

Supplemental Packet

Section A

The following two pages contain a response from Representative Terry Morrow that he received from the House Research staff regarding New Ulm's requirement for clean energy. Apparently New Ulm is not required to meet the renewable energy standards, which invalidates one of their primary reasons for pursuing this project.

Hello, David:

I have heard back from House Research staff on the questions you pose below. Here's the response I received:

Municipalities are not required to meet the renewable energy standards (RES) in section 216B.1691. That statute applies only to " a public utility providing electric service, a generation and transmission cooperative electric association, a municipal power agency, or a power district."

A municipal power agency is a corporation created by two or more cities (and, after Rep. Leon Lillie's bill was enacted this session, two or more municipal power agencies) to generate or transmit electricity, as organized under chapter 453.

There are 16 utilities subject to the RES:

Public utilities: Xcel, Minnesota Power, Otter Tail Power, Interstate Power & Light, Northjwestern Wisconsin Electric

Generation and Transmission Coops: Great River Energy, Minnkota Power Coop, Dairyland Power Coop, Basin Electric Power Coop, East River Electric Power Coop, L&O Power Coop

Municipal Power Agencies: Southern Minnesota MPA, Western Minnesota MPA/Missouri River Energy Services, Northern MPA, Minnesota MPA, Central Minnesota MPA

The RES targets are established in subd.2a of 216B.1691, shown below. Paragraph (b) pertains only to Xcel Energy.

Subd. 2a. Eligible energy technology standard. (a) Except as provided in paragraph (b), each electric utility shall generate or procure sufficient electricity generated by an eligible energy technology to provide its retail customers in Minnesota, or the retail customers of a distribution utility to which the electric utility provides wholesale electric service, so that at least the following standard percentages of the electric utility's total retail electric sales to retail customers in Minnesota are generated by eligible energy technologies by the end of the year indicated:

- (1) 2012 12 percent
- (2) 2016 17 percent
- (3) 2020 20 percent
- (4) 2025 25 percent.

Section B

The following page is an excerpt from New Ulm's May 2009 Activity Report. The NUPUC was well aware that the MISO would not approve a connection to the Xcel Energy line without taking part in a regional planning study. If the transmission consultants thought that this process would take three to five years, why did New Ulm still claim the project was expected to be operational in 2010?

Wind Energy

Local Wind Project

The permit application was formally submitted to the Minnesota Public Utilities Commission (MnPUC) through the eDockets system on May 5th. The project was submitted with a request for an exception to the MnPUC guidelines with respect to wind rights requirements. The MnPUC has 30 days to either accept or reject the application. In addition, MISO has determined that the New Ulm Wind Project cannot connect to the existing transmission system without first taking part in a regional planning study that would determine upgrades to the transmission system necessary to accommodate the project. The transmission consultants believe that this process would take from three to five years to develop an interconnection agreement. In order to keep the project on a more reasonable development schedule, a transmission permit has been applied for with Nicollet County. This self build option would allow for the energy from the system to feed directly into the New Ulm distribution system.

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Section C

The following document, "Public Health Impacts of Wind Turbines," explains some health concerns of wind turbines. Please pay particular attention the highlighted portions on page 14, as well as the section labeled "Conclusions" on page 25 and the section labeled "Recommendations" on page 26. New Ulm is unfairly downplaying the true health effects of wind turbines.

**Public Health Impacts
of
Wind Turbines**

Prepared by:
Minnesota Department of Health
Environmental Health Division

In response to a request from:
Minnesota Department of Commerce
Office of Energy Security

May 22, 2009

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I. Introduction

In late February 2009 the Minnesota Department of Health (MDH) received a request from the Office of Energy Security (OES) in the Minnesota Department of Commerce, for a “white paper” evaluating possible health effects associated with low frequency vibrations and sound arising from large wind energy conversion systems (LWECS). The OES noted that there was a request for a Contested Case Hearing before the Minnesota Public Utilities Commission (PUC) on the proposed Bent Tree Wind Project in Freeborn County Minnesota; further, the OES had received a long comment letter from a citizen regarding a second project proposal, the Lakeswind Wind Power Plant in Clay, Becker and Ottertail Counties, Minnesota. This same commenter also wrote to the Commissioner of MDH to ask for an evaluation of health issues related to exposure to low frequency sound energy generated by wind turbines. The OES informed MDH that a white paper would have more general application and usefulness in guiding decision-making for future wind projects than a Contested Case Hearing on a particular project. (Note: A Contested Case Hearing is an evidentiary hearing before an Administrative Law Judge, and may be ordered by regulatory authorities, in this case the PUC, in order to make a determination on disputed issues of material fact. The OES advises the PUC on need and permitting issues related to large energy facilities.)

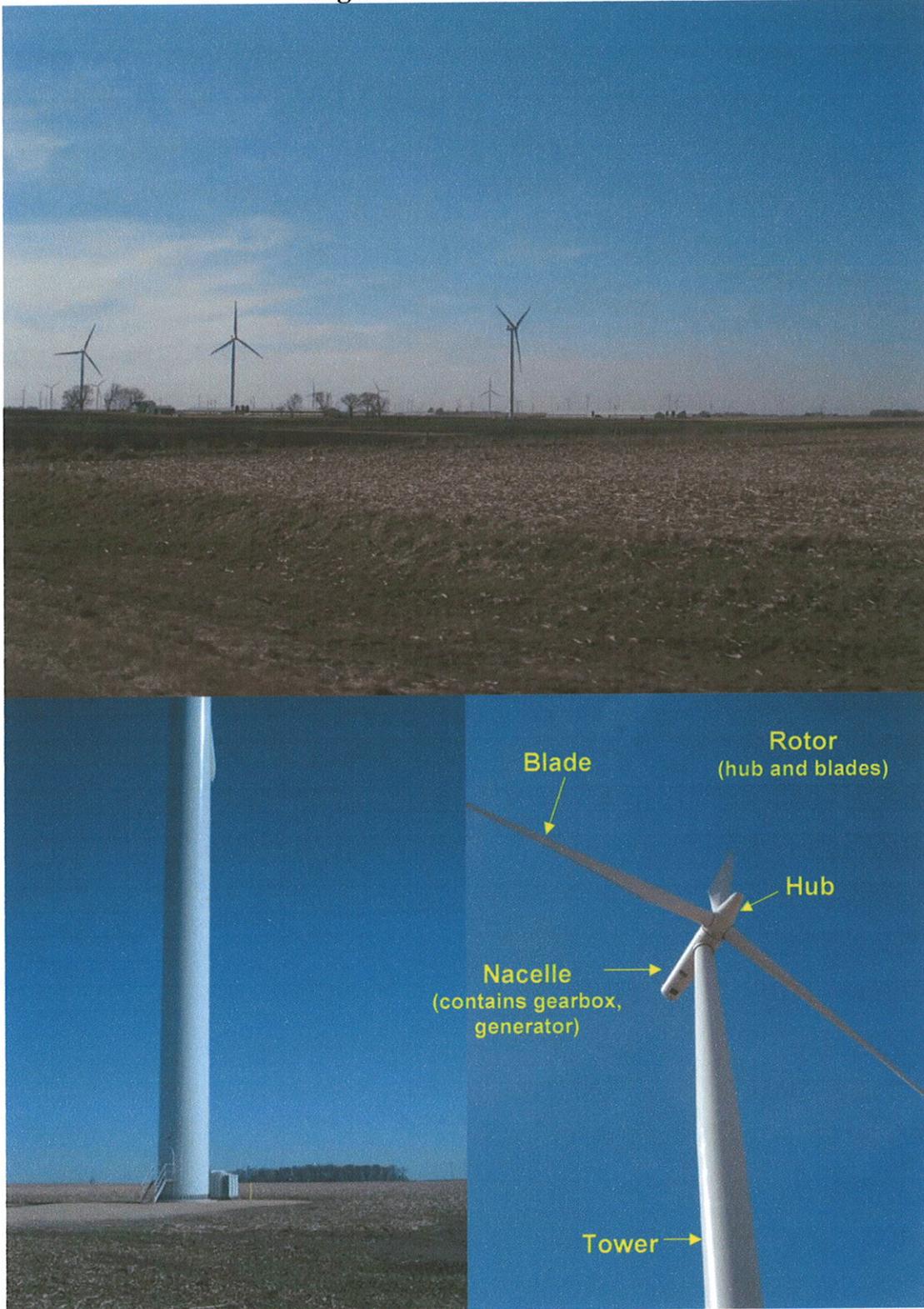
In early March 2009, MDH agreed to evaluate health impacts from wind turbine noise and low frequency vibrations. In discussion with OES, MDH also proposed to examine experiences and policies of other states and countries. MDH staff appeared at a hearing before the PUC on March 19, 2009, and explained the purpose and use of the health evaluation. The Commissioner replied to the citizen letter, affirming that MDH would perform the requested review.

A brief description of the two proposed wind power projects, and a brief discussion of health issues to be addressed in this report appear below.

A. Site Proposals

Wind turbines are huge and expensive machines requiring large capitol investment. Figure 1 shows some existing wind turbines in Minnesota. Large projects require control of extensive land area in order to optimize spacing of turbines to minimize turbulence at downwind turbines. Towers range up to 80 to 100 meters (260 to 325 feet), and blades can be up to 50 meters long (160 feet) (see Tetra Tech, 2008; WPL, 2008). Turbines are expected to be in place for 25-30 years.

Figure 1: Wind turbines



1. Bent Tree Wind Project in Freeborn County

This is a proposal by the Wisconsin Power and Light Company (WPL) for a 400 megawatt (MW) project in two phases of 200 MW each (requiring between 80 and 130 wind turbines). The cost of the first phase is estimated at \$497 million. The project site area would occupy approximately 40 square miles located 4 miles north and west of the city of Albert Lea, approximately 95 miles south of Minneapolis (Figure 2) (WPL, 2008). The Project is a LWECS and a Certificate of Need (CON) from the PUC is required (*Minnesota Statutes 216B.243*). The PUC uses the CON process to determine the basic type of facility (if any) to be constructed, the size of the facility, and when the project will be in service. The CON process involves a public hearing and preparation of an Environmental Report by the OES. The CON process generally takes a year, and is required before a facility can be permitted.

WPL is required to develop a site layout that optimizes wind resources. Accordingly, project developers are required to control areas at least 5 rotor diameters in the prevailing (north-south) wind directions (between about 1300 and 1700 feet for the 1.5 to 2.5 MW turbines under consideration for the project) and 3 rotor diameters in the crosswind (east-west) directions (between about 800 and 1000 feet). Thus, these are minimum setback distances from properties in the area for which easements have not been obtained. Further, noise rules promulgated by the Minnesota Pollution Control Agency (MPCA; *Minnesota Rules* Section 7030), specify a maximum nighttime noise in residential areas of 50 A-weighted decibels (dB(A)). WPL has proposed a minimum setback of 1,000 feet from occupied structures in order to comply with the noise rule.

2. Noble Flat Hill Wind Park in Clay, Becker and Ottertail Counties

This is a LWECS proposed by Noble Flat Hill Windpark I (Noble), a subsidiary of Noble Environmental Power, based in Connecticut. The proposal is for a 201 MW project located 12 miles east of the City of Moorhead, about 230 miles northwest of Minneapolis (Figure 3) (Tetra Tech, 2008). The cost of the project is estimated to be between \$382 million and \$442 million. One hundred thirty-four GE 1.5 MW wind turbines are planned for an area of 11,000 acres (about 17 square miles); the site boundary encompasses approximately 20,000 acres. Setback distances of a minimum of 700 feet are planned to comply with the 50 dB(A) noise limit. However, rotor diameters will be 77 meters (250 feet). Therefore, setback distances in the prevailing wind direction of 1,300 feet are planned for properties where owners have not granted easements. Setbacks of 800 feet are planned in the crosswind direction.

Figure 2: Bent Tree Wind Project, Freeborn County

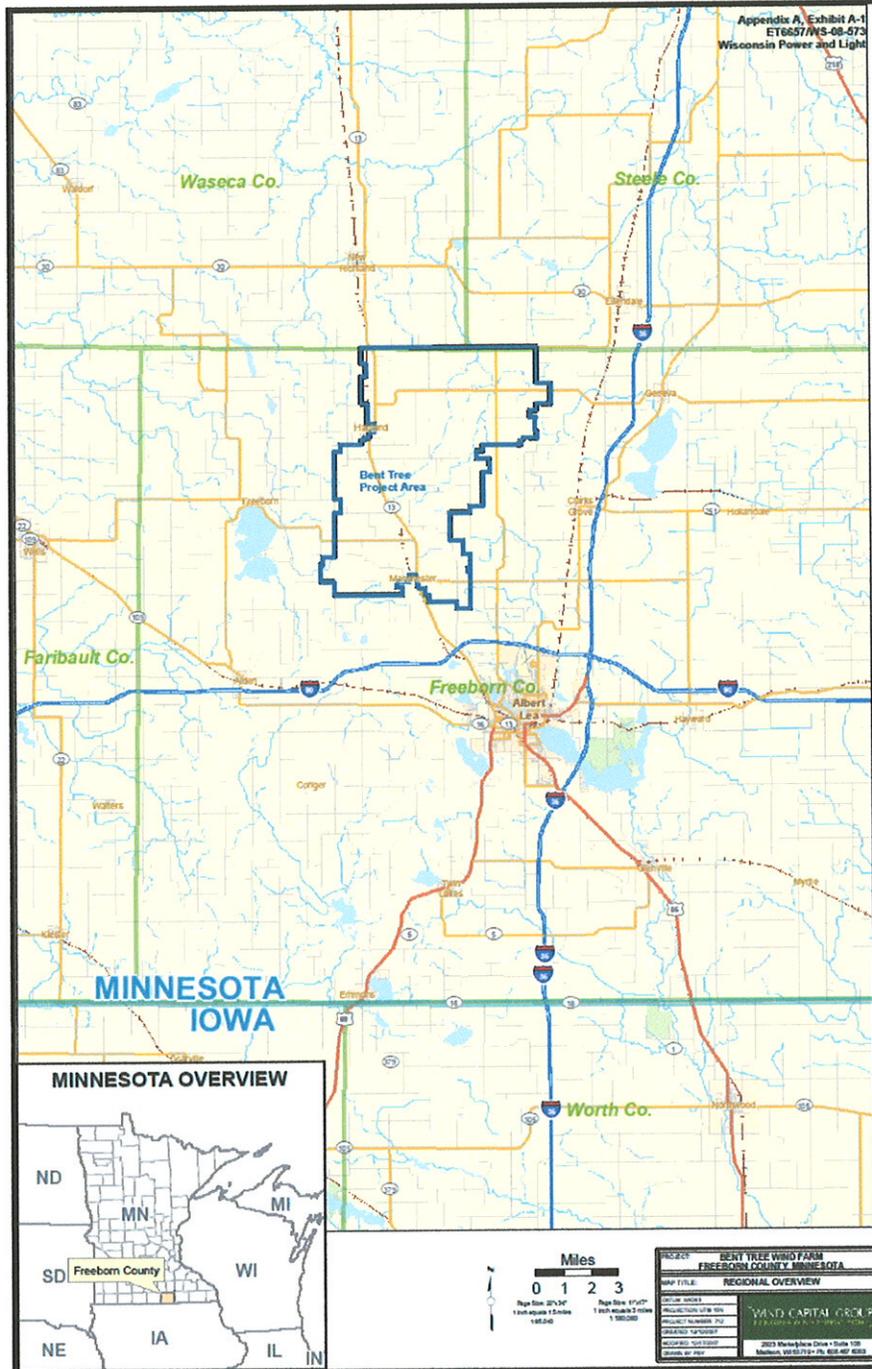
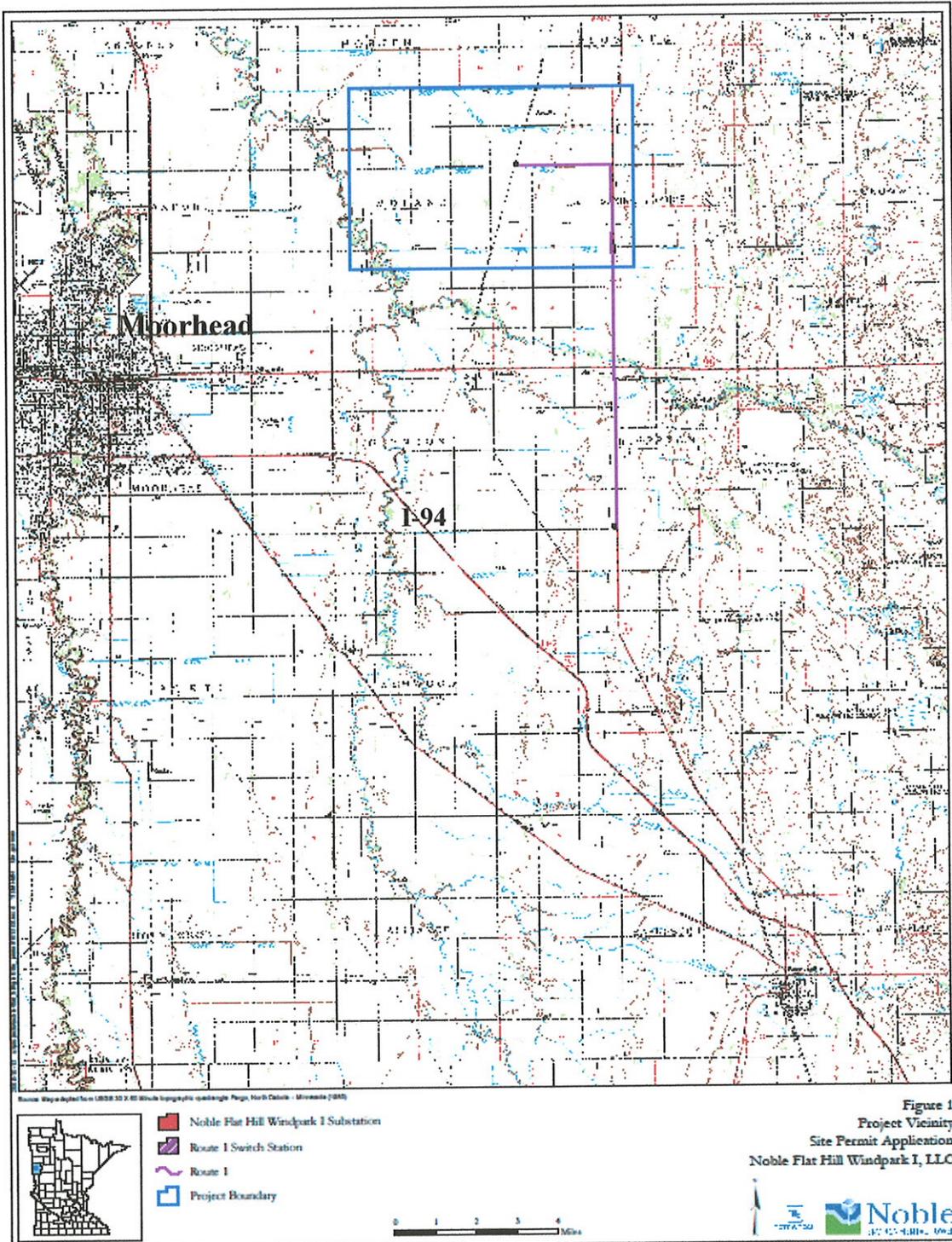


Figure 3: Noble Flat Hill Wind Park, Clay, Becker, Ottertail Counties



B. Health Issues

The National Research Council of the National Academies (NRC, 2007) has reviewed impacts of wind energy projects on human health and well-being. The NRC begins by observing that wind projects, just as other projects, create benefits and burdens, and that concern about impacts is natural when the source is near one's home. Further, the NRC notes that different people have different values and levels of sensitivity. **Impacts noted by the NRC that may have the most effect on health include noise and low frequency vibration, and shadow flicker.** While noise and vibration are the main focus of this paper, shadow flicker (casting of moving shadows on the ground as wind turbine blades rotate) will also be briefly discussed.

Noise originates from mechanical equipment inside the nacelles of the turbines (gears, generators, etc.) and from interaction of turbine blades with wind. Newer wind turbines generate minimal noise from mechanical equipment. The most problematic wind turbine noise is a broadband "whooshing" sound produced by interaction of turbine blades with the wind. Newer turbines have upwind rotor blades, minimizing low frequency "infrasound" (i.e., air pressure changes at frequencies below 20-100 Hz that are inaudible). However, the NRC notes that during quiet conditions at night, low frequency modulation of higher frequency sounds, such as are produced by turbine blades, is possible. The NRC also notes that effects of low frequency (infrasound) vibration (less than 20 Hz) on humans are not well understood, but have been asserted to disturb some people.

Finally, the NRC concludes that noise produced by wind turbines is generally not a major concern beyond a half mile. Issues raised by the NRC report and factors that may affect distances within which wind turbine noise may be problematic are discussed more extensively below.

II. Elementary Characteristics of Sensory Systems and Sound

A. Sensory Systems

1. Hearing

Sensory systems respond to a huge dynamic range of physical stimuli within a relatively narrow dynamic range of mechanical, chemical and/or neuronal (electrophysiological) output. Compression of the dynamic range is accomplished by systems that respond to logarithmic increases in intensity of physical stimuli with arithmetically increasing sensory responses. This general property is true for hearing, and has been recognized since at least the mid-19th century (see e.g., Woodworth and Schlosberg, 1964). "Loudness" is the sensory/perceptual correlate of the physical intensity of air pressure changes to which the electro-mechanical transducers in the ear and associated neuronal pathways are sensitive. Loudness increases as the logarithm of air pressure, and it is convenient to relate loudness to a reference air pressure (in dyne/cm² or pascals) in tenths of logarithmic units (decibels; dB). Further, the ear is sensitive to only a relatively narrow frequency range of air pressure changes: those between approximately 20 and 20,000 cycles per second or Herz (Hz). In fact, sensitivity varies within this range, so that the sound pressure level relative to a reference value that is audible in the middle of the range

(near 1,000 Hz) is about 4 orders of magnitude smaller than it is at 20 Hz and about 2 orders of magnitude smaller than at 20,000 Hz (Fig. 3). Accordingly, measurements of loudness in dB generally employ filters to equalize the loudness of sounds at different frequencies or “pitch.” To approximate the sensitivity of the ear, A-weighted filters weigh sound pressure changes at frequencies in the mid-range more than those at higher or lower frequencies. When an A-weighted filter is used, loudness is measured in dB(A). This is explained in greater detail in Section B below.

The ear accomplishes transduction of sound through a series of complex mechanisms (Guyton, 1991). Briefly, sound waves move the eardrum (tympanic membrane), which is in turn connected to 2 small bones (ossicles) in the middle ear (the malleus and incus). A muscle connected to the malleus keeps the tympanic membrane tensed, allowing efficient transmission to the malleus of vibrations on the membrane. Ossicle muscles can also relax tension and attenuate transmission. Relaxation of muscle tension on the tympanic membrane protects the ear from very loud sounds and also masks low frequency sounds, or much background noise. The malleus and incus move a third bone (stapes). The stapes in turn applies pressure to the fluid of the cochlea, a snail-shaped structure imbedded in temporal bone. The cochlea is a complex structure, but for present purposes it is sufficient to note that pressure changes or waves of different frequencies in cochlear fluid result in bending of specialized hair cells in regions of the cochlea most sensitive to different frequencies or pitch. Hair cells are directly connected to nerve fibers in the vestibulocochlear nerve (VIII cranial nerve).

Transmission of sound can also occur directly through bone to the cochlea. This is a very inefficient means of sound transmission, unless a device (e.g. a tuning fork or hearing aid) is directly applied to bone (Guyton, 1991).

2. Vestibular System

The vestibular system reacts to changes in head and body orientation in space, and is necessary for maintenance of equilibrium and postural reflexes, for performance of rapid and intricate body movements, and for stabilizing visual images (via the vestibulo-ocular reflex) as the direction of movement changes (Guyton, 1991).

The vestibular apparatus, like the cochlea, is imbedded in temporal bone, and also like the cochlea, hair cells, bathed in vestibular gels, react to pressure changes and transmit signals to nerve fibers in the vestibulocochlear nerve. Two organs, the utricle and saccule, called otolith organs, integrate information about the orientation of the head with respect to gravity. Otoliths are tiny stone-like crystals, embedded in the gels of the utricle and saccule, that float as the head changes position within the gravitational field. This movement is translated to hair cells. Three semi-circular canals, oriented at right angles to each other, detect head rotation. Stimulation of the vestibular apparatus is not directly detected, but results in activation of motor reflexes as noted above (Guyton, 1991).

Like the cochlea, the vestibular apparatus reacts to pressure changes at a range of frequencies; optimal frequencies are lower than for hearing. These pressure changes can be caused by body movements, or by direct bone conduction (as for hearing, above) when vibration is applied directly to the temporal bone (Todd et al., 2008). These investigators

found maximal sensitivity at 100 Hz, with some sensitivity down to 12.5 Hz. The saccule, located in temporal bone just under the footplate of the stapes, is the most sound-sensitive of the vestibular organs (Halmagyi et al., 2004). It is known that brief loud clicks (90-95 dB) are detected by the vestibular system, even in deaf people. However, we do not know what the sensitivity of this system is through the entire range of sound stimuli.

While vestibular system activation is not directly felt, activation may give rise to a variety of sensations: vertigo, as the eye muscles make compensatory adjustments to rapid angular motion, and a variety of unpleasant sensations related to internal organs. In fact, the vestibular system interacts extensively with the “autonomic” nervous system, which regulates internal body organs (Balaban and Yates, 2004). Sensations and effects correlated with intense vestibular activation include nausea and vomiting and cardiac arrhythmia, blood pressure changes and breathing changes.

While these effects are induced by relatively intense stimulation, it is also true that A-weighted sound measurements attuned to auditory sensitivity, will underweight low frequencies for which the vestibular system is much more sensitive (Todd et al., 2008). Nevertheless, activation of the vestibular system *per se* obviously need not give rise to unpleasant sensations. It is not known what stimulus intensities are generally required for for autonomic activation at relatively low frequencies, and it is likely that there is considerable human variability and capacity to adapt to vestibular challenges.

B. Sound

1. Introduction

Sound is carried through air in compression waves of measurable frequency and amplitude. Sound can be tonal, predominating at a few frequencies, or it can contain a random mix of a broad range of frequencies and lack any tonal quality (white noise). Sound that is unwanted is called noise.

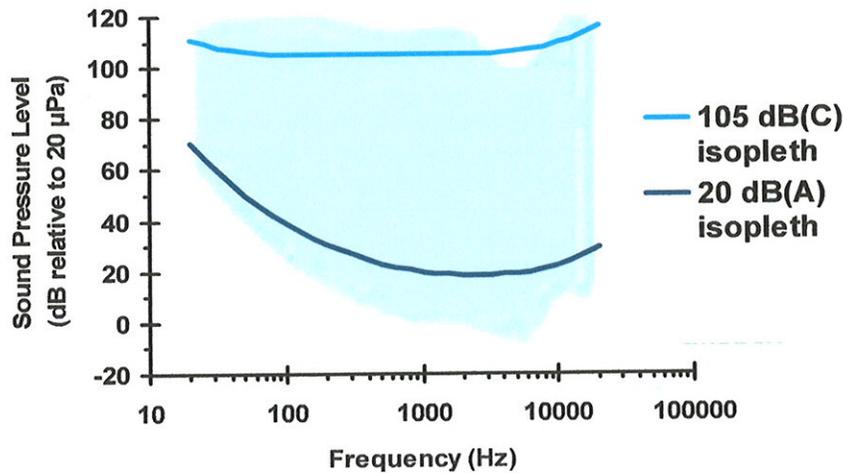
Audible Frequency Sound

Besides frequency sensitivity (between 20 and 20,000 Hz), humans are also sensitive to changes in the amplitude of the signal (compression waves) within this audible range of frequencies. Increasing amplitude, or increasing sound pressure, is perceived as increasing volume or loudness. The sound pressure level in air (SPL) is measured in micro Pascals (μPa). SPLs are typically converted in measuring instruments and reported as decibels (dB) which is a log scale, relative unit (see above). When used as the unit for sound, dBs are reported relative to a SPL of 20 μPa . Twenty μPa is used because it is the approximate threshold of human hearing sensitivity at about 1000 Hz. Decibels relative to 20 μPa are calculated from the following equation:

$$\text{Loudness (dB)} = \text{Log} \left(\left(\text{SPL} / 20 \mu\text{Pa} \right)^2 \right) * 10$$

Figure 4 shows the audible range of normal human hearing. Note that while the threshold sensitivity varies over the frequency range, at high SPLs sensitivity is relatively consistent over audible frequencies.

Figure 4: Audible Range of Human Hearing



Equivalence curves for different frequencies, when sound meter readings in dB are taken with A or C-weighting filters. (Adapted from EPD Hong Kong SAR, 2009)

Sub-Audible Frequency Sound

Sub-audible frequency sound is often called infrasound. It may be sensed by people, similar to audible sound, in the cochlear apparatus in the ear; it may be sensed by the vestibular system which is responsible for balance and physical equilibrium; or it may be sensed as vibration.

Resonance and modulation

Sound can be attenuated as it passes through a physical structure. However, because the wavelength of low frequency sound is very long (the wavelength of 40 Hz in air at sea level and room temperature is 8.6 meters or 28 ft), low frequencies are not effectively attenuated by walls and windows of most homes or vehicles. (For example, one can typically hear the bass, low frequency music from a neighboring car at a stoplight, but not the higher frequencies.) In fact, it is possible that there are rooms within buildings exposed to low frequency sound or noise where some frequencies may be amplified by resonance (e.g. $\frac{1}{2}$ wavelength, $\frac{1}{4}$ wavelength) within the structure. In addition, low frequency sound can cause vibrations within a building at higher, more audible frequencies as well as throbbing or rumbling.

Sounds that we hear generally are a mixture of different frequencies. In most instances these frequencies are added together. However, if the source of the sound is not constant, but changes over time, the effect can be re-occurring pulses of sound or low frequency modulation of sound. This is the type of sound that occurs from a steam engine, a jack hammer, music and motor vehicle traffic. Rhythmic, low frequency pulsing of higher frequency noise (like the sound of an amplified heart beat) is one type of sound that can be caused by wind turbine blades under some conditions.

2. Human Response to Low Frequency Stimulation

There is no consensus whether sensitivity below 20 Hz is by a similar or different mechanism than sensitivity and hearing above 20 Hz (Reviewed by Møller and Pedersen, 2004). Possible mechanisms of sensation caused by low frequencies include bone conduction at the applied frequencies, as well as amplification of the base frequency and/or harmonics by the auditory apparatus (eardrum and ossicles) in the ear. Sensory thresholds are relatively continuous, suggesting (but not proving) a similar mechanism above and below 20 Hz. However, it is clear that cochlear sensitivity to infrasound (< 20 Hz) is considerably less than cochlear sensitivity to audible frequencies.

Møller and Pedersen (2004) reviewed human sensitivity at low and infrasonic frequencies. The following findings are of interest:

- When whole-body pressure-field sensitivity is compared with ear-only (earphone) sensitivity, the results are very similar. These data suggest that the threshold sensitivity for low frequency is through the ear and not vestibular.
- Some individuals have extraordinary sensitivity at low frequencies, up to 25 dB more sensitive than the presumed thresholds at some low frequencies.
- While population average sensitivity over the low frequency range is smooth, sound pressure thresholds of response for individuals do not vary smoothly but are inconsistent, with peaks and valleys or “microstructures”. Therefore the sensitivity response of individuals to different low frequency stimulation may be difficult to predict.
- Studies of equal-loudness-levels demonstrate that as stimulus frequency decreases through the low frequencies, equal-loudness lines compress in the dB scale. (See Figure 4 as an example of the relatively small difference in auditory SPL range between soft and loud sound at low frequencies).
- The hearing threshold for pure tones is different than the hearing threshold for white noise at the same total sound pressure.

3. Sound Measurements

Sound measurements are taken by instruments that record sound pressure or the pressure of the compression wave in the air. Because the loudness of a sound to people is usually the primary interest in measuring sound, normalization schemes or filters have been applied to absolute measurements. dB(A) scaling of sound pressure measurements was intended to normalize readings to equal loudness over the audible range of frequencies at low loudness. For example, a 5,000 Hz (5 kHz) and 20 dB(A) tone is expected to have the same intensity or loudness as a 100 Hz, 20 dB(A) tone. However, note that the absolute sound pressures would be about 20,000 μ Pa and 40,000 μ Pa, respectively, or about a difference of 20 dB (relative to 20 μ Pa), or as it is sometimes written 20 dB(linear).

Most sound is not a single tone, but is a mixture of frequencies within the audible range. A sound meter can add the total SPLs for all frequencies; in other words, the dB readings over the entire spectrum of audible sound can be added to give a single loudness metric. If sound is reported as A-weighted, or dB(A), it is a summation of the dB(A) scaled sound pressure from 20 Hz to 20 kHz.

In conjunction with the dB(A) scale, the dB(B) scale was developed to approximate equal loudness to people across audible frequencies at medium loudness, and dB(C) was developed to approximate equal-loudness for loud environments. Figure 4 shows isopleths for 20 dB(A) and 105 dB(C). While dB(A), dB(B), dB(C) were developed from empirical data at the middle frequencies, at the ends of the curves these scales were extrapolated, or sketched in, and are not based on experimental or observational data (Berglund et al., 1996). As a result, data in the low frequency range (and probably the highest audible frequencies as well) cannot be reliably interpreted using these scales. The World Health Organization (WHO, 1999) suggests that A-weighting noise that has a large low frequency component is not reliable assessment of loudness.

The source of the noise, or the noise signature, may be important in developing equal-loudness schemes at low frequencies. C-weighting has been recommended for artillery noise, but a linear, unweighted scale may be even better at predicting a reaction (Berglund et al., 1996). A linear or equal energy rating also appears to be the most effective predictor of reaction to low frequency noise in other situations, including blast noise from mining. The implication of the analysis presented by Berglund et al. (1996) is that annoyance from non-tonal noise should not be estimated from a dB(A) scale, but may be better evaluated using dB(C), or a linear non-transformed scale.

However, as will be discussed below, a number of schemes use a modified dB(A) scale to evaluate low frequency noise. These schemes differ from a typical use of the dB(A) scale by addressing a limited frequency range below 250 Hz, where auditory sensitivity is rapidly changing as a function of frequency (see Figure 4).

III. Exposures of Interest

A. Noise From Wind Turbines

1. Mechanical noise

Mechanical noise from a wind turbine is sound that originates in the generator, gearbox, yaw motors (that intermittently turn the nacelle and blades to face the wind), tower ventilation system and transformer. Generally, these sounds are controlled in newer wind turbines so that they are a fraction of the aerodynamic noise. Mechanical noise from the turbine or gearbox should only be heard above aerodynamic noise when they are not functioning properly.

2. Aerodynamic noise

Aerodynamic noise is caused by wind passing over the blade of the wind turbine. The tip of a 40-50 meter blade travels at speeds of over 140 miles per hour under normal operating conditions. As the wind passes over the moving blade, the blade interrupts the laminar flow of air, causing turbulence and noise. Current blade designs minimize the amount of turbulence and noise caused by wind, but it is not possible to eliminate turbulence or noise.

Aerodynamic noise from a wind turbine may be underestimated during planning. One source of error is that most meteorological wind speed measurements noted in wind farm literature are taken at 10 meters above the ground. Wind speed above this elevation, in

the area of the wind turbine rotor, is then calculated using established modeling relationships. In one study (van den Berg, 2004) it was determined that the wind speeds at the hub at night were up to 2.6 times higher than modeled. Subsequently, it was found that noise levels were 15 dB higher than anticipated.

Unexpectedly high aerodynamic noise can also be caused by improper blade angle or improper alignment of the rotor to the wind. These are correctable and are usually adjusted during the turbine break-in period.

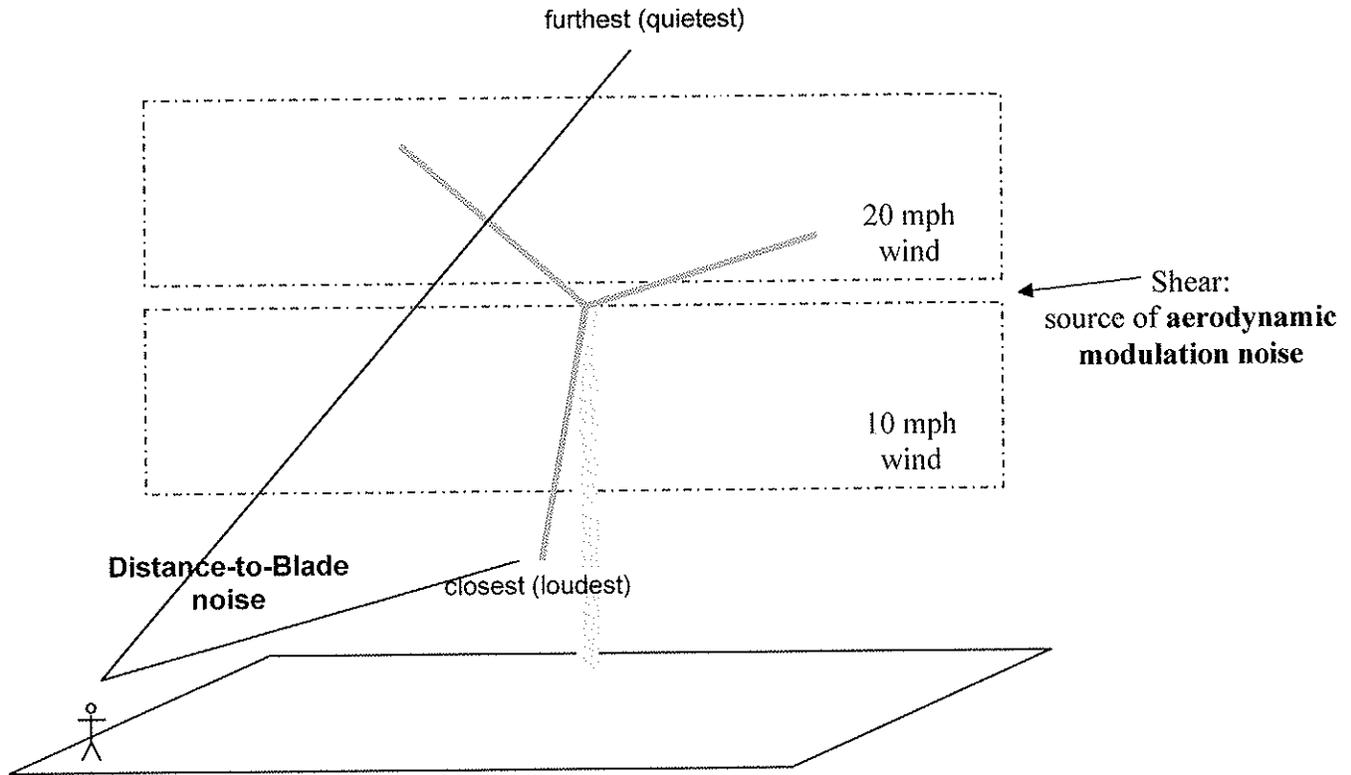
3. Modulation of aerodynamic noise

Rhythmic modulation of noise, especially low frequency noise, has been found to be more annoying than steady noise (Bradley, 1994; Holmberg et al., 1997). One form of rhythmic modulation of aerodynamic noise that can be noticeable very near to a wind turbine is a distance-to-blade effect. To a receptor on the ground in front of the wind turbine, the detected blade noise is loudest as the blade passes, and quietest when the blade is at the top of its rotation. For a modern 3-blade turbine, this distance-to-blade effect can cause a pulsing of the blade noise at about once per second (1 Hz). On the ground, about 500 feet directly downwind from the turbine, the distance-to-blade can cause a difference in sound pressure of about 2 dB between the *tip* of the blade at its farthest point and the *tip* of the blade at its nearest point (48 meter blades, 70 meter tower). Figure 5 demonstrates why the loudness of blade noise (aerodynamic noise) pulses as the distance-to-blade varies for individuals close to a turbine.

If the receptor is 500 feet from the turbine base, in line with the blade rotation or up to 60° off line, the difference in sound pressure from the *tip* of the blade at its farthest and nearest point can be about 4-5 dB, an audible difference. The tip travels faster than the rest of the blade and is closer to (and then farther away from) the receptor than other parts of the blade. As a result, noise from other parts of the blade will be modulated less than noise from the tip. Further, blade design can also affect the noise signature of a blade. The distance-to-blade effect diminishes as receptor distance increases because the relative difference in distance from the receptor to the top or to the bottom of the blade becomes smaller. Thus, moving away from the tower, distance-to-blade noise gradually appears to be more steady.

Another source of rhythmic modulation may occur if the wind through the rotor is not uniform. Blade angle, or pitch, is adjusted for different wind speeds to maximize power and to minimize noise. A blade angle that is not properly tuned to the wind speed (or wind direction) will make more noise than a properly tuned blade. Horizontal layers with different wind speeds or directions can form in the atmosphere. This wind condition is called shear. If the winds at the top and bottom of the blade rotation are different, blade noise will vary between the top and bottom of blade rotation, causing modulation of aerodynamic noise. This noise, associated with the blades passing through areas of different air-wind speeds, has been called aerodynamic modulation and is demonstrated in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Sources of noise modulation or pulsing



In some terrains and under some atmospheric conditions wind aloft, near the top of the wind turbine, can be moving faster than wind near the ground. Wind turbulence or even wakes from adjacent turbines can create non-uniform wind conditions as well. As a result of aerodynamic modulation a rhythmic noise pattern or pulsing will occur as each blade passes through areas with different wind speed. Furthermore, additional noise, or thumping, may occur as each blade passes through the transition between different wind speed (or wind direction) areas.

Wind shear caused by terrain or structures on the ground (e.g. trees, buildings) can be modeled relatively easily. Wind shear in areas of flat terrain is not as easily understood. During the daytime wind in the lower atmosphere is strongly affected by thermal convection which causes mixing of layers. Distinct layers do not easily form. However, in the nighttime the atmosphere can stabilize (vertically), and layers form. A paper by G.P. van den Berg (2008) included data from a study on wind shear at Cabauw, The Netherlands (flat terrain). Annual average wind speeds at different elevations above ground was reported. The annual average wind speed at noon was about 5.75 meters per second (m/s; approximately 12.9 miles per hour(mph)) at 20 m above ground, and about 7.6 m/s (17 mph) at 140 m. At midnight, the annual averages were about 4.3 m/s (9.6 mph) and 8.8 m/s (19.7 mph) for 20m and 140 m, respectively, above ground. The data show that while the average windspeed (between 20m and 140m) is very similar at noon and midnight at Cabauw, the windspeed difference between elevations during the day is