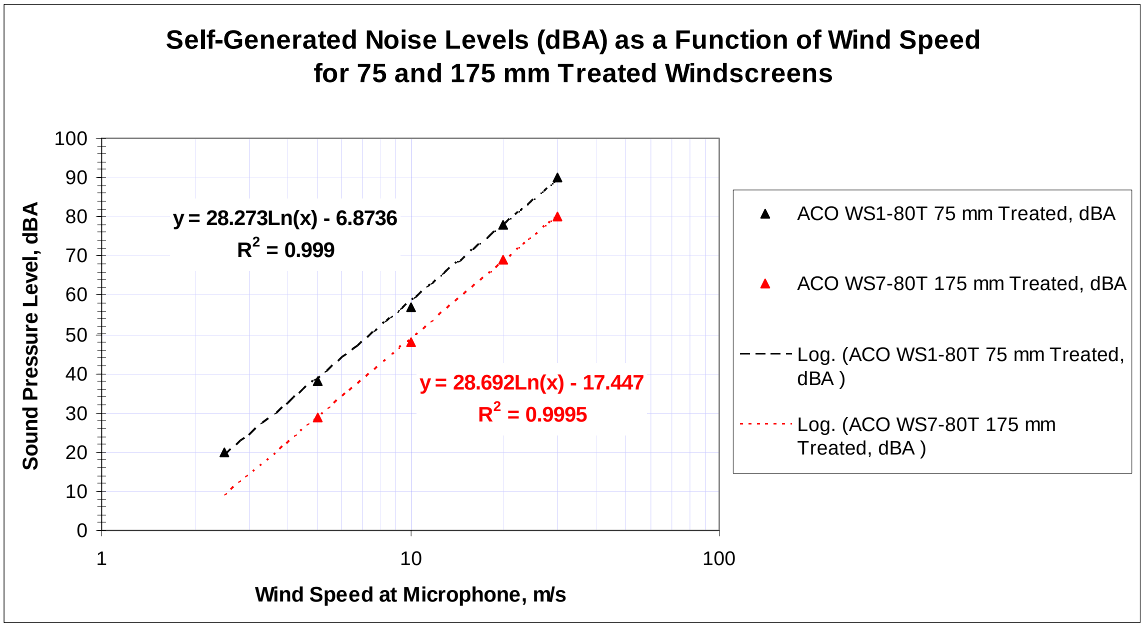

Figure 5.1.9.2

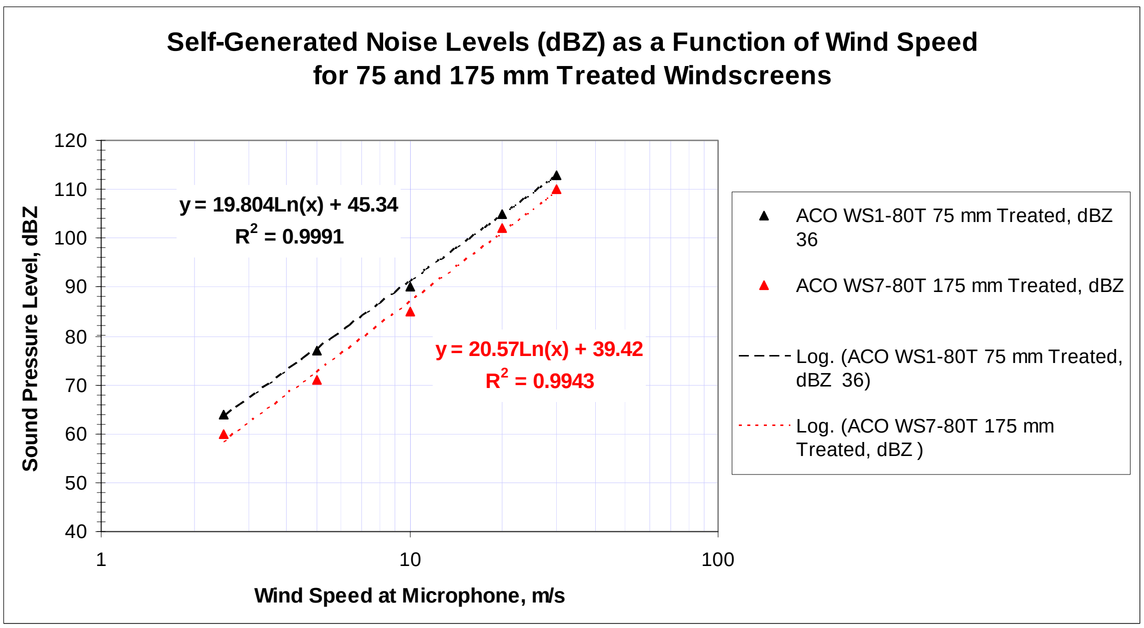

Figure 5.1.9.3

The overall level of self-generated noise for these windscreens may be estimated from the general expression below with the understanding that local atmospheric turbulence is not accounted for and a neutral atmosphere is assumed.

$$L_{p,self} = A \ln(v) + C, \text{ dB} \quad \text{for } v>1.5 \text{ m/s} \quad (1)$$

Where A and C are constants given in the table below and v is the normally incident wind speed at the microphone in m/s.

004613

Table 1 *Constants for A and Z-wtd Self-Noise Calculation Algorithm (Neglecting Atmospheric Turbulence)*

Windscreen Type	A-weighted Sound Level, dBA		Un-weighted Sound Level, dBZ	
	A	C	A	C
75 mm (3") Treated	28.273	-6.8736	19.804	45.34
175 mm (7") Treated	28.692	-17.447	20.57	39.42

In a real atmosphere the sound level may be higher or lower than given in Table 1, depending on the turbulent energy present, which again depends on the stability of the atmosphere. In a neutral atmosphere, which occurs at higher wind speeds (> 6 m/s at 10 m height) or in very clouded conditions, the wind-induced level might be anywhere from 5 to 9 dB higher than the levels shown above. After sunset, when the atmosphere is more prone to be stable, the wind-induced noise levels will be more similar to the values given above.

5.1.10 *Correction for Background Noise*

Once a design L_{A90} background sound level has been developed from averaging the data collected at the off-site proxy positions it can then be subtracted in the usual logarithmic manner[d] from the levels measured at each of the on-site positions to deduce the project-only sound level. However, this correction process is only relevant to samples recorded while the turbines were actually in operation and not necessarily to all samples; consequently, the data must be sifted to ignore all periods of calm winds. This can be accomplished by dealing only with data sets collected above the effective cut-in wind speed for the turbine model in question (bearing in mind whether that wind speed is measured at 10 m or hub height) or, more preferably, by comparing the measured data to a time history of project electrical output obtained from the SCADA, or project control system. For this latter option it is best to compare the operational output of the 2 or 3 units closest to each on-site measurement position rather than the total project output because this not only accurately defines the on and off times at each monitoring station but also may reveal, the fairly common occurrence, that certain units were temporarily down for maintenance or due to some unexpected malfunction. The relevance of this, of course, is that the measurements of project noise during this period would not have captured the maximum possible sound level.

Because the proxy background level is, for practical reasons, an inexact estimation of the site-wide background level, there will usually be instances when the background level exceeds the total measured level at certain on-site positions. Under this circumstance, and when the background level is below but within 3 dB of the total level, the project-only sound level would normally be considered indeterminate. While the calculation of

[d] $Lp_{Project} = 10 \log [10^{\wedge}(Lp_{Total}/10) - 10^{\wedge}(Lp_{Background}/10)]$, dBA

the project-only sound level is mathematically possible when the background level is below but within 3 dB of the total level, doing so tends to create spurious mathematical artifacts where the project level can be estimated at unrealistically low and obviously incorrect sound levels. Since most standards, such as ISO 3746[39], essentially disallow this calculation it is best to follow that policy here as well.

5.1.11 *Typical Test Results and Comparison to Model Predictions*

Representative examples from typical test positions within two different wind projects using two different turbine models and located in two different states are discussed below as a way of illustrating the outcome of the test methodology outlined above.

Example 1

The first example is from a test position at a residence within a project in a rural area in the Eastern United States where the turbines and homes are thoroughly mixed together – a common situation in this region and the Midwest. This location is surrounded in nearly all directions by a number of turbines at various distances, the closest being about 490 m (1600 ft.) away from the home with another 10 lying within a 1500 m (4900 ft.) radius. The terrain is gently rolling hills with a mixture of open fields and wooded areas. Mild complaints about noise had been received by the project from the residents of this home, which is the primary reason it was selected as a monitoring position.

The overall test results from a two week measurement survey in terms of the total measured level at the test point, the design background level derived from proxy positions and the normalized 10 m wind speed, are shown in Figure 5.1.11.1. This is same test position that was previously discussed in conjunction with Figure 5.1.8.2 and L_{Aeq} sound levels.

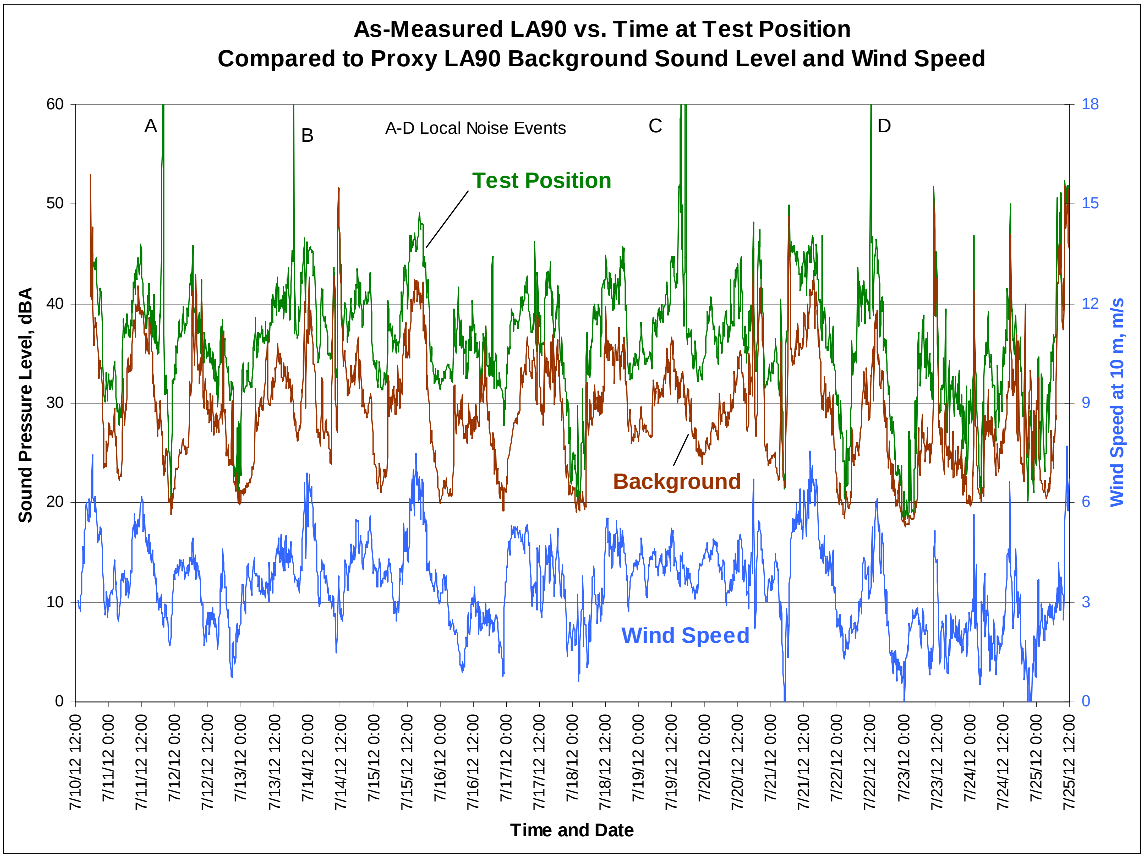

Figure 5.1.11.1

Although the raw results may appear unintelligible at first glance, a closer look reveals that the design background level (developed from an average of three off-site measurement positions) and the sound level at the test position both generally parallel the wind speed indicating that the measured levels are due to wind-induced sounds associated with the natural environment in the first case and to both natural and wind turbine sound in the second. As expected, the on-site level at the position surrounded by almost a dozen turbines is usually substantially higher than the background whenever a moderate wind is blowing and, also as expected, the on-site level is similar to the background during calm conditions when the project is not operating. It is the difference between these two levels during windy conditions that essentially constitutes and quantifies the noise impact of the project. As is evident from the plot, it is an ever-changing dynamic situation where the project sound level variously exceeds the background by anywhere from 0 to 10 dBA. This figure graphically points up the inadequacy of attempting to determine the project's noise emissions from a few short-term manned samples. The greatest differentials between the on- and off-site level tend to occur at night but it is important to note that while the project level may be quite a bit higher than the background, the sound level at the receptor point often remains very low in absolute terms with unadjusted raw levels commonly in low to mid 30's dBA.

Taking these test results through the next steps of correcting the on-site level for background noise and parsing out the low wind periods when the project was idle produces the following plot where the nominal project-only sound level is shown as a function of time over the survey period.

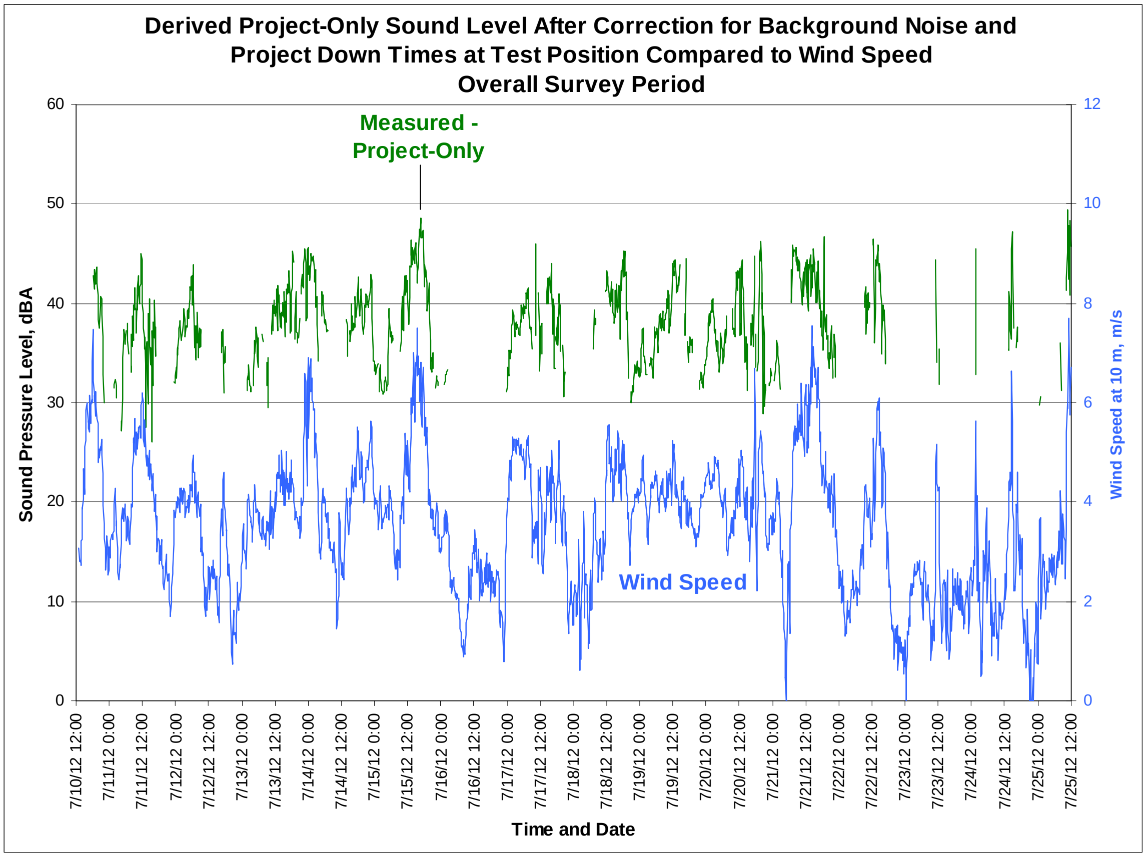

Figure 5.1.11.2

In terms of magnitude the project apparently generates sound levels ranging from 30 to 49 dBA at this location, depending largely but not only on wind speed. The fact that the project sound level does not exactly parallel the wind speed (which was derived from high elevation, rotor height anemometers) indicates that other atmospheric factors play a significant role in determining exactly how loud the project is at this location at any given moment.

What Figure 5.1.11.2 is technically showing is the baseline - L_{A90} - project sound level that is consistently present during each 10 minute measurement period. This means that somewhat higher sound level excursions lasting a few seconds to a few minutes are possible, if not probable, but it is not practical to capture the moment to moment variation over the lengthy survey period needed to adequate evaluate long-term project sound levels. However, comparing these results to model predictions based on the turbine sound power level indicates that the L_{A90} approach does not inadvertently underestimate project levels, as might be suspected. Figure 5.1.11.3 plots the modeled project sound level at this test position (using the procedures outlined in Section 4.1) against the measured project-only sound level. For clarity a detail of a representative three day period from the third to the sixth day of the survey is shown.

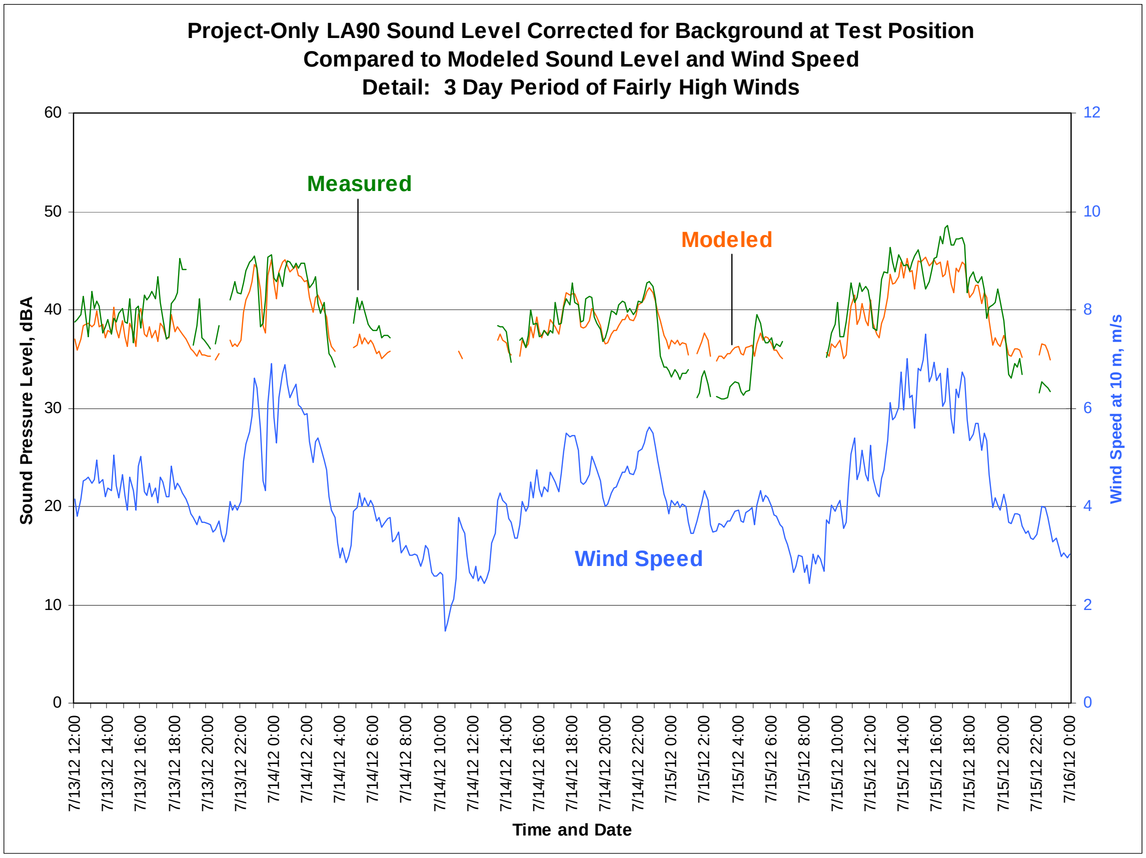

Figure 5.1.11.3

The modeled level is derived using a curve-fit polynomial function based on the predicted project sound level at integer wind speeds, which in turn is based on the turbine sound power level at those wind speeds taken directly from an IEC 61400-11 field test report. In general, the plot shows that the model prediction, based solely on the turbine's sound power level at specific wind speeds, provides a reasonably good approximation of the actual observed sound level.

Example 2

The second example is from a site in the Midwestern United States where the turbines are again intermixed with scattered homes and farms in a rural setting. This particular test location was adopted in response to, what turned out to be understandable, complaints about noise from a participant's "own" turbine that had been sited at the unfortunate distance of only 180 m (600 ft.) from the house. The raw test results are summarized in Figure 5.1.11.4.

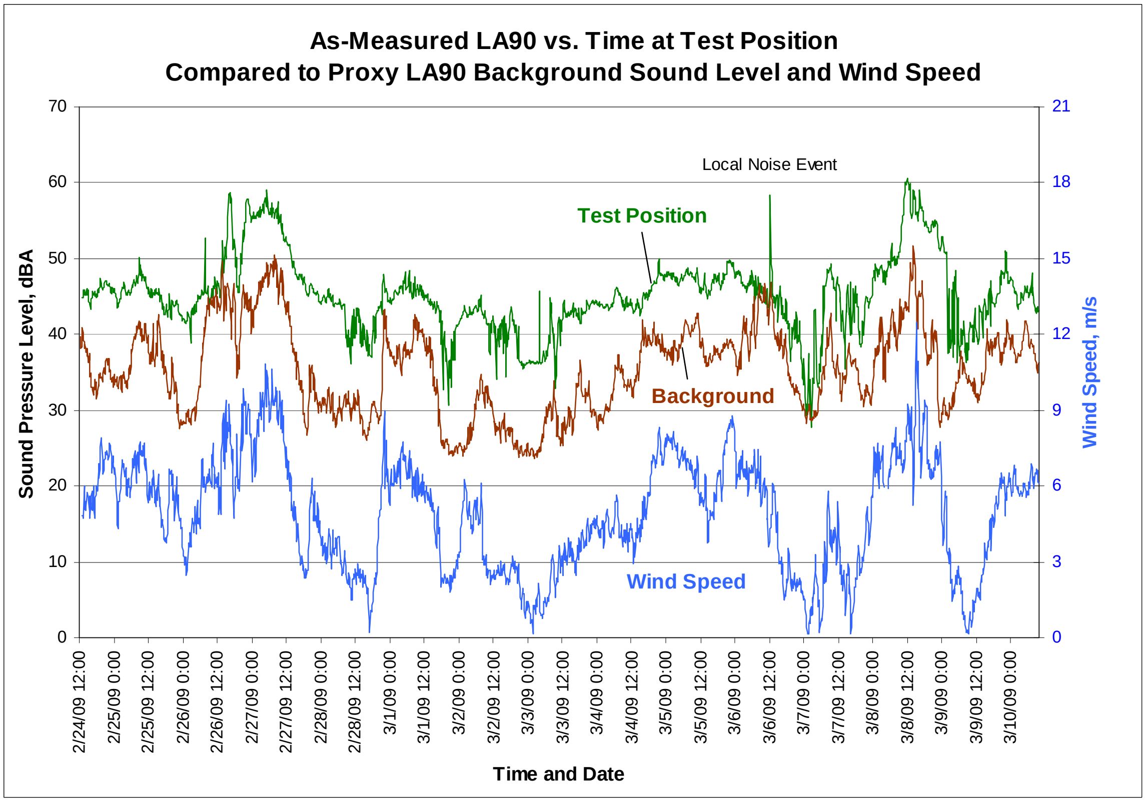

Figure 5.1.11.4

In this instance, the total sound level at the house is consistently and not surprisingly well above the background level developed from four off-site monitoring stations, meaning that much of the time background noise was largely insignificant, if not inaudible. The corrected project-only sound level for a three day windy period near the beginning of the survey is shown below compared to model predictions.

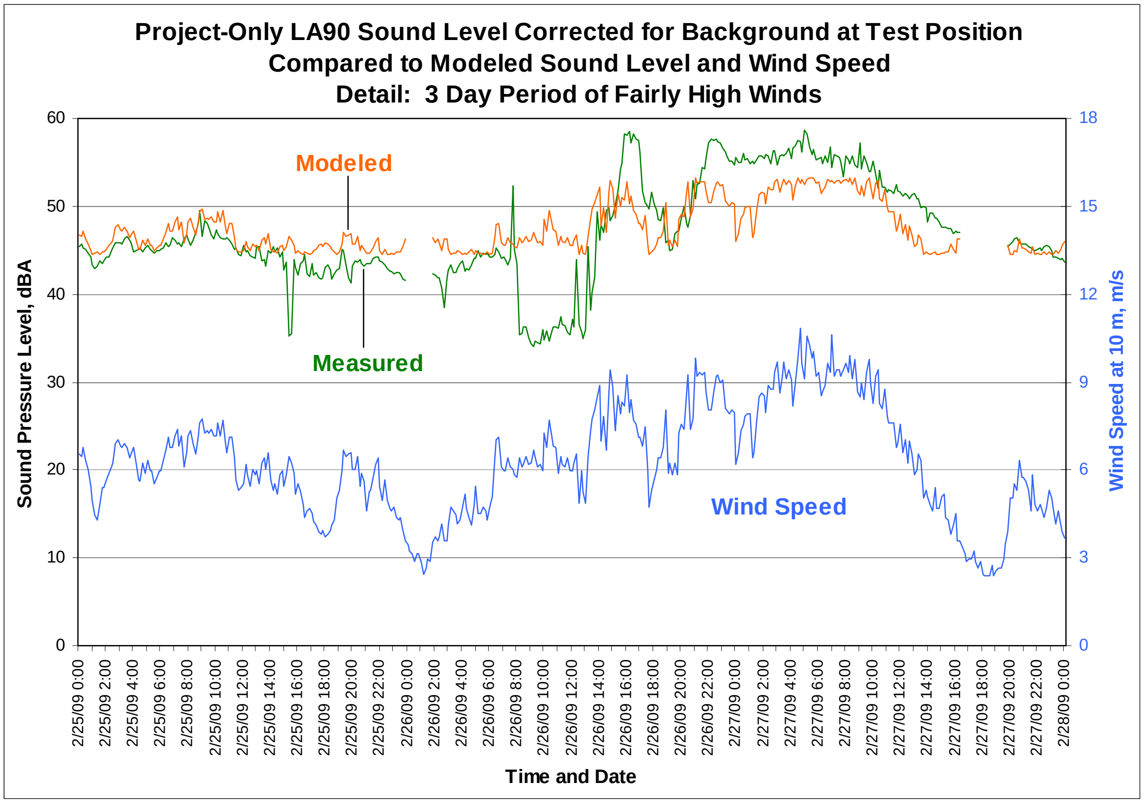

Figure 5.1.11.5

In this instance, as with Example 1, the predicted level intertwines with the measured level, sometimes over-estimating, sometimes underestimating but generally capturing the mean project sound level. The variation above and below the predicted level is largely a measurement of how all other factors beyond the simple wind speed are affecting the total sound level perceived at this location. One of these factors may be unique to the turbine model used at this site, which, based on other surveys and observations, appears to have a tendency to produce sound levels in excess of the manufacturer's stated performance in high wind conditions, which may be part of the reason the actual level significantly exceeds the expected levels in the second half of this sample period. This same departure between the predicted and measured levels also appears in the regression analysis below for the entire survey period where the project-only sound levels are plotted as a function of wind speed.

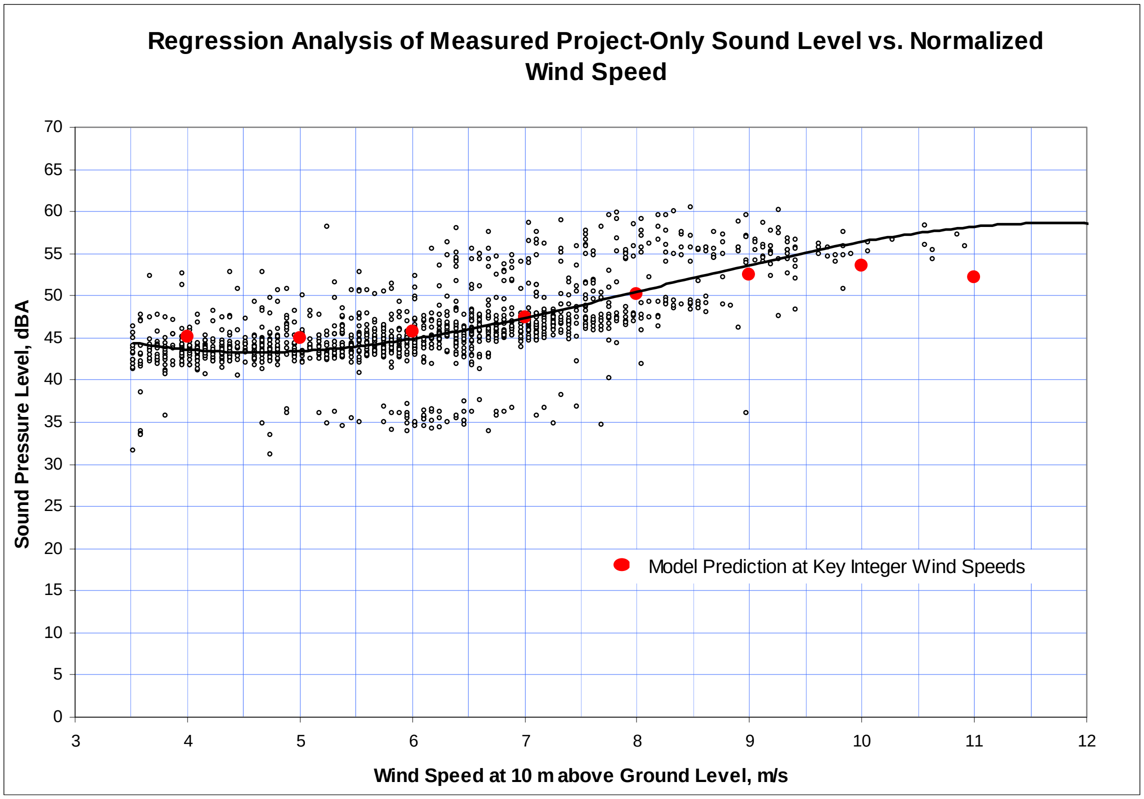

Figure 5.1.11.6

Good agreement with the mean trend is evident up to about 9 m/s but not beyond it.

These two examples are presented to illustrate the outcome of the test methodology and are generally representative of the typical results obtained at a number of test positions over a number of such surveys. That is not to say, however, that the method is infallible and that mismatches between measured and predicted levels will never be found. Testing wind turbine noise is challenging and inherently imprecise because the sound sources themselves and the propagation of sound from them to a given point of interest is dependent on the environment in general and amorphous wind and atmospheric conditions in particular.

5.1.12 *Interpretation of Test Results Relative to Permit Limits*

The regression plot above (Figure 5.1.11.6) exhibits the typical behavior where there is a scatter to the test results and the project sound level is not a perfectly fixed quantity at a given wind speed. This is an unavoidable consequence of the nebulous atmospheric conditions mentioned above. The question that this raises, however, is how to interpret the results of the survey relative to the absolute, or in some cases relative, noise limits contained in planning consent or permit conditions. Excursions, sometimes very substantial excursions, above the mean project sound level are inevitable and under all normal circumstances it would be a complete impossibility to design and lay out a project so that the sound level never exceeded a specific value at a particular point or, more realistically, at a large number of residences within the vicinity of the project. Only projects in obviously remote locations could ever be comfortably designed to such a limit. Consequently, the possibility, even likelihood, that project noise will occasionally spike for short periods should be factored in to regulatory limits. That this issue is not addressed in current laws or limits pertaining to wind turbines is simply a result of the understandable fact that few are aware that it is even an issue.

As a suggestion, it seems reasonable to conclude that a project is in compliance with an absolute regulatory limit if the measurements indicate that the project-only sound level is lower than the stated limit at least 95% of the time, taking that number from the commonly used statistical confidence interval.

5.2 Single Site Investigations

In addition to evaluating operational sound levels on a project-wide basis with regard to regulatory compliance, it is sometimes necessary to carry out dedicated field surveys, usually in response to complaints, that are focused only on a specific point. Although each of these situations is certainly unique, the general test approach outlined above can generally be applied with the exception that more resources can be brought to bear on understanding the project sound level at that particular location.

5.2.1 *General Test Design*

The general test set up for a diagnostic or investigative sound survey at a single point would follow the procedures described for a site-wide test in terms of survey length, equipment and measurement technique with the following enhancements.

The primary measurement position will be outside the residence or point of interest where it is usually prudent to use multiple instruments for redundancy and/or increased functional capability. For example, it is highly desirable to measure the overall A-weighted sound level, the frequency content in 1/3 octave bands and to store audio recordings whenever an appropriate trigger level is reached. While all three of these things can be achieved by some instruments, it would be safer to use the 1/3 octave band analyzer to store numerical data and use a second instrument to store both back-up A-weighted data and the audio files. In any case, having multiple instruments can also allow for additional time resolutions (beside the standard 10 minute periods) to be recorded at the same time; 1 minute or 1 hour data, for instance. In addition to the sound recording equipment a weather station recording wind speed at microphone height, wind direction and rainfall, among other common parameters, should be set up nearby.

The specific measurement position should be at a location with exposure to all of the nearest turbines or at a place that replicates the exposure of the residence to the project but is removed from any sources of local contaminating noise (HVAC equipment, farm machinery, human activities, etc.).

As with a more general survey, the background level is still of just as much concern so 2 to 3 proxy background measurement positions should be found in opposite directions that are remote from any turbines and, in this particular case, replicate as closely as possible the setting of the principal test location in terms of terrain, exposure to wind and exposure to other noise, such as from a road.

The principal and proxy background positions above will theoretically determine what the project sound level is at the residence but may not indicate why it is. To this end several additional monitoring stations close to the 3 or 4 nearest turbines are recommended that are ideally located in line with the principal position at the standard IEC 61400-11 test distance of the hub height plus half the rotor diameter (typically around 125 m, or 400 ft.). A hypothetical test set up involving four nearby turbines is shown in Figure 5.2.1.1.

Figure 5.2.1.1

Note that several of the intermediate positions are slightly off the direct sight line to keep them in open and reasonably accessible areas. Although this hypothetical example was conveniently conducive to this test set up, additional complications are likely to arise; in particular access to private property, which may call for some creativity in designing the test layout. Nevertheless, the idea is to gauge the individual contribution from all of the nearest units over a variety of wind directions and weather conditions to determine if the problematic noise levels are principally associated with perhaps one unit or a particular set of wind conditions. Moreover, the principal purpose for measuring the noise emissions of all the nearest units is to be able to estimate the actual sound power level of each unit and analytically calculate, by means of a simple spreadsheet model, or modeling software, the total sound level at the house for comparison to the measured level there. This approach allows the individual contribution from each unit to be quantified for different conditions and also helps confirm, in a manner independent from the proxy monitoring approach, how much of the received signal at the principal measurement location is due to the project and how much is background noise. In addition, the sound power level of each unit can be informally checked against the manufacturer's warranty value.

While the ground board technique specified in IEC 61400-11 is not practical for long-term, unattended measurements - mainly because of concern about rain - a comparable, if somewhat less rigorous, result can be obtained from measuring at 1 m above grade by placing the microphone or monitor on a tripod or temporary post at the appropriate distance. In Figure 5.2.1.2, for example, measurements were made simultaneously at 1 second resolution with a microphone on a ground plate and with two additional microphones at 1 and 2 m above it. The average and consistent differential between both above ground positions and the microphone on the reflective plate was 2.7 dB, which is close to the ideal 3 dB differential that one would expect.

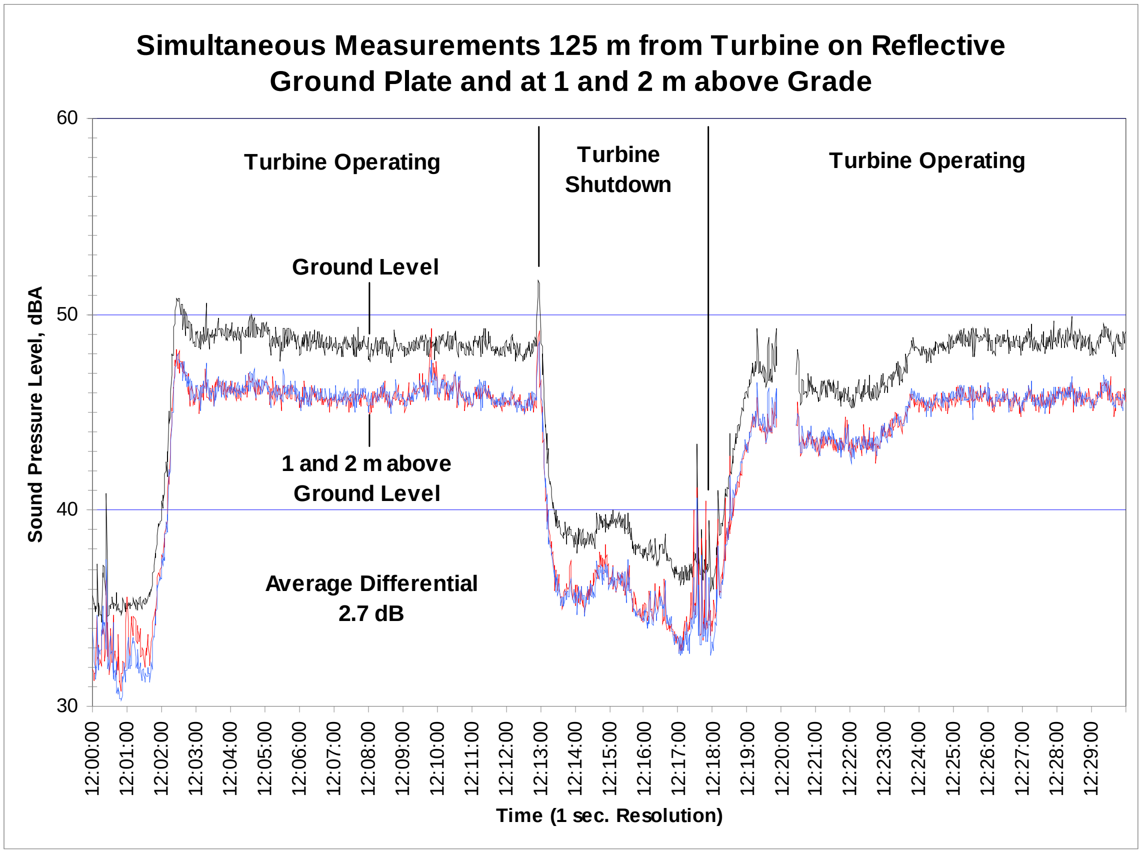

Figure 5.2.1.2

This example illustrates that it is possible under certain circumstances to reasonably measure the apparent A-weighted turbine sound power level above ground level without serious degradation due to wind distortion. Of course, this may not be true when it is particularly windy at 1 m above ground level. Another potential complication arises when multiple turbines are in unusually close proximity to each other, as they are in Figure 5.2.1.1, and background noise or cross-contamination from one unit to another must be taken into account in such cases. In general, however, the only substantive modification to the IEC 61400-11 process for calculating sound power level would be to change the constant "6" to "3" in Eqn. (9) of the standard since above ground measurements are being used.

As suggested by Figure 5.2.1.2, an additional tool that is normally useful and practical for single site investigations is to temporarily shutdown, for 10 to 20 minutes, the nearest turbines to the point of interest, if not all those that could conceivably be affecting the sound level there, in order to obtain direct measurements of the background level so the project-only level can be derived with some confidence from the operational sound levels occurring just before or after the shutdown. A short-duration shutdown helps ensure that the wind and weather conditions are essentially identical for both the on and off measurements. This technique also offers a way of verifying the validity of the levels measured at the off-site background positions. It is usually during the times of peak noise that it is most desirable to have an exact measurement of project's sound level, since these are the noise levels that most likely engendered the complaint in the first place. Consequently, it becomes a matter of either being there when these conditions occur, which is frequently at night, to organize the shutdown - or putting control over the shutdown in the hands of the resident who can call in by pre-arrangement to the control room if and when the noise becomes objectionable in terms of its overall magnitude and/or begins to exhibit some adverse character, such as from amplitude modulation. Although this latter approach of allowing the resident identify the time of maximum noise has been used successfully to quantify the overall magnitude of project noise and its frequency content in 1/3 octave bands, one must really be on hand to manually measure amplitude modulation, since it calls for the use of an extremely fine time resolution, on the order of milliseconds, to capture the sound oscillations that normally have a period of roughly 1 second. Such manual measurements can be taken indoors, where this kind of noise is most often observed to be objectionable, as well as outdoors.

Only with attended measurements it is possible, and then only occasionally, to measure indoor sound levels in any kind of meaningful way because contaminating noises can be observed and, hopefully, factored out. Long-term monitoring is effectively limited to the outdoors for the fundamental reason that there is no way to ascertain the background sound level inside of a dwelling at a particular time with the project operating. This is because the background sound level indoors is driven by a unique set of seemingly minor but significant sound sources that cannot be replicated by a proxy measurement position. Indoor background sound levels are partially a function of the outdoor conditions, particularly when it is windy or raining, but are also driven by such things as air flow from the heating and air conditioning system, appliances, computers and, of course, human activity even when it is in a distant part of the house. These usually very minor sounds are significant because the intruding noise level from the project is often very low or extremely low in terms of the A-weighted sound level. For example, it would not be unusual for a project sound level to be in the vicinity of 30 dBA inside of the house (perhaps being in the 40 to 45 dBA range outdoors). The successful measurement of the project-only sound level would then require the indoor background level to be 20 dBA or less, which is usually not the case. Sound levels in a bedroom at night are commonly at least 30 dBA even when no wind project is present.

In any event, it is sound level outside of dwellings that is normally (but not always) restricted by regulations or permit conditions and this level can typically be measured with the long-term monitoring methodology described above.

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Low frequency noise and infrasound from wind turbines

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A common issue raised with wind energy developers and operators of utility-scale wind turbines is whether the operation of their wind turbines may create unacceptable levels of low frequency noise and infrasound. In order to answer this question, one of the major wind energy developers commissioned a scientific study of their wind turbine fleet. The study consisted of three parts: 1) a world-wide literature search to determine unbiased guidelines and standards used to evaluate low frequency sound and infrasound, 2) a field study to measure wind turbine noise outside and within nearby residences, and 3) a comparison of the field results to the guidelines and standards. Wind turbines from two different manufacturers were measured at an operating wind farm under controlled conditions with the results compared to established guidelines and standards. This paper presents the results of the low frequency noise and infrasound study. Since the purpose of this paper is to report on low frequency and infrasound emissions, potential annoyance from other aspects of wind turbine operation were not considered, and must be evaluated separately.

Primary subject classification: 14.5.4; Secondary subject classification: 21.8.1

1 INTRODUCTION

Early down-wind wind turbines in the US created low frequency noise; however current up-wind wind turbines generate considerably less low frequency noise. Epsilon Associates, Inc. ("Epsilon") was retained by NextEra Energy Resources, LLC ("NextEra"), formerly FPL Energy, to investigate whether the operation of their wind turbines may create unacceptable levels of low frequency noise and infrasound. This question has often been posed to NextEra, and other wind energy developers and operators of utility-scale wind turbines. NextEra is one of the world's largest generators of wind power with approximately 7,600 net megawatts (MW) in operation as of July 2010.

The project was divided into three tasks: 1) literature search, 2) field measurement program, and 3) comparison to criteria. Epsilon conducted an extensive literature search of the technical and scientific literature on the effects of low-frequency noise and infrasound and existing criteria in order to evaluate low-frequency noise and infrasound from wind turbines. After completion of the literature search and selection of criteria, a field measurement program was developed to measure wind turbine noise to compare to the selected criteria.

The frequency range 20–20,000 Hz is commonly described as the range of "*audible*" noise. The frequency range of low frequency sound is generally from 20 Hertz (Hz) to 200 Hz, and the range below 20 Hz is often described as "*infrasound*". However, audibility extends to frequencies below 20 Hz.

Low frequency sound has several definitions. American National Standards ANSI/ASA S12.2[1] and ANSI S12.9 Part 4[2] have provisions for evaluating low frequency noise, and these special treatments apply only to sounds in the octave bands with 16, 31.5, and 63-Hz mid-band frequencies. For these reasons, in this paper on wind turbine noise, we use the term "low frequency noise" to include 12.5 Hz–200 Hz with emphasis on the 16 Hz, 31 Hz and 63 Hz octave bands with a frequency range of 11 Hz to 89 Hz.

International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC) standard 60050-801:1994[3] defines "*infrasound*" as "Acoustic oscillations whose frequency is below the low frequency limit of audible sound (about 16 Hz)." This definition is *incorrect* since sound remains audible at frequencies well below 16 Hz provided that the sound level is sufficiently high. In this paper we define infrasound to be below 20 Hz, which is the limit for the standardized threshold of hearing. Since there is no sharp

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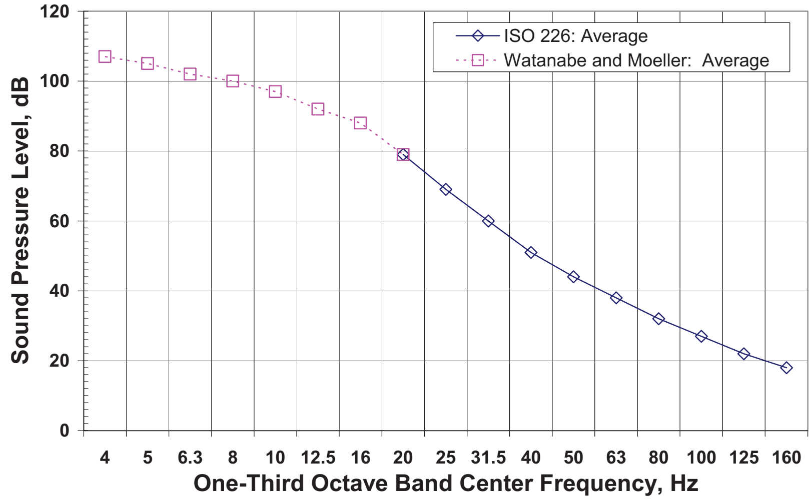

Fig. 1—Low frequency average threshold of hearing from ISO 226[6] and Watanabe and Moeller[7].

change in hearing at 20 Hz, the division into "low-frequency sound" and "infrasound" should only be considered "practical and conventional."

2 EFFECTS AND CRITERIA OF LOW FREQUENCY SOUND AND INFRASOUND

We performed an extensive world-wide literature search of over 100 scientific papers, technical reports and summary reports on low frequency sound and infrasound—hearing, effects, measurement, and criteria. Leventhall[4] presents an excellent and comprehensive study on low frequency noise from all sources and its effects. The Leventhall report also presents criteria in place at that time, which does not include some of the more recently developed ANSI/ASA standards on outdoor environmental noise and indoor sounds.

The United States government does not have specific criteria for low frequency noise. The US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has guidelines for the protection of public health with an adequate margin of safety in terms of annual average A-weighted day-night average sound level (L_{dn}), but there are no corrections or adjustments for low frequency noise. The US Department of Transportation (DOT) has A-weighted sound pressure level criteria for highway projects and airports, but these do not have adjustments for low frequency noise. The following sections describe the low frequency and infrasound criteria to which wind turbine sounds are compared in later sections.

2.1 Threshold of Hearing and Audibility

Moeller and Pedersen[5] present an excellent summary on human perception of sound at frequencies below 200 Hz. The ear is the primary organ for sensing infrasound. Hearing becomes gradually less sensitive for decreasing frequencies. But, humans with a normal hearing organ can perceive infrasound at least down to a few hertz if the sound level is sufficiently high.

The threshold of hearing is standardized for frequencies down to 20 Hz[6]. Based on extensive research and data, Moeller and Pedersen propose normal hearing thresholds for frequencies below 20 Hz; however, their proposed threshold is higher than that obtained by Watanabe and Moeller[7]. To be conservative, we have used the data from Watanabe and Moeller[7] for the region below 20 Hz. (See Fig. 1.) Moeller and Pedersen[5] suggest that the curve for low frequency thresholds for normal hearing is "probably correct within a few decibels, at least in most of the frequency range."

The hearing thresholds show considerable variability from individual to individual with a standard deviation among subjects of about 5 dB independent of frequency between 3 Hz and 1000 Hz with a slight increase at 20–50 Hz. This implies that the audibility threshold for 97.5% of the population is greater than the values in Fig. 1 minus 10 dB and for 84% of the population is greater than the values in Fig. 1 minus 5 dB. Moeller and Pedersen suggest that the "pure-tone threshold can with a reasonable approximation be used as a guideline for the thresholds also for [low frequency] non-sinusoidal sounds"[5]; ISO 226 has thresholds for frequencies at and above 20 Hz and approximately equates the thresholds and equal loudness contours for non-sinusoidal sounds to those in the standard for sinusoidal sounds[6].

As frequency decreases below 20 Hz, if the noise source is tonal, the tonal sensation ceases. Below 20 Hz tones are perceived as discontinuous. Below 10 Hz it is possible to perceive the single cycles of a tone, and the perception changes into a sensation of pressure at the ears.

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Below 100 Hz, the dynamic range of the auditory system decreases with decreasing frequency, and the compressed dynamic range has an effect on equal loudness contours: a slight change in sound level can change the perceived loudness from barely audible to loud. This combined with the large variation in individual hearing may mean that a low frequency sound that is inaudible to some may be audible to others, and may be relatively loud to some of those for whom it is audible. Loudness for low frequency sounds grows considerably faster above threshold than for sounds at higher frequencies[5].

Non-auditory perception of low frequency and infrasound occurs only at levels above the auditory threshold. In the frequency range of 4−25 Hz and at "*levels* 20−25 dB *above [auditory] threshold it is possible to feel vibrations* in various parts of the body, e.g., the lumbar, buttock, thigh and calf regions. A feeling of pressure may occur in the upper part of the chest and the throat region" [emphasis added][5].

2.2 ANSI S12.9-Parts 4 and 5—Evaluating Outdoor Environmental Sound

American National Standard ANSI/ASA S12.9-2007/Part 5[8] has an informative annex which provides guidance for designation of land uses compatible with existing or predicted annual average adjusted day-night average outdoor sound level (DNL). Ranges of the DNL are outlined, within which a specific region of compatibility may be drawn. These ranges take into consideration the noise reduction in sound level from outside to inside buildings as commonly constructed in that locality and living habits there. There are adjustments to day-night average sound level to account for the presence of low frequency noise, and the adjustments are described in ANSI S12.9 Part 4, which use a sum of the sound pressure levels in octave bands with center frequencies of 16, 31 and 63 Hz.

ANSI S12.9/Part 4 identifies two thresholds: annoyance is minimal when the 16, 31.5 and 63 Hz octave band sound pressure levels are each less than 65 dB and there are no rapid fluctuations of the low frequency sounds. The second threshold is for increased annoyance which begins when rattles occur, which begins at L_{LF} 70−75 dB. L_{LF} is 10 times the logarithm of the ratio of time-mean square sound pressure in the 16, 31.5, and 63-Hz octave bands divided by the square of the reference sound pressure.

The adjustment procedure for low frequency noise to the average annual A-weighted sound pressure level in ANSI S12.9/Part 4 uses a different and more complicated metric and procedure (Equation D.1) than those used for evaluating low frequency noise in rooms contained in ANSI/ASA S12.2. (See Sec. 2.3). Since we are evaluating low frequency noise and not A-weighted sound levels, we do not recommend using the procedure for adjusting A-weighted levels. Instead we recommend using the following two guidelines from ANSI S12.9/Part 4: a sound pressure level of 65 dB in each of the 16-, 31.5-, and 63 Hz octave bands as an indicator of minimal annoyance, and 70−75 dB for the summation of the sound pressure levels from these three bands as an indicator of possible increased annoyance from rattles.

2.3 ANSI/ASA S12.2—Evaluating Room Noise

ANSI/ASA S12.2-2008[1] discusses criteria for evaluating room noise, and has two separate provisions for evaluating low frequency noise: (1) the potential to cause perceptible vibration and rattles, and (2) meeting low frequency portions of room criteria curves. Since the ANSI S12.2 criteria are for indoor sounds, in order to determine equivalent outdoor criteria for comparison to outdoor measurements, data from Sutherland[9] and Hubbard and Shephard[10] were used to determine typical noise reductions from outdoor to indoor with windows open. (The Appendix of this paper describes the noise reductions used to determine equivalent outdoor criteria to indoor criteria.) Table A1 presents octave band noise reductions applied in this evaluation along with the average low frequency octave band noise reductions from outdoor to indoors from Refs. 9 and 10 for open and closed windows. Table A2 presents the one-third octave band noise reductions applied in the analysis that were determined in the same manner using data from the same references.

Vibration and Rattles: Outdoor low frequency sounds of sufficient amplitude can cause building walls to vibrate and windows to rattle. Homes have low values of transmission loss at low frequencies, and low frequency noise of sufficient amplitude may be audible within homes. Window rattles are not low frequency noise, but may be caused by low frequency noise. ANSI/ASA S12.2 presents limiting levels at low frequencies for assessing (a) the probability of *clearly* perceptible acoustically induced vibration and rattles in lightweight wall and ceiling constructions, and (b) the probability of *moderately* perceptible acoustically induced vibration in similar constructions. The limiting sound pressure levels in the octave bands with center frequencies of 16, 31.5 and 63 Hz are presented in Table 1.

Applying the outdoor to indoor attenuations for wind turbine sources with windows open given in the last row of Table A1 to the ANSI/ASA S12.2 indoor sound pressure levels in Table 1 yields the equivalent

Table A1—Average low frequency octave band home noise reductions from outdoor to indoors in dB (from Ref. 9 and 10).

Noise Source	Window condition	Octave Band Center Frequency 16 Hz	31.5 Hz	63 Hz	125 Hz
Average aircraft and traffic sources	Closed windows	16	15	18	20
Average aircraft and traffic sources	Open windows	(11)*	(10)*	12	11
Average Wind Turbine	Closed windows	8	11	14	18
Average Wind Turbine	Open windows	(3)*+	(6)*+	9+	9+

* No data are available for windows open below 63 Hz octave band. The values for 16 Hz and 31 Hz were obtained by subtracting the difference between the levels for 63 Hz closed and open conditions to the 16 and 31 Hz closed values.
+ Used in this paper to determine equivalent outdoor criteria from indoor criteria in Tables 2 and 4

outdoor sound pressure levels that are consistent with the indoor criteria and are presented in Table 2.

Room Criteria Curves: ANSI/ASA S12.2 has three primary methods for evaluating the suitability of noise within rooms: a survey method—A-weighted sound levels, an engineering method—noise criteria (NC) curves, and a method for evaluating low-frequency fluctuating noise using room noise criteria (RNC) curves. ANSI/ASA S12.2 states "The RNC method should be used to determine noise ratings when the noise from HVAC systems at low frequencies is loud and is suspected of containing sizeable *fluctuations or surging*." [emphasis added] The NC curves are appropriate to evaluate low frequency noise from wind turbines in homes since wind turbine noise does not have significant fluctuating low frequency noise sufficient to warrant using RNC curves and since A-weighted sound levels do not adequately determine

Table A2—Average low frequency one-third octave band noise reduction in dB for homes from outdoor to indoors.

Condition	One-Third Octave Band Center Frequency, Hz 10	12.5	16	20	25	31.5	40	50	63	80	100	125	160
Open Window*	2	2	3	4	4.5	5	7	8	9	9	9	9	9
Average Closed Window with wind turbines[10] **	8	7	8	8	8	11	13	14	15	12	18	18	18

* Used to determine equivalent outdoor levels as shown in Table 7.
** Used to determine equivalent outdoor levels as shown in Table 9.

Table 1—ANSI/ASA S12.2 measured interior sound pressure levels for perceptible vibration and rattle in lightweight wall and ceiling structures.[1]

Condition	Octave-band center frequency (Hz) 16	31.5	63
Clearly perceptible vibration and rattles likely	75 dB	75 dB	80 dB
Moderately perceptible vibration and rattles likely	65 dB	65 dB	70 dB

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Table 2—Equivalent outdoor sound pressure levels to the ANSI/ASA S12.2 indoor sound pressure levels for perceptible vibration and rattle in lightweight wall and ceiling structures for wind turbines.

	Octave-band center frequency (Hz)		
Condition	16	31.5	63
Clearly perceptible vibration and rattles likely	78 dB	81 dB	89 dB
Moderately perceptible vibration and rattles likely	68 dB	71 dB	79 dB

if there are low frequency problems. [ANSI/ASA S12.2, Sec. 5.3 gives procedures for determining if there are large fluctuations of low frequency noise.]

Annex C.2 of ANSI/ASA S12.2 contains recommended room criteria curves for bedrooms, which are the rooms in homes with the most stringent criteria: NC and RNC criteria curve between 25 and 30. The recommended NC and RNC criteria for schools and private rooms in hospitals are the same. The values of the sound pressure levels in the 16–125 Hz octave bands for NC curves 25 and 30 are shown in Table 3. Applying the outdoor to indoor attenuations for wind turbine sources with windows open given in the last row of Table A1 to the ANSI/ASA S12.2 indoor sound pressure levels for NC-25 and NC-30 in Table 3 yields the equivalent outdoor sound pressure levels that are consistent with the indoor criteria and are presented in Table 4.

ANSI/ASA S12.2 also presents a method to determine if the levels below 500 Hz octave band are too high in relation to the levels in the mid-frequencies which could create a condition of "spectrum imbalance". The method for this evaluation is:

- Calculate the speech interference level (SIL) for the measured spectrum. [SIL is the arithmetic average of the sound pressure levels in the 500, 1000, 2000 and 4000 Hz octave bands.] Select the NC curve equal to the SIL value with a symbol NC(SIL).
- Plot the measured spectra and the NC curve equal to the SIL value on the same graph and determine the differences between the two curves in the octave bands below 500 Hz.
- Estimate the likelihood that the excess low-frequency levels will annoy occupants of the space using Table 5.

Table 3—ANSI/ASA S12.2 low frequency octave band sound pressure levels for noise criteria curves NC-25 and NC-30. [Table 1 from Ref. 1].

	Octave-band-center frequency, Hz			
NC Criteria	16	31.5	63	125
NC-25	80	65	54	44
NC-30	81	68	57	48

2.4 Other Criteria

2.4.1 World Health Organization (WHO)

No specific low frequency noise criteria are proposed by the WHO. The Guidelines for Community Noise report[11] mentions that if the difference between

Table 4—Equivalent outdoor sound pressure levels to the ANSI/ASA S12.2 low frequency octave band sound pressure levels for noise criteria curves NC-25 and NC-30. [Table 1 from Ref. 1].

	Octave-band-center frequency, Hz			
NC Criteria	16	31.5	63	125
NC-25 equivalent outdoor	83	71	63	53
NC-30 equivalent outdoor	84	74	66	57

Table 5—Measured sound pressure level deviations from an NC (SIL) curve that may lead to serious complaints[1].

Octave-band frequency, Hz=>	Measured Spectrum—NC(SIL), dB			
	31.5	63	125	250
Possible serious dissatisfaction	*	6–9	6–9	6–9
Likely serious dissatisfaction	*	>9	>9	>9

* Insufficient data available to evaluate

Table 6—DEFRA proposed criteria[13] for the assessment of low frequency noise disturbance: Indoor L_{eq} one-third sound pressure levels for non-steady and steady low frequency sounds.

	One-Third Octave Band Center Frequency, Hz												
Location	10	12.5	16	20	25	31.5	40	50	63	80	100	125	160
Non-Steady L_{eq}, dB	92	87	83	74	64	56	49	43	42	40	38	36	34
Steady L_{eq}, dB	97	92	88	79	69	61	54	48	47	45	43	41	39

the C-weighted sound level and A-weighted sound level is greater than 10 decibels, then a frequency analysis should be performed to determine if there is a low frequency issue. A document prepared for the World Health Organization states that "there is no reliable evidence that infrasounds below the hearing threshold produce physiological or psychological effects. Infrasounds slightly above detection threshold may cause perceptual effects but these are of the same character as for 'normal' sounds. Reactions caused by extremely intense levels of infrasound can resemble those of mild stress reaction and may include bizarre auditory sensations, describable as pulsation and flutter"[12].

2.4.2 The UK Department for Environment, Food, and Rural Affairs (DEFRA)

The report prepared by the University of Salford for the UK Department for Environment, Food, and Rural Affairs (DEFRA) on low frequency noise proposed one-third octave band sound pressure level L_{eq} criteria and procedures for assessing low frequency noise[13]. The guidelines are based on complaints of disturbance from low frequency sounds and are intended to be used by Environmental Health Officers.

Existing low frequency noise criteria from several countries were reviewed and experiences with low frequencies complaints were considered in developing the proposed guidelines. The criteria are "based on 5 dB below the ISO 226 average threshold of audibility for steady [low frequency] sounds." However, the DEFRA criteria are at 5 dB lower than ISO 226 only at 20−31.5 Hz; at higher frequencies the criteria are equal to the Swedish criteria which are higher levels than ISO 226 less 5 dB. For frequencies lower than 20 Hz, DEFRA uses the thresholds from Ref. 7 less 5 dB.

The DEFRA criteria are based on measurements in an unoccupied room, and it was noted by a practicing consultant that measurements should be made with windows closed[14]. However, we conservatively used windows open conditions for our assessment to determine equivalent outdoor criteria since the DEFRA measurement procedure does not explicitly state measurements are with windows closed. If the low frequency sound is "steady" then the criteria may be relaxed by 5 dB. A low frequency noise is considered steady if either $L_{10}-L_{90}<5$ dB or the rate of change of sound pressure level (Fast time weighting) is less than 10 dB per second in the third octave band which exceeds the criteria by the greatest margin.

Applying indoor to outdoor one-third octave band transfer functions for open windows (as presented in Table A2 from analysis of data in Refs. 9 and 10) yields *equivalent* one-third octave band sound pressure level proposed DEFRA criteria for outdoor sound levels. Table 6 presents the indoor DEFRA proposed criteria for non-steady and steady low-frequency sounds. Table

Table 7—Equivalent outdoor L_{eq} one-third sound pressure levels for non-steady and steady sounds to the DEFRA indoor criteria[13] for the assessment of low frequency noise disturbance.

	One-Third Octave Band Center Frequency, Hz												
Location	10	12.5	16	20	25	31.5	40	50	63	80	100	125	160
Non-Steady Equivalent outdoor * L_{eq}, dB	94	89	86	78	68.5	61	56	51	51	49	47	45	43
Steady Equivalent Outdoor* L_{eq},	99	94	91	83	73.5	66	61	56	56	54	52	50	48

* With windows open

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Table 8—Japan Ministry of Environment Guidance for evaluating complaints of low frequency noise: Reference one-third octave band sound pressure level values for complaints of rattling.

	One-Third Octave Band Center Frequency, Hz										
Location	5	6.3	8	10	12.5	16	20	25	31.5	40	50
Outdoor L_{eq}, dB	70*	71*	72*	73	75	77	80	83	87	93	99

* The reference values are several dB lower than the supporting data contained in Ref. 15. At 5 Hz, window rattles started at about 74 dB in one study and 79 dB in another; at 6.3 Hz, rattles started at 74 dB in the first study and at 78 dB in the second; and at 8 Hz, window rattle started at 74 dB in the first study and 77 dB in the second study.

7 presents the DEFRA equivalent outdoor criteria for non-steady and steady low frequency sounds.

2.4.3 Japan Ministry of Environment

The Japan Ministry of Environment has published a handbook to deal with low frequency noise problems and has established reference values for guidance in dealing with complaints of rattling windows and doors and complaints of "mental and physical discomfort"[15]. It was noted that traditional Japanese houses have relatively light-weight and sensitive windows and partitions[16].

Table 8 presents the Japanese reference outdoor one-third octave band sound pressure level values for guidance in dealing with complaints of rattling from environmental sounds from 5 Hz to 50 Hz. From 10 Hz to 50 Hz the guidance levels are equal to the observed threshold of rattles from two studies with a total of 78 samples. However, for the bands centered at 5, 6.3 and 8 Hz, the reference values are several dB lower than the supporting data contained in these two studies[15]. At 5 Hz, the lowest observed window rattle was at 74 dB in one study and 79 dB in another; at 6.3 Hz, rattles started at 74 dB in the first study and at 78 dB in the second; and at 8 Hz, window rattle started at 74 dB in the first study and 77 dB in the second study. Thus the reference values at 5, 6.3 and 8 Hz in Table 8 are conservative in comparison to the other values by 4, 3, and 2 dB respectively.

Table 9 presents the Japanese reference one-third octave band sound pressure level values for guidance in dealing with complaints of mental and physical discomfort from environmental sounds when evaluated indoors. Evaluation measurements are to be performed with windows closed to the outside. The values in Table 9 are less stringent than the DEFRA values in Table 6 for non-steady sounds but more stringent than the DEFRA values for steady sounds in some one-third octave bands. In order to obtain equivalent outdoor sound levels, the average noise reduction from wind turbine noise with windows closed from Ref. 10 was applied to the Japan reference values. Table 9 presents the Japanese indoor reference values, the noise reductions for windows closed[10] and the equivalent outdoor reference values. These equivalent outdoor values are less stringent than the equivalent outdoor DEFRA values in Table 7 for both non-steady sounds and steady sounds except for the 80 Hz band in which the Japanese level is 1 dB more stringent than the DEFRA level for steady sounds.

2.4.4 C-weighted minus A-weighted ($L_{pC}-L_{pA}$)

Leventhall[4] and others indicate that the difference in C-weighted and A-weighted sound pressure levels can be a predictor of annoyance. Leventhall states that if ($L_{pC}-L_{pA}$) is greater than 20 dB there is "a potential for a low frequency noise problem." He further states that ($L_{pC}-L_{pA}$) cannot be a predictor of annoyance but is a simple indicator that further analysis may be needed. This is due in part to the fact that the low frequency noise may be inaudible even if ($L_{pC}-L_{pA}$) is greater than 20 dB.

3 LITERATURE REVIEW

The authors performed an extensive literature search of over 100 scientific papers, technical reports and summary reports on low frequency sound and infrasound—hearing, effects, measurement, and criteria. The following paragraphs briefly summarize the findings from some of these papers and reports.

3.1 Leventhall

Leventhall[4] presents an excellent study on low frequency noise from all sources and its effects. The report presents criteria in place at that time and includes data relating cause and effects. Leventhall[17] reviewed data and allegations on alleged problems from low frequency noise and infrasound from wind turbines, and concluded the following: "It has been shown that there is insignificant infrasound from wind turbines and that there is normally little low frequency noise." "Turbulent air inflow conditions cause enhanced levels of low frequency noise, which may be disturbing, but the overriding noise from wind turbines is the fluctuating audible swish, mistakenly referred to

Table 9—Japan Ministry of Environment Guidance for evaluating complaints of low frequency noise: Reference one-third octave band sound pressure level values for complaints of mental and physical discomfort.

	One-Third Octave Band Center Frequency, Hz									
Location	10	12.5	16	20	25	31.5	40	50	63	80
Indoor L_{eq}, dB	92	88	83	76	70	64	57	52	47	41
Noise Reduction*, dB	8	7	8	8	8	11	13	14	15	12
Equivalent Outdoor L_{eq}, dB	100	95	91	84	78	75	70	66	62	53

* from Hubbard[10] windows closed condition

as "infrasound" or "low frequency noise". "Infrasound from wind turbines is below the audible threshold and of no consequence". Other studies have shown that wind turbine generated infrasound levels are below threshold of perception and threshold of feeling and body reaction.

3.2 DELTA

The Danish Energy Authority project on "low frequency noise from large wind turbines" comprises a series of investigations in the effort to give increased knowledge on low frequency noise from wind turbines[18]. One of the conclusions of the study is that wind turbines do not emit audible infrasound, with levels that are "far below the hearing threshold." Audible low frequency sound may occur both indoors and outdoors, "but the levels in general are close to the hearing and/or masking level." "In general the noise in the critical band up to 100 Hz is below both thresholds". The final report notes that for road traffic noise (in the vicinity of roads) the low frequency noise levels are higher [than wind turbine] both indoors and outdoors.

3.3 Hayes McKenzie Partnership

Hayes McKenzie Partnership Ltd performed a study for the UK Department of Trade & Industry (DTI) to investigate complaints of low frequency noise that came from three of the five farms with complaints out of 126 wind farms in the UK[14]. The study concluded that:

- Infrasound associated with modern wind turbines is not a source which will result in noise levels that are audible or which may be injurious to the health of a wind farm neighbor.
- Low frequency noise was measureable on a few occasions, but below DEFRA criteria. Wind turbine noise may result in indoor noise levels within a home that is just above the threshold of audibility; however, it was lower than that of local road traffic noise.
- The common cause of the complaints was not associated with low frequency noise but the occasional audible modulation of aerodynamic noise, especially at night.
- The UK Department of Trade and Industry, which is now the UK Department for Business Enterprise and Regulatory Reform (BERR), summarized the Hayes McKenzie report: "The report concluded that there is no evidence of health effects arising from infrasound or low frequency noise generated by wind turbines."[19].

3.4 Howe

Howe performed extensive studies on wind turbines and infrasound and concluded that infrasound was not an issue for modern wind turbine installations—"while infrasound can be generated by wind turbines, it is concluded that infrasound is not of concern to the health of residences located nearby."[20]. Since then Gastmeier and Howe[21] investigated an additional situation involving the alleged "perception of infrasound by individual." In this additional case, the measured indoor infrasound was at least 30 dB below the audibility threshold given by Ref. 7 as presented in Fig. 1.

3.5 Branco

Branco and other Portuguese researchers have studied possible physiological affects associated with high amplitude low frequency noise and have labeled these alleged effects as "Vibroacoustic Disease" (VAD)[22]. "Vibroacoustic disease (VAD) is a whole-body, systemic pathology, characterized by the abnormal proliferation of extra-cellular matrices, and caused by excessive exposure to low frequency noise."

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Hayes[23,24] concluded that levels from wind farms are not likely to cause VAD after comparing noise levels from alleged VAD cases to noise levels from wind turbines in homes of complainers. Noise levels in aircraft in which VAD has been hypothesized are considerably higher than wind turbine noise levels. Hayes also concluded that it is "unlikely that symptoms will result through induced internal vibration from incident wind farm noise."[23]. Other studies have found no VAD indicators in environmental sound that have been alleged by VAD proponents[25].

3.6 French National Academy of Medicine

In 2006, the French National Academy of Medicine recommended[26] "*as a precaution* construction should be suspended for wind turbines with a capacity exceeding 2.5 MW located within 1500 m of homes." [emphasis added] However, this precaution is not because of definitive health issues but because:

- Sound levels one km from some wind turbine installations "occasionally exceed allowable limits" for France (note that the allowable limits are long term averages).
- French prediction tools for assessment did not take into account sound levels created with wind speeds greater than 5 m/s.
- Wind turbine noise has been compared to aircraft noise (even though the sound levels of wind turbine noise are significantly lower), and exposure to high level aircraft noise "involves neurobiological reactions associated with an increased frequency of hypertension and cardiovascular illness. Unfortunately, no such study has been done near wind turbines."[27].

In March 2008, the French Agency for Environmental and Occupational Health Safety (AFSSET) published a report on "the health impacts of noise generated by wind turbines", commissioned by the Ministries of Health and Environment in June 2006 following the report of the French National Academy of Medicine in March 2006[28]. The AFSSET study recommends that one does not define a fixed minimum distance between wind farms and homes, but rather to model the acoustic impact of the project on a case-by-case basis. One of the conclusions of the AFSSET report is: "The analysis of available data shows: The absence of identified direct health consequences concerning the auditory effects or specific effects usually associated with exposure to low frequencies at high level." ("L'analyse des données disponibles met en évidence: L'absence de conséquences sanitaires directes recensées en ce qui concerne les effets auditifs, ou les effets spécifiques généralement attachés à l'exposition à des basses fréquences à niveau élevé.").

4 FIELD PROGRAM

Two types of utility-scale wind turbines were studied for this field program. These two turbines are among the most commonly used in the NextEra fleet: General Electric (GE) 1.5sle (1.5 MW), and Siemens SWT-2.3-93 (2.3 MW).

Sound levels for these wind turbine generators (WTGs) vary as a function of wind speed from cut-in wind speed to maximum sound level. Cut-in wind speed for the GE 1.5sle wind turbine is 3.5 m/s while the Siemens wind turbine has a cut-in wind speed of 4 m/s. Maximum reference sound power levels for the GE 1.5sle and Siemens 2.3-93 are approximately 104 dB and 105 dB respectively as provided by the manufacturer. These sound power levels are reached at electrical output levels of approximately 924 kW and 1767 kW for the GE and Siemens units, respectively. Under higher wind speeds, the sound levels from the wind turbines do not increase although electrical power output does continue to increase up to the rated power of each wind turbine (1500 kW and 2300 kW respectively).

Each wind turbine manufacturer has an uncertainty factor "K" of 2 dB to guarantee the turbine's sound power level. (K accounts for both measurement variations and production variation[29].) The results presented later in this paper include sound power values which have added the manufacturer's K value to the reference values, that is, 2 dB above the expected reference levels for the measured wind conditions and power output.

Real-world data were collected from operating wind turbines to compare to the low frequency noise guidelines and criteria discussed previously in Sec. 2. These data sets consisted of outdoor measurements at various reference distances, and concurrent indoor/outdoor measurements at residences within the wind farm.

NextEra provided access to the Horse Hollow Wind Farm in Taylor and Nolan Counties, Texas in November 2008 to collect data on the GE 1.5sle and Siemens SWT-2.3-93 wind turbines. The portion of the wind farm used for testing is relatively flat with no significant terrain. The land around the wind turbines is rural and primarily used for agriculture and cattle grazing. The siting of the sound level measurement locations was chosen to minimize local noise sources except the wind turbines and the wind itself. Hub height for these wind turbines is 80 meters above ground level (AGL).

Two of the authors collected sound level and wind speed data over the course of one week under a variety of operational conditions. Weather conditions were dry the entire week with ground level winds ranging from calm to 12.5 m/s (28 mph) over a 1-minute average. In order to minimize confounding factors, the data collection tried to focus on periods of maximum sound levels from the wind turbines (moderate to high hub height winds) and light to moderate ground level winds.

Ground level (2 meters AGL) wind speed and direction were measured continuously at one representative location. Wind speeds near hub height were also measured continuously using the permanent meteorological towers maintained by the wind farm.

A series of simultaneous interior and exterior sound level measurements were made at four houses owned by participating landowners within the wind farm. Two sets were made of the GE WTGs, and two sets were made of the Siemens WTGs. Data were collected with both windows open and windows closed. Due to the necessity of coordinating with the homeowners in advance, and reasonable restrictions on time of day to enter their homes, the interior/exterior measurement data sets do not always represent ideal conditions. However, enough data were collected to compare to the criteria and draw conclusions on low frequency noise.

Sound level measurements were also made simultaneously at two reference distances from a string of wind turbines under a variety of wind conditions. Using the manufacturer's sound power level data, calculations of the sound pressure levels as a function of distance in flat terrain were made to aid in deciding where to collect data in the field. Based on this analysis, two distances from the nearest wind turbine were selected—305 meters (1,000 feet) and 457 meters (1,500 feet)—and were then used where possible during the field program. Distances much larger than 457 meters (1,500 feet) were not practical since an adjacent turbine string could then be closer and affect the measurements, or would put the measurements beyond the boundaries of the wind farm property owners. Brief background sound level measurements were conducted several times during the program whereby the Horse Hollow Wind Farm operators were able to shutdown the nearby WTGs for a brief (20 minutes) period. This was done in real time using cell phone communication.

All the sound level measurements described above were attended. One series of unattended overnight measurements was made at two locations for approximately 15 hours to capture a larger data set. One measurement was set up approximately 305 meters (1,000 feet) from a GE 1.5sle WTG and the other was set up approximately 305 meters (1,000 feet) from a Siemens WTG. The location was chosen based on the current wind direction forecast so that the sound level equipment would be downwind for the majority of the monitoring period. By doing this, the program was able to capture periods of strong hub-height winds and moderate to low ground-level winds.

All sound levels were measured using two Norsonic Model Nor140 precision sound analyzers, equipped with a Norsonic-1209 Type 1 Preamplifier, a Norsonic-1225 half-inch microphone and a 7-inch Aco-Pacific untreated foam windscreen Model WS7. The instrumentation meets the "Type 1—Precision" requirements set forth in American National Standards Institute (ANSI) S1.4 for acoustical measuring devices[30]. The microphone was tripod-mounted at a height of 1.5 meters (five feet) above ground. The measurements included simultaneous collection of broadband (A-weighted) and one-third-octave band data (3.15 hertz to 20,000 hertz bands). Sound level data were primarily logged in 10-minute intervals to be consistent with the wind farm's Supervisory Control And Data Acquisition (SCADA) system which provides electrical power output (kW) in 10-minute increments. A few sound level measurements were logged using 20-minute intervals for use in determining home transmission loss values. The meters were calibrated and certified as accurate to standards set by the National Institute of Standards and Technology. These calibrations were conducted by an independent laboratory within the past 12 months. Ground level wind speed and direction were measured with a HOBO H21-002 micro weather station (Onset Computer Corporation). The wind data were sampled every three seconds and logged every one minute.

5 RESULTS AND COMPARISON TO CRITERIA

Results from the field program are organized by wind turbine type. For each wind turbine type, results are presented per location type (outdoor or indoor) with respect to applicable criteria. Results are presented for 305 meters (1,000) feet from the nearest wind turbine. Data were also collected at 457 meters (1,500 feet) from the nearest wind turbine which showed lower sound levels. Therefore, wind turbines that met the criteria at 305 meters also met it at 457 meters. Data were collected under both high turbine output and moderate turbine output conditions (defined as sound power levels 2 or 3 dB less than the maximum sound power levels), and low ground-level wind speeds. The sound level data under the moderate conditions were equivalent to or lower than the high turbine output scenarios, thus confirming the conclusions from the high output cases. None of the operational sound level data were corrected for background noise. A-weighted sound power levels presented in this section (used to describe turbine operation) were estimated from the actual measured power output (kW) of the wind turbines and the sound power levels as a function of wind speed plus an uncertainty factor K of 2 dB.

Outdoor measurements are compared to criteria for audibility, for UK DEFRA disturbance using equivalent outdoor levels, for rattle and annoyance criteria as

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Table 10—Summary of operational parameters—Siemens SWT-2.3-93 (Outdoor).

Parameter	Sample #34	Sample #39
Distance to nearest WTG	305 meters	305 meters
Time of day	22:00-22:10	22:50-23:00
WTG power output	1,847 kW	1,608 kW
A-weighted sound power level*	107 dB	106.8 dB
Measured wind speed @ 2 m	3.3 m/s	3.4 m/s
L_{Aeq}	49.4 dB	49.6 dB
L_{A90}	48.4 dB	48.6 dB
L_{Ceq}	63.5 dB	63.2 dB

* Includes K, uncertainty factor of 2 dB

contained in ANSI S12.9/Part 4, for evaluating complaints of rattling using Japan Ministry of Environment guidance, and for perceptible vibration using equivalent outdoor levels from ANSI/ASA S12.2. Indoor measurements are compared to criteria for audibility, for UK DEFRA disturbance, for evaluating complaints of mental and physical discomfort using Japan Ministry of Environment guidance, and for suitability of bedrooms, hospitals and schools and perceptible vibration from ANSI/ASA S12.2.

5.1 Siemens SWT-2.3-93

5.1.1 Outdoor measurements—Siemens SWT-2.3-93

Sound levels during six 10-minute periods of high wind turbine output and relatively low ground wind speed (which minimized effects of wind noise) were measured outdoors approximately 305 meters (1,000 feet) from the closest Siemens WTG. This site was actually part of a string of 15 WTGs, four of which were within 610 meters (2,000 feet) of the monitoring location. Representative sound level data from two 10-minute periods are presented herein and include contributions from all wind turbines as measured by the recording equipment. One data set is representative of time periods with low frequency sound level values near the maximum measured and the other data set is representative of the mean. The standard deviations for the low frequency one-third octave band levels for the six measurement periods were between 0.2–0.7 dB. The key operational and meteorological parameters during these two measurement periods are listed in Table 10.

Figure 2 plots the one-third octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for both samples of high output conditions. The results show that infrasound is inaudible to even the most sensitive people 305 meters (1,000 feet) from these wind turbines (more than 20 dB below the median thresholds of hearing). Low frequency sound above 40 Hz may be audible depending on background sound levels.

Figure 3 plots the one-third octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for both samples of high output conditions. The low frequency sound was "steady" according to DEFRA procedures, and the results show that all outdoor equivalent DEFRA disturbance criteria are met.

Figure 4 compares the one-third octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for both samples of high output conditions to the Japan Ministry of Environment levels for evaluating complaints on rattle. The rattle criteria is met at all frequencies except at 5 Hz where the mean value is 1 dB (standard deviation of 0.4 dB) higher than the Japanese evaluation value. When one considers that the 5 Hz sound level is 3 dB lower than the observed threshold of rattle, one concludes that the Japanese criteria are met.

The measured outdoor sound levels also meet the outdoor equivalent Japan Ministry of Environment

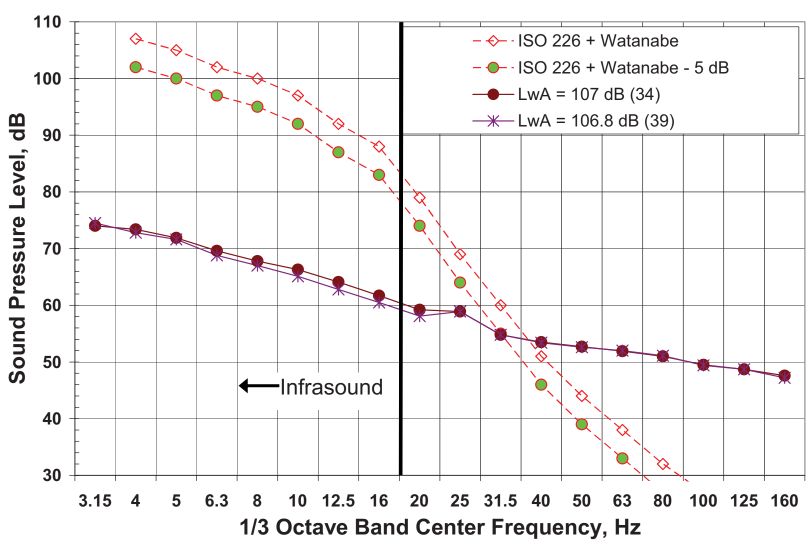

Fig. 2—Siemens SWT-2.3-93 wind turbine outdoor sound levels at 305 meters compared to audibility criteria.

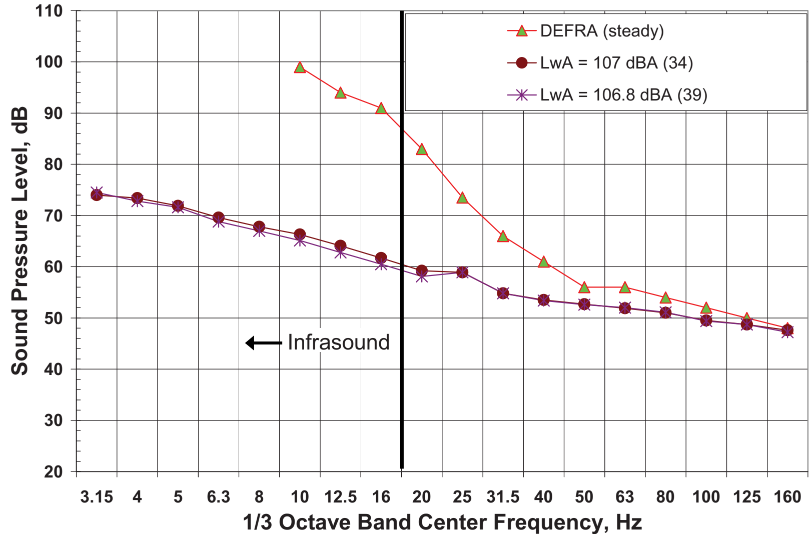

Fig. 3—Siemens SWT-2.3-93 wind turbine outdoor sound levels at 305 meters compared to outdoor equivalent DEFRA criteria.

criteria for evaluating complaints of mental and physical discomfort. This comparison is not presented in a figure since these criteria are generally less stringent than the DEFRA criteria.

Figure 5 plots the 16, 31.5, 63, and 125 Hz octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for both samples of high output conditions. The results show that all outdoor equivalent ANSI/ASA S12.2 perceptible vibration criteria are met. In addition, the results show that all outdoor equivalent ANSI/ASA S12.2 low frequency NC-25 and NC-30 criteria for bedrooms are met. The low frequency sound levels are below the ANSI S12.9 Part 4 thresholds for the beginning of rattles (16, 31.5, 63 Hz total less than 70 dB). The 31.5 and 63 Hz sound levels are below the level of 65 dB identified for minimal annoyance in ANSI S12.9 Part 4, and the 16 Hz sound level is within 1.5 dB of this level, which is an insignificant increase since the levels were not rapidly fluctuating.

5.1.2 Indoor measurements—Siemens SWT-2.3-93

Simultaneous outdoor and indoor measurements were made at two residences at different locations within the wind farm to determine indoor audibility of low frequency noise from Siemens WTGs. In each house a 10-minute measurement was made in a room facing the wind turbines with a window both open and closed. Results from the testing at one of the homes are not presented due to the very high ground level winds

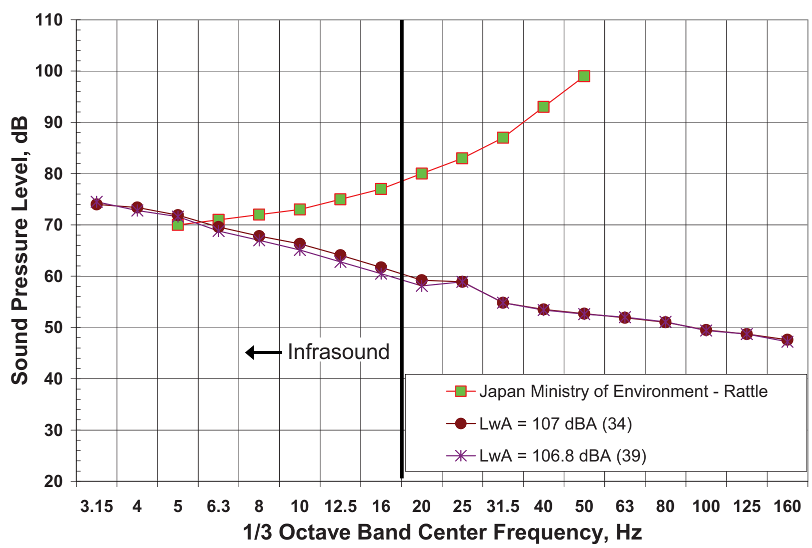

Fig. 4—Siemens SWT-2.3-93 wind turbine outdoor sound levels at 305 meters compared to Japan Ministry of Environment rattle criteria.

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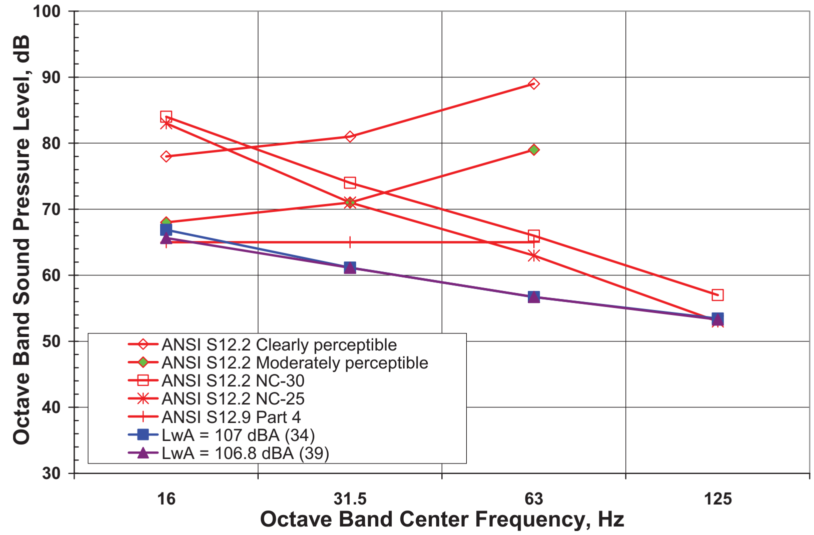

Fig. 5—Siemens SWT-2.3-93 wind turbine outdoor sound levels at 305 meters compared to ANSI criteria.

(~9 m/s) which dominated the sound environment. The remaining residence is designated Home "A" and was approximately 323 meters (1,060 feet) from the closest Siemens WTG. The home was near a string of multiple WTGs, four of which were within 610 meters (2,000 feet) of the house. The sound level data presented herein include contributions from all wind turbines as measured by the recording equipment. The key operational and meteorological parameters during these measurements are listed in Table 11.

The room in Home "A" where interior measurements were made had the following characteristics: approximately 3.6 meters wide (12 feet) by 4.9 meters long (16 feet), no furniture, carpeted flooring, two relatively new double-hung windows (no storm windows), sheetrock interior walls, and clapboard exterior walls. The sound level meter was located in the center of the room.

Figure 6 plots the indoor one-third octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for Home "A". The results show that infrasound is inaudible to even the most sensitive people approximately 1,000 feet from these wind turbines with the windows open or closed (more than 20 dB below the median thresholds of hearing). Low frequency sound at or above 50 Hz may be audible depending on background sound levels.

Table 11—Summary of operational parameters—Siemens SWT-2.3-93 (Indoor).

Parameter	Home "A" (closed/open)
Distance to nearest WTG	323 meters
Time of day	07:39-07:49/07:51-08:01
WTG power output	1,884 kW/1564 kW
A-weighted sound power level*	107 dB/106.7 dB
Measured wind speed @ 2 m	3.2 m/s/3.7 m/s
L_{Aeq}	33.8 dB/38.1 dB
L_{A90}	28.1 dB/36.8 dB
L_{Ceq}	54.7 dB/57.1 dB

* Includes K, uncertainty factor of 2 dB

Figure 7 plots the indoor one-third octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for Home "A". The low frequency sound was "steady" according to DEFRA procedures under the window open condition, and the results show that all indoor DEFRA disturbance criteria are met.

Although not shown in Fig. 7, the one-third octave band levels meet the Japan Ministry of Environment criteria for evaluating complaints of mental and physical discomfort since in the frequency range of the Japan criteria both samples meet the more stringent DEFRA criteria for "non-steady" sounds, which is more stringent than the Japan criteria.

Figure 8 plots the indoor 16 Hz to 125 Hz octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for Home "A". The results show the ANSI/ASA S12.2 low frequency criteria for perceptible vibration were easily met for both windows open and closed scenarios. The ANSI/ASA S12.2 low frequency NC-25 and NC-30 criteria for bedrooms, classrooms and hospitals were met, the spectrum was balanced, and the criteria for moderately perceptible vibrations in lightweight walls and ceilings were also met.

5.2 GE 1.5sle

5.2.1 Outdoor measurements—GE 1.5sle

Sound level data during twelve 10-minute periods of high wind turbine output and relatively low ground wind speed (which minimized effects of wind noise) were measured outdoors approximately 305 meters (1,000 feet) from the closest GE 1.5sle WTG. This site was actually part of a string of more than 30 WTGs, four of which were within 610 meters (2,000 feet) of the

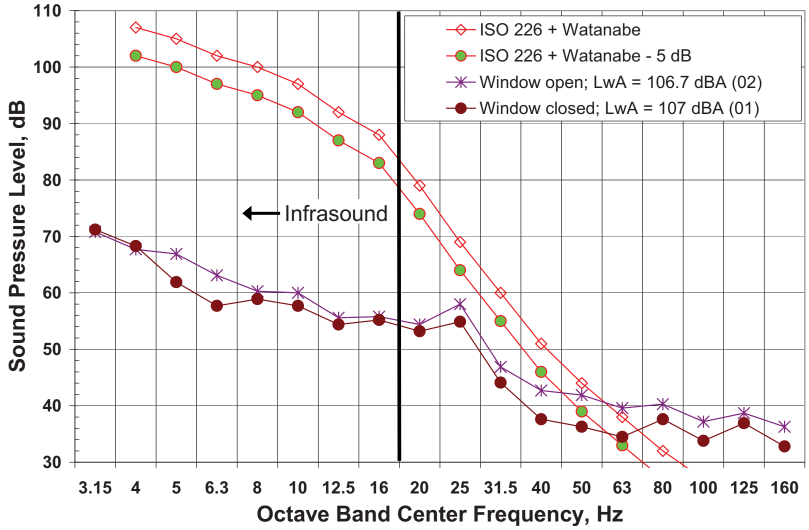

Fig. 6—Siemens SWT-2.3-93 wind turbine indoor sound levels at 323 meters compared to audibility criteria (Home "A").

monitoring location. Representative sound level data from two 10-minute periods are presented herein and include contributions from all wind turbines as measured by the recording equipment. One data set is representative of time periods with low frequency sound level values near the maximum and the other data set is representative of the mean. The standard deviations for the low frequency one-third octave band levels for the twelve measurement periods were between 0.3–1.9 dB with the largest variation in the 10–16 Hz bands and the lowest at 160 Hz. The key operational and meteorological parameters for these two measurement periods are listed in Table 12.

Figure 9 plots the one-third octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for both samples of high output conditions. The results show that infrasound is inaudible to even the most sensitive people 305 meters (1,000 feet) from these wind turbines (more than 20 dB below the median thresholds of hearing). Low frequency sound at and above 31.5–40 Hz may be audible depending on background sound levels.

Figure 10 plots the one-third octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for both samples of high output conditions. The low frequency sound was "steady" according to DEFRA procedures, and the results show the low frequency sound meet or are within 1 dB of outdoor equivalent DEFRA disturbance criteria.

Figure 11 compares the one-third octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for both samples of high output conditions to the Japan Ministry of Environment levels for evaluating complaints on rattle. The rattle criteria is met at all

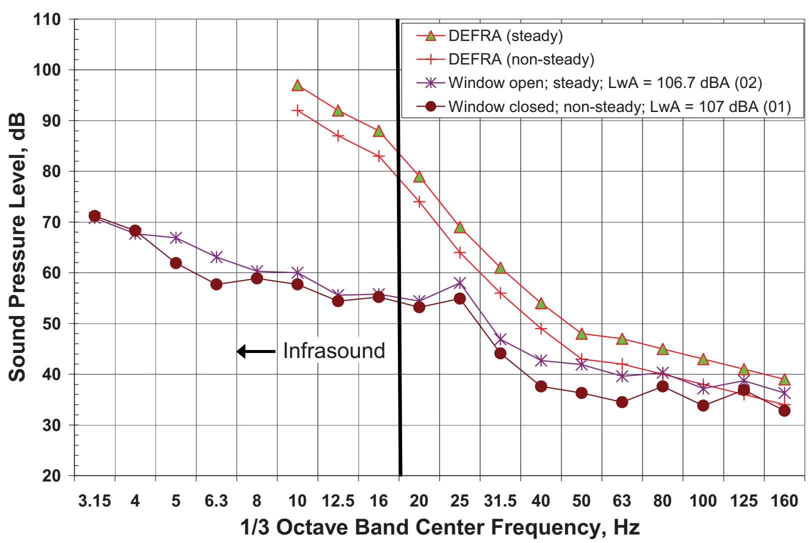

Fig. 7—Siemens SWT-2.3-93 wind turbine indoor sound levels at 323 meters compared to DEFRA criteria (Home "A").

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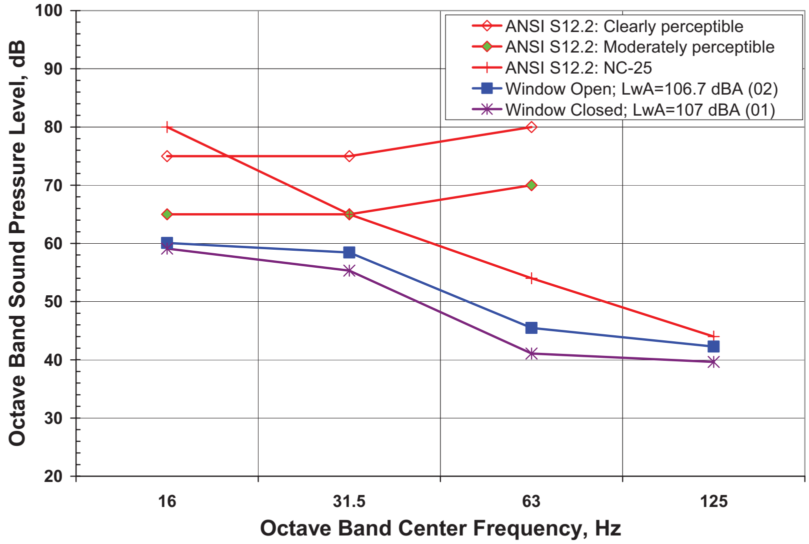

Fig. 8—Siemens SWT-2.3-93 wind turbine indoor sound levels at 323 meters compared to ANSI 12.2 criteria for perceptible vibrations and NC-25 (Home "A").

frequencies; at 5 Hz the mean value is 70 dB (standard deviation=0.9 dB), while the two presented measurements are approximately 1 dB higher, an insignificant increase. When one considers that the 5 Hz sound level is 3 dB lower than the observed threshold of rattle, one concludes that the Japanese criteria are met.

Table 12—Summary of operational parameters—GE 1.5sle (Outdoor).

Parameter	Sample #46	Sample #51
Distance to nearest WTG	305 meters	305 meters
Time of day	23:10-23:20	00:00-00:10
WTG power output	1,293 kW	1,109 kW
A-weighted sound power level*	106 dB	106 dB
Measured wind speed @ 2 m	4.1 m/s	3.3 m/s
L_{Aeq}	50.2 dB	50.7 dB
L_{A90}	49.2 dB	49.7 dB
L_{Ceq}	62.5 dB	62.8 dB

* Includes K, uncertainty factor of 2 dB

The measured outdoor sound levels also meet the outdoor equivalent Japan Ministry of Environment criteria for evaluating complaints of mental and physical discomfort. This comparison is not presented in a figure since these criteria are generally less stringent than the DEFRA criteria.

Figure 12 plots the 16, 31.5, 63 and 125 Hz octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for both samples of high output conditions. The results show that all outdoor equivalent ANSI/ASA S12.2 perceptible vibration criteria are met. The results show that all outdoor equivalent ANSI/ASA S12.2 low frequency NC-25 and NC-30 criteria for

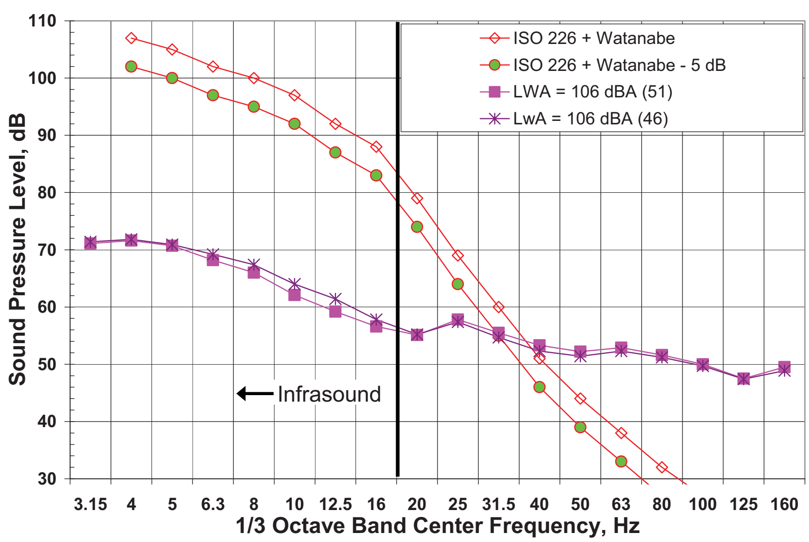

Fig. 9—GE 1.5sle wind turbine outdoor sound levels at 305 meters compared to audibility criteria.

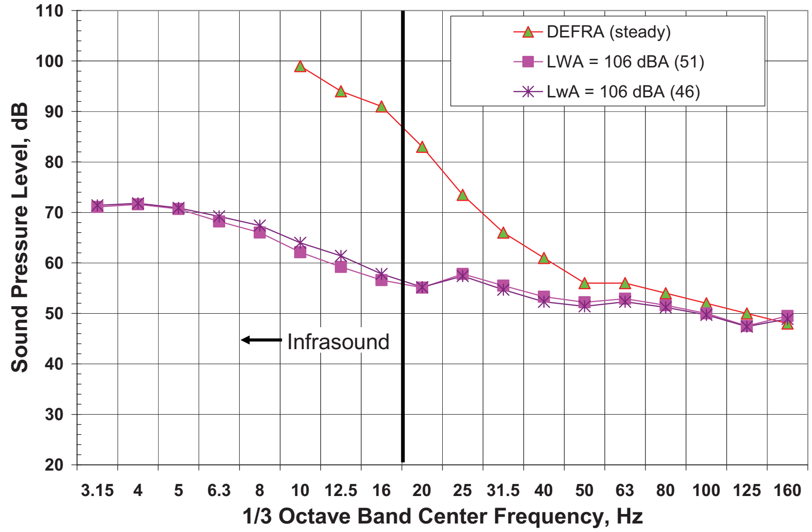

Fig. 10—GE 1.5sle wind turbine outdoor sound levels at 305 meters compared to outdoor equivalent DEFRA criteria.

bedrooms are met. The low frequency sound levels are below the ANSI S12.9 Part 4 thresholds for the beginning of rattles (16, 31.5, 63 Hz total less than 70 dB). The 16, 31.5, 63 Hz sound levels are below the level of 65 dB identified for minimal annoyance in ANSI S12.9 Part 4.

5.2.2 Indoor measurements—GE 1.5sle

Simultaneous outdoor and indoor measurements were made at two residences at different locations within the wind farm to determine indoor audibility of low frequency noise from GE 1.5sle WTGs. In each house, measurements were made in a room facing the wind turbines, and were made with a window both open and closed. These residences are designated Homes "B" and "C" and were approximately 305 meters (1,000 feet) from the closest GE WTG. Operational conditions were maximum turbine noise and high ground winds at Home "B", and within 1.5 dB of maximum turbine noise and high ground level winds at Home "C". Home "B" was near a string of multiple WTGs, four of which were within 610 meters (2,000 feet) of the house, while Home "C" was at the end of a string of WTGs, two of which were within 610 meters of the house. The sound level data presented herein include contributions from all wind turbines as measured by the recording equipment. The key operational and meteorological parameters during these measurements are listed in Table 13.

The room in Home "B" where interior measurements were made had the following characteristics:

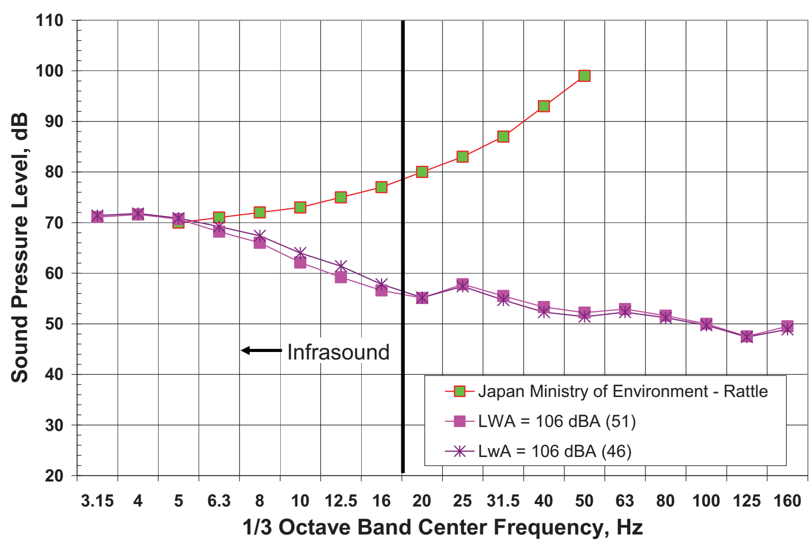

Fig. 11—GE 1.5sle wind turbine outdoor sound levels at 305 meters compared to Japan Ministry of Environment rattle criteria.

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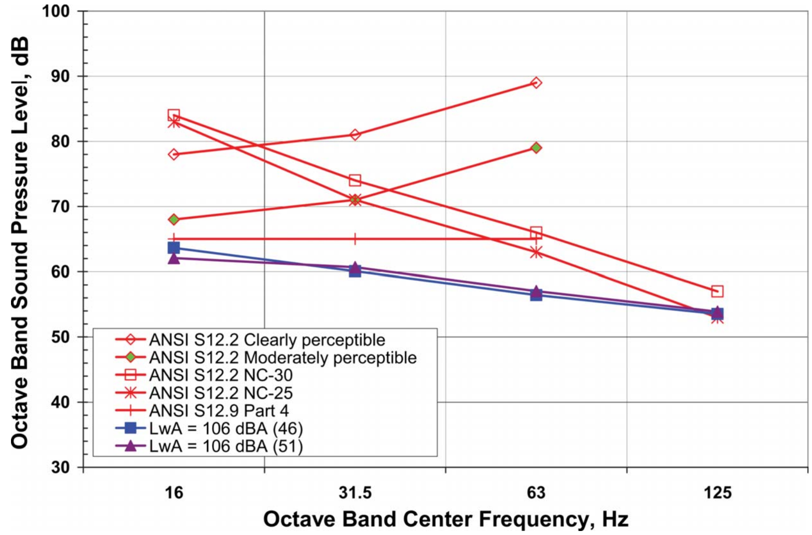

Fig. 12—GE 1.5sle wind turbine outdoor sound levels at 305 meters compared to ANSI criteria.

approximately 3.0 meters wide (10 feet) by 3.6 meters long (12 feet), bedroom furniture, carpeted flooring, two relatively new double-hung windows (no storm windows), paneling on the interior walls, and bricked exterior walls. The sound level meter was located just off-center in the room. The room in Home "C" where interior measurements were made had the following characteristics: approximately 2.4 meters wide (8 feet) by 3.6 meters long (12 feet), bathroom fixtures, linoleum flooring, one old casement window (no storm window), paneling on the interior walls, and wooden exterior walls. The sound level meter was located in the center of the room.

Figure 13 plots the indoor one-third octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for Home "B", and Fig. 14 plots the indoor one-third octave band sound levels for Home "C". The results show that infrasound is inaudible to even the most sensitive people at around 305 meters (1,000 feet) from these wind turbines with the windows open or closed (more than 20 dB below the median thresholds of hearing). Low frequency sound at and above 63 Hz may be audible depending on background sound levels.

Figure 15 plots the indoor one-third octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for Home "B", and Fig. 16 plots the indoor one-third octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for Home "C". The results show the DEFRA disturbance criteria were met for steady and non-steady low frequency sounds.

Although not shown in Figs. 15 and 16, the one-third octave band levels meet the Japan Ministry of Environment criteria for evaluating complaints of mental and physical discomfort since both samples meet the more stringent DEFRA criteria for "non-steady" sounds, which is more stringent than the Japan criteria.

Figure 17 plots the indoor 16 Hz to 125 Hz octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for Home "B", and Fig. 18 plots the indoor 16 Hz to 125 Hz octave band sound levels (L_{eq}) for Home "C". The results show the ANSI/ASA S12.2 low frequency criteria for perceptible vibration were met for both windows open and closed scenarios. The ANSI/ASA S12.2 low frequency NC-25 and NC-30 criteria for bedrooms, classrooms and hospitals were met,

Table 13—Summary of operational parameters—GE 1.5sle (Indoor).

Parameter	Home "B" (closed/open)	Home "C" (closed/open)
Distance to nearest WTG	290 meters	312 meters
Time of day	09:29-09:39/09:40-09:50	11:49-11:59/12:00-12:10
WTG power output	1,017 kW/896 kW	651 kW/632 kW
A-weighted sound power level	106 dB/105.8 dB	104.7 dB/104.6 dB
Measured wind speed @ 2 m	6.2 m/s/6.8 m/s	6.4 m/s/5.9 m/s
L_{Aeq}	27.1 dB/36.0 dB	33.6 dB/39.8 dB
L_{A90}	23.5 dB/33.7 dB	27.6 dB/34.2 dB
L_{Ceq}	47.1 dB/54.4 dB	50.6 dB/55.1 dB

* Includes K, uncertainty factor of 2 dB

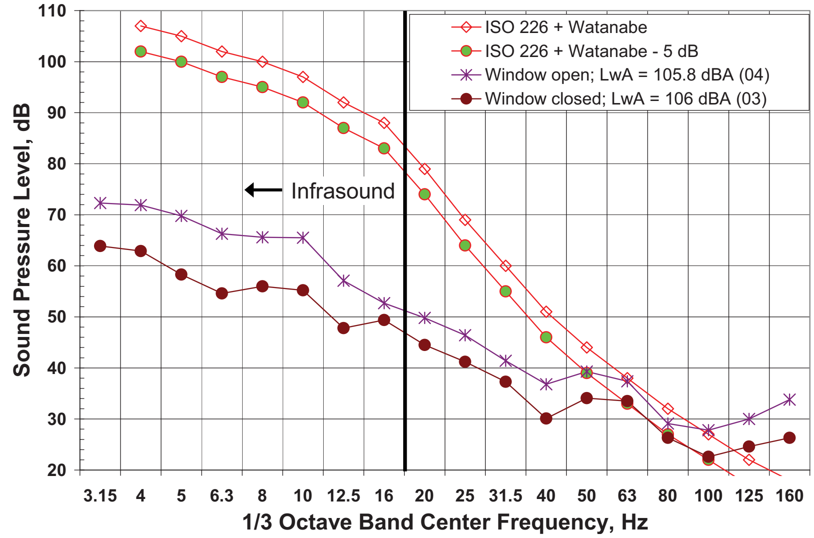

Fig. 13—GE 1.5sle wind turbine indoor sound levels at 290 meters compared to audibility criteria (Home "B").

the spectrum was balanced, and the criteria for moderately perceptible vibrations in light-weight walls and ceilings were also met.

5.3 Noise Reduction from Outdoor to Indoor

Simultaneous outdoor and indoor measurements made at the three residences within the Horse Hollow Wind Farm discussed above, were used to determine noise reductions of the homes for comparison to that used in the determination of equivalent outdoor criteria for indoor criteria, such as ANSI/ASA S12.2 and DEFRA. Indoor measurements were made with windows open and closed. Tables 11 and 13 list the conditions of measurement for these houses.

Figures 19 and 20 present the measured one-third octave band noise reduction for the three homes with windows closed and open, respectively. Also presented in these same figures are the one-third octave noise reductions discussed in the Appendix of this paper to obtain equivalent outdoor criteria for the indoor DEFRA criteria as well as the equivalent outdoor criteria for the Japanese mental and physical discomfort indoor criteria. It can be seen that for the window closed condition in Fig. 19, the measured noise reductions for all houses were greater than that used in our analysis for determining the equivalent outdoor criteria for the Japanese mental and physical discomfort indoor criteria. For the open window case in Fig. 20, which

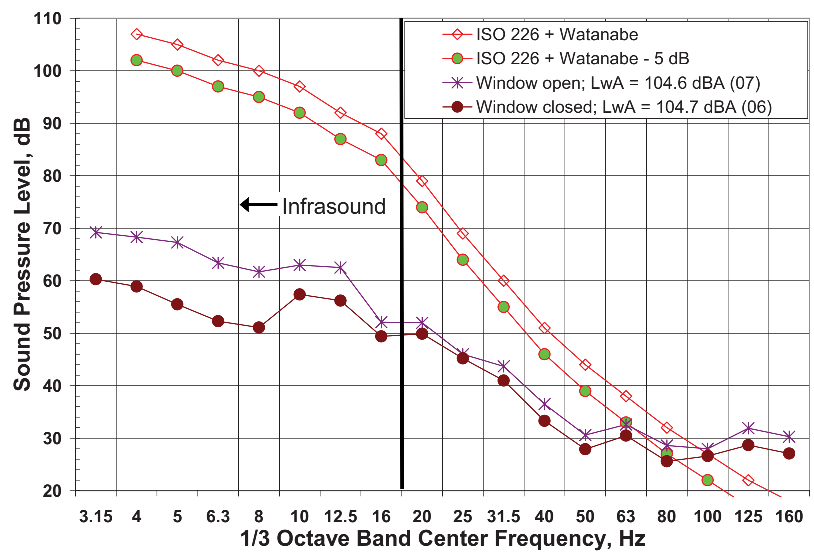

Fig. 14—GE 1.5sle wind turbine indoor sound levels at 312 meters compared to audibility criteria (Home "C").

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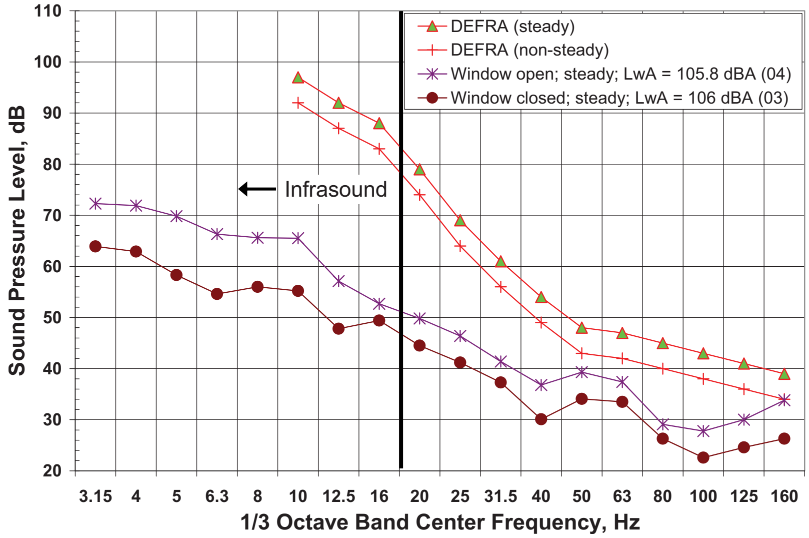

Fig. 15—GE 1.5sle wind turbine indoor sound levels at 290 meters compared to DEFRA criteria (Home "B").

was used in our analysis for obtaining the equivalent outdoor DEFRA criteria, the average of the three homes has a greater noise reduction than assumed in the Appendix and all houses at all frequencies have higher values with one minor exception. Only Home "A" at 25 Hz had a lower noise reduction (3 dB), and this difference is not critical since the measured indoor sounds at 25 Hz at each of these home was significantly lower than the indoor DEFRA criteria and the indoor Japanese criteria. Furthermore, the outdoor measurements for both Siemens and GE wind turbines at 305 meters (1,000 feet) under high output/high noise levels met the equivalent outdoor DEFRA criteria at 25 Hz.

Table 14 presents the measured octave band noise reduction for the three homes with windows closed and open, respectively. Also presented in Table 14 are the octave band noise reductions used in Table 2 of this paper to obtain equivalent outdoor criteria for the indoor ANSI/ASA S12.2 criteria for perceptible vibration and for NC-25 and NC-30. It can be seen that for the window closed condition, the measured noise reductions for all houses were greater than that used in our analysis. For the open window case, the average of the three homes has a greater noise reduction than the values from Table A1, and all houses at all frequencies have higher values with one minor exception. Only Home "A" at 31 Hz (which contains the 25 Hz one-third octave band) had a lower noise reduction (3 dB), and this difference is not critical since the measured indoor sounds at 31 Hz at each of these homes was significantly lower than the indoor ANSI/ASA S12.2 criteria. Furthermore, the outdoor measurements for both Siemens and GE wind

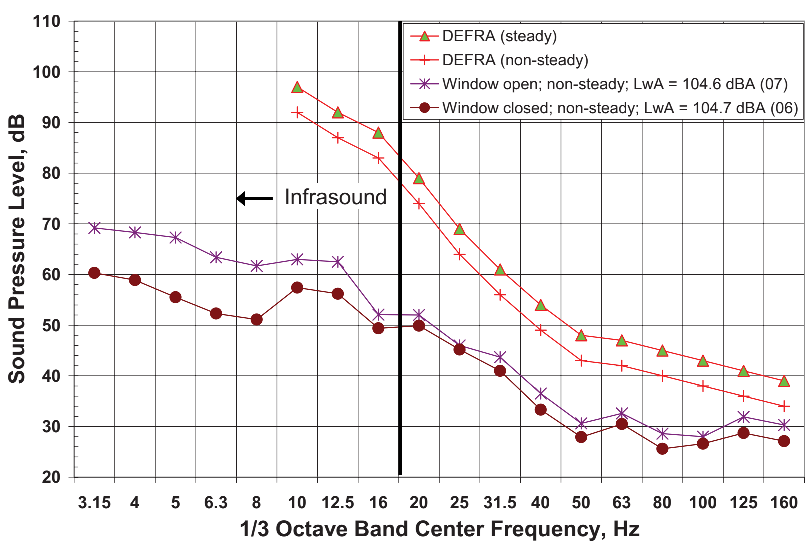

Fig. 16—GE 1.5sle wind turbine indoor sound levels at 312 meters compared to DEFRA criteria (Home "C").

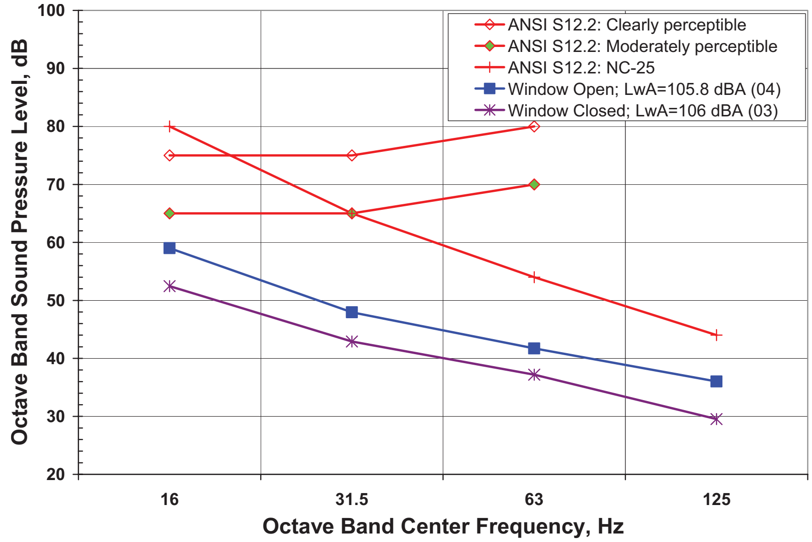

Fig. 17—GE 1.5sle wind turbine indoor sound levels at 290 meters compared to ANSI 12.2 criteria for perceptible vibrations and NC-25 (Home "B").

turbines at 305 meters (1,000 feet) under high output/ high noise levels met the equivalent outdoor ANSI/ASA S12.2 criteria at 31 Hz.

6 CONCLUSION

Sound levels from Siemens SWT 2.93-93 and GE 1.5sle wind turbines under maximum noise conditions at a distance more than 305 meters (1,000 feet) from the nearest residence meet the low frequency and infrasound standards and criteria published by several independent agencies and organizations. At this distance the wind farms:

- meet ANSI/ASA S12.2 indoor levels for low frequency sound for bedrooms, classrooms and hospitals;
- meet ANSI/ASA S12.2 indoor levels for moderately perceptible vibrations in light-weight walls and ceilings;
- meet ANSI/ASA S12.2 criteria for balanced spectrum from low frequency sounds;
- meet ANSI S12.9/Part 4 thresholds for annoyance from low frequency sound and beginning of rattles;
- meet UK DEFRA disturbance based guidelines for low frequency sound;
- meet Japan Ministry of Environment Guidance for evaluating complaints of rattling from low frequency noise;
- meet Japan Ministry of Environment Guidance for evaluating complaints of mental and physi-

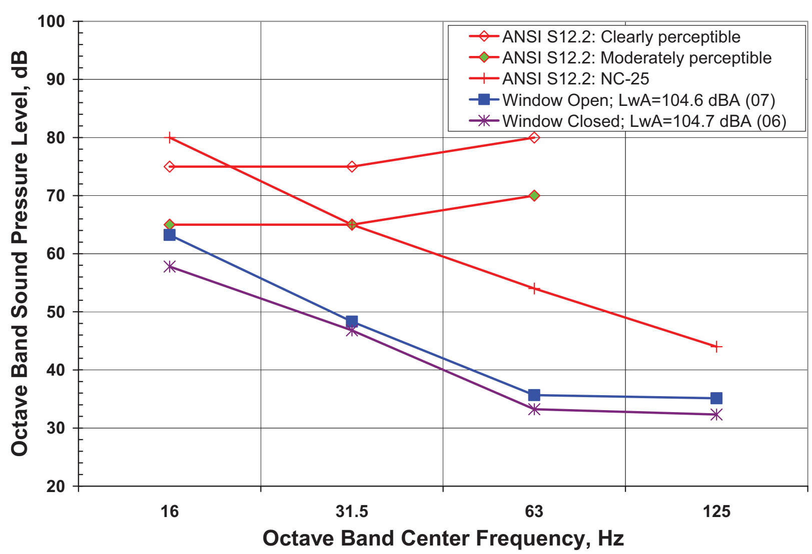

Fig. 18—GE 1.5sle wind turbine indoor sound levels at 312 meters compared to ANSI 12.2 criteria for perceptible vibrations and NC-25 (Home "C").

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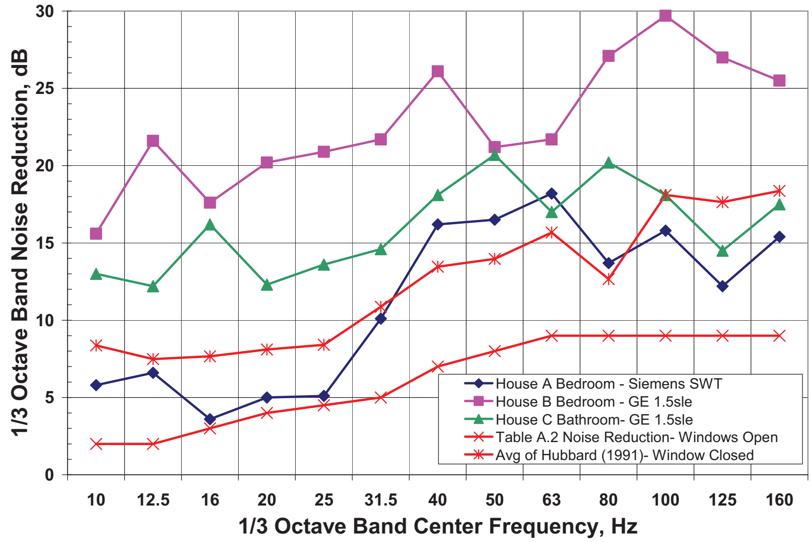

Fig. 19—One-third octave band interior noise reduction—Windows closed.

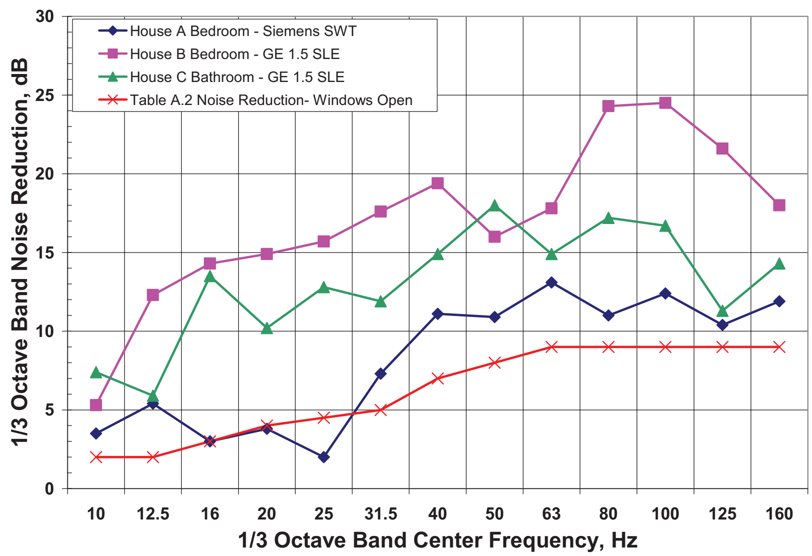

Fig. 20—One-third octave band interior noise reduction—Windows open.

cal discomfort from low frequency noise;
- have no audible infrasound to the most sensitive listeners; and
- might have slightly audible low frequency noise at frequencies at 50 Hz and above depending on other sources of low frequency noises in homes, such as refrigerators or external traffic or airplanes.

In accordance with the above findings, and in conjunction with our extensive literature search of

Table 14—Summary of octave band noise reduction—Interior measurements.

Home	Wind Turbine	Windows	16 Hz	31.5 Hz	63 Hz	125 Hz
A	Siemens SWT-2-3-93	Closed	5	6	16	14
A	Siemens SWT-2-3-93	Open	4	3	12	12
B	GE 1.5sle	Closed	20	22	22	27
B	GE 1.5sle	Open	13	17	18	21
C	GE 1.5sle	Closed	13	14	19	17
C	GE 1.5sle	Open	8	13	17	14
	Table A1 Noise Reduction	Open	3	6	9	9

scientific papers and reports, there should be no adverse public health effects from infrasound or low frequency noise at distances greater than 305 meters (1,000 feet) from the wind turbine types measured: GE 1.5sle and Siemens SWT 2.3-93.

7 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Acknowledgement is made to NextEra Energy Resources, LLC ("NextEra"), formerly FPL Energy, for providing financial support for the study, allowing access to the wind farm, and supplying critical operational data. Epsilon determined all means, methods, and the testing protocol without interference or direction from NextEra. No limitations were placed on Epsilon by NextEra with respect to the testing protocol or upon the analysis methods; the conclusions are those of the authors.

8 APPENDIX: HOME NOISE REDUCTION USED TO DETERMINE EQUIVALENT OUTDOOR SOUND PRESSURE LEVEL CRITERIA BASED ON INDOOR CRITERIA

Since indoor measurements are not always possible, for comparison to outdoor sound levels the indoor criteria from ANSI/ASA S12.2 should be adjusted. Outdoor to indoor low frequency noise reductions have been reported by Sutherland for aircraft and highway noise for open and closed windows[9] and by Hubbard and Shepherd for aircraft and wind turbine noise for closed windows[10]. Table A1 presents the average low frequency octave band noise reductions from outdoor to indoors from these two papers for open and closed windows. Sutherland only reported values down to 63 Hz; whereas Hubbard and Shepherd presented values to less than 10 Hz. The closed window conditions of Ref. 10 were used to estimate noise reductions less than 63 Hz by applying the difference between values for open and closed windows from Ref. 9 data at 63 Hz. It should be noted that the attenuation for wind turbines in Ref. 10 is based on only three homes at two different wind farms, whereas the traffic and aircraft data are for many homes. The wind turbine open window values were determined from the wind turbine closed window values by subtracting the difference in values between windows closed and open obtained by Ref. 9.

To be conservative, we use the open window case instead of closed windows except for the adjustments to the Japanese guideline which specifically called for closed windows. To be further conservative, we use the wind turbine noise reduction data in Ref. 10 (adjusted to open windows). However, it should be noted that it is possible for some homes to have some slight amplification at low frequencies with windows open due to possible room resonances.

The average one-third octave band noise reductions used to determine equivalent outdoor one-third octave band criteria were determined in a similar manner. The first row of Table A2 and Fig. 20 present the average one-third octave band noise reductions values for *windows open* that were used to determine the equivalent outdoor one-third octave band criteria levels in Table 7 from the indoor criteria. The second row of Table A2 and Fig. 19 presents the one-third octave band noise reductions for windows closed determined by Ref. 10 for homes exposed to wind turbine sounds—these higher closed window noise reduction values were only used to determine equivalent outdoor levels for determining the equivalent Japanese guidance one-third octave band sound pressure level values for dealing with complaints of mental and physical discomfort from environmental sounds.

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004652

BEFORE THE PUBLIC UTILITIES COMMISSION
OF THE STATE OF SOUTH DAKOTA

IN THE MATTER OF THE APPLICATION BY CROWNED RIDGE WIND, LLC FOR A PERMIT OF A WIND ENERGY FACILITY IN GRANT AND CODINGTON COUNTIES	)))))	EL19-003 **CERTIFICATE OF SERVICE**

I hereby certify that true and correct copies of Rich Lampietr's Rebuttal testimony and exhibits in this matter were served electronically to the parties listed below on the 24th day of May, 2019, addressed to:

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