

Wind-Turbine NOISE

What Audiologists Should Know

BY JERRY PUNCH, RICHARD JAMES, AND DAN PABST

Noise from modern wind turbines is not known to cause hearing loss, but the low-frequency noise and vibration emitted by wind turbines may have adverse health effects on humans and may become an important community noise concern.







Most of us would agree that the modern wind turbine is a desirable alternative for producing electrical energy. One of the most highly touted ways to meet a federal mandate that 20 percent of all energy must come from renewable sources by 2020 is to install large numbers of utility-scale wind turbines. Evidence has been mounting over the past decade, however, that these utility-scale wind turbines produce significant levels of low-frequency noise and vibration that can be highly disturbing to nearby residents.

None of these unwanted emissions, whether audible or inaudible, are believed to cause hearing loss, but they are widely known to cause sleep disturbances. Inaudible components can induce resonant vibration in solids, liquids, and gases—including the ground, houses, and other building structures, spaces within those structures, and bodily tissues and cavities—that is potentially harmful to humans. The most extreme of these low-frequency (infrasonic) emissions, at frequencies under about 16 Hz, can easily penetrate homes. Some residents perceive the

energy as sound, others experience it as vibration, and others are not aware of it at all. Research is beginning to show that, in addition to sleep disturbances, these emissions may have other deleterious consequences on health. It is for these reasons that wind turbines are becoming an important community health issue, especially when hosted in quiet rural communities that have no prior experience with industrial noise or urban hum.

The people most susceptible to disturbances caused by wind turbines may be a small percentage of the total exposed population, but for them the introduction of wind turbines in their communities is not something to which they can easily become acclimated. Instead, they become annoyed, uncomfortable, distressed, or ill. This problem is increasing as newer utility-scale wind turbines capable of generating 1.5-5 MWatts of electricity or more replace the older turbines used over the past 30 years, which produced less than 1 MWatt of power. These large wind turbines can have hub heights that span the length of a football field and blade lengths that span half that distance. The increased size of these multi-MWatt turbines, especially the blades, has been associated with complaints of adverse health effects (AHEs) that cannot be explained by auditory responses alone.

For this article, we reviewed the English-language, peer-reviewed literature from around the world on the topic of wind-turbine noise and vibration and their effects on humans. In addition, we used popular search engines to locate relevant online trade journals, books, reference sources, government regulations, and acoustic and vibration standards. We also consulted professional engineers and psychoacousticians regarding their unpublished ideas and research.

Sources of Wind-Turbine Noise and Vibration

Physically, a modern wind turbine consists of a tower; a rotor (or hub); a set of rotating blades—usually three, located upwind to the tower; and a nacelle, which is an enclosure containing a gearbox, a generator, and

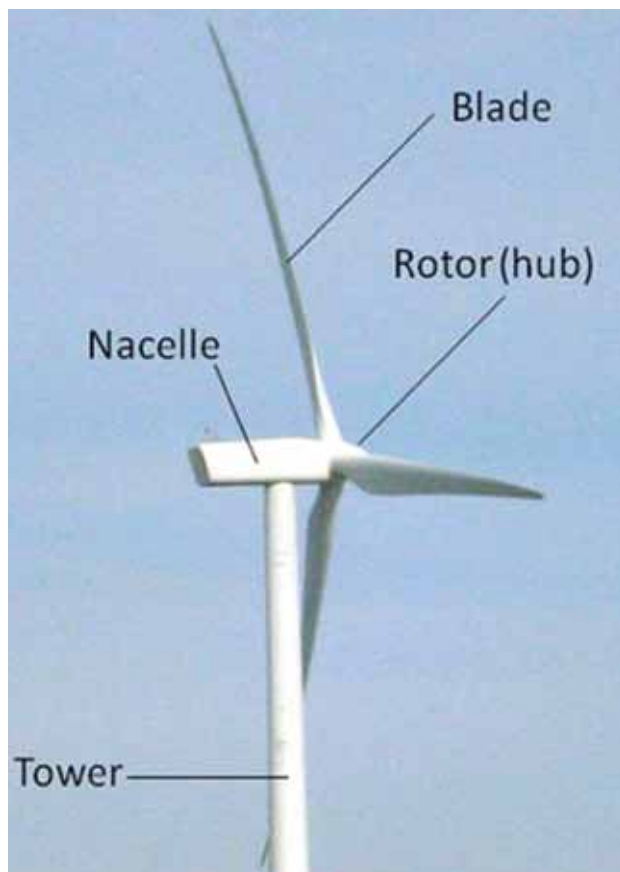


FIGURE 1: Major components of a modern wind turbine.

computerized controls that monitor and regulate operations (FIGURE 1). Wind speed can be much greater at hub level than at ground level, so taller wind towers are used to take advantage of these higher wind speeds. Calculators are available for predicting wind speed at hub height, based on wind speeds at 10 meter weather towers, which can easily be measured directly.

Mechanical equipment inside the nacelle generates some noise, but at quieter levels than older turbines. This mechanical sound is usually considered of secondary importance in discussions of annoyance from today's turbines. The main cause of annoyance is an aerodynamic source created by interaction of the turning blades with the wind. With optimal wind conditions, this aerodynamic noise is steady and commonly described as an airplane overhead that never leaves.

When wind conditions are not optimal, such as during turbulence caused by a storm, the steady sounds are augmented by fluctuating aerodynamic sounds. Under steady wind conditions, this interaction generates a broadband whooshing sound that repeats itself about once a second and is clearly audible. Many people who live near the wind turbine find this condition to be very disturbing.

The whooshing sound comes from variations of air turbulence from hub to blade tip and the inability of the turbine to keep the blades adjusted at an optimal angle as wind direction varies. The audible portion of the whoosh is around 300 Hz, which can easily penetrate walls of homes and other buildings. In addition, the rotating blades create energy at frequencies as low as 1–2 Hz (the blade-passage frequency), with overtones of up to about 20 Hz. Although some of this low-frequency energy is audible to some people with sensitive hearing, the energy is mostly vibratory to people who react negatively to it.

Adverse Health Effects of Wind-Turbine Noise

Hubbard and Shepherd (1990), in a technical paper written for the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), were the first to report in depth on the noise and vibration from wind turbines. Most of the relevant research since that time has been conducted by European investigators, as commercial-grade (utility-scale) wind turbines have existed in Europe for many decades. Unfortunately, the research and development done by wind-turbine manufacturers is proprietary and typically has not been shared with the public, but reports of the distressing effects on people living near utility-scale wind turbines in various parts of the world are becoming more common.

Studies carried out in Denmark, The Netherlands, and Germany (Wolsink and Sprengers, 1993; Wolsink et al, 1993), a Danish study (Pedersen and Nielsen, 1994), and two Swedish studies (Pedersen and Persson Waye, 2004, 2007) collectively indicate that wind turbines differ from other sources of community noise in several respects. These investigators confirm the findings of earlier research that amplitude-modulated sound is more easily perceived and more annoying than constant-level sounds (Bradley, 1994; Bengtsson et al, 2004) and that sounds that are unpredictable and uncontrollable are more annoying than other sounds (Geen and McCown, 1984; Hatfield et al, 2002).

Annoyance from wind-turbine noise has been difficult to characterize by the use of such psychoacoustic parameters as sharpness, loudness, roughness, or modulation (Persson Waye and Öhrström, 2002). The extremely low-frequency nature of wind-turbine noise, in combination with the fluctuating blade sounds, also means that the noise is not easily masked by other environmental sounds.

Pedersen et al (2009), in a survey conducted in The Netherlands on 725 respondents, found that noise from

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wind turbines is more annoying than transportation or industrial noises at comparable levels, measured in dBA. They noted that annoyance from turbine sounds at 35 dBA corresponds to the annoyance reported for other common community-noise sources at 45 dBA. Higher visibility of the turbines was associated with higher levels of annoyance, and annoyance was greater when attitudes toward the visual impact of the turbines on the landscape were negative. However, the height of wind turbines means that they are also most clearly visible to the people closest to them and those who also receive the highest sound levels. Thus, proximity of the receiver to wind turbines makes it difficult to determine whether annoyance to the noise is independent of annoyance to the visual impact. Pedersen et al (2009) also found that annoyance was substantially lower in people who benefitted economically from having wind turbines located on their property.

Among audiologists and acousticians, it has been understood for many decades that sufficiently intense and prolonged exposure to environmental noise can cause hearing impairment, annoyance, or both. In essence, the view has been *what you can hear can hurt you*. In the case of wind turbines, it seems that *what you can't hear*

can also hurt you. Again, there is no evidence that noise generated by wind turbines, even the largest utility-scale turbines, causes hearing loss. But there is increasingly clear evidence that audible and low-frequency acoustic energy from these turbines is sufficiently intense to cause extreme annoyance and inability to sleep, or disturbed sleep, in individuals living near them.

Jung and colleagues (2008), in a Korean study, concluded that low-frequency noise in the frequency range above 30 Hz can lead to psychological complaints and that infrasound in the frequency range of 5–8 Hz can cause complaints due to rattling doors and windows in homes.

The energy generated by large wind turbines can be especially disturbing to the vestibular systems of some people, as well as cause other troubling sensations of the head, chest, or other parts of the body. Dr. Nina Pierpont (2009), in her definitive natural experiment on the subject, refers to these effects as Wind-Turbine Syndrome (WTS). TABLE 1 lists the symptoms that, in various combinations, characterize WTS. Although hearing impairment is not one of the symptoms of WTS, audiologists whose patients report these symptoms should ask them if they live near a wind turbine.

It is well known that sleep deprivation has serious consequences, and we know that noncontinuous sounds and nighttime sounds are less tolerable than continuous and daytime sounds. Somewhat related effects, such as cardiac arrhythmias, stress, hypertension, and headaches have also been attributed to noise or vibration from wind turbines, and some researchers are referring to these effects as Vibroacoustic Disease, or VAD (Castelo Branco, 1999; Castelo Branco and Alves-Pereira, 2004). VAD is described as occurring in persons who are exposed to high-level (>90 dB SPL) infra- and low-frequency noise (ILFN), under 500 Hz, for periods of 10 years or more. It is believed to be a systemic pathology characterized by direct tissue damage to a variety of bodily organs and may involve abnormal proliferation of extracellular matrices.

Alves-Pereira and Castelo Branco (2007) reported on a family who lived near wind turbines and showed signs of VAD. The sound levels in the home were less than 60 dB SPL in each 1/3-octave band below 100 Hz. We have measured unweighted sound levels ranging from 60 to 70 dB Leq (averaged over 1 minute) in these low-frequency bands in Ontario homes of people reporting AHEs from wind turbines. A spectral analysis of sounds emitted at a Michigan site revealed that unweighted peak levels at frequencies under 5 Hz exceeded 90 dB SPL (Wade Bray, pers. comm., 2009).

Table 1. Core Symptoms of Wind-Turbine Syndrome

1	Sleep disturbance
2	Headache
3	Visceral Vibratory Vestibular Disturbance (VVVD)
4	Dizziness, vertigo, unsteadiness
5	Tinnitus
6	Ear pressure or pain
7	External auditory canal sensation
8	Memory and concentration deficits
9	Irritability, anger
10	Fatigue, loss of motivation

Source: Pierpont, 2009

Similar observations have been made in studies of people who live near busy highways and airports, which also expose people to low-frequency sounds, both outdoors and in their homes. Evidence is insufficient to substantiate that typical exposures to wind-turbine noise, even in residents who live nearby, can lead to VAD, but early indications are that there are some more-vulnerable people who may be susceptible. Because ILFN is not yet recognized as a disease agent, it is not covered by legislation, permissible exposure levels have not yet been established, and dose-response relationships are unknown (Alves-Pereira, 2007).

As distinguished from VAD, Pierpont's (2009) use of the term Wind-Turbine Syndrome appears to emphasize a constellation of symptoms due to stimulation, or overstimulation, of the vestibular organs of balance due to ILFN from wind turbines (see TABLE 1). One of the most distinctive symptoms she lists in the constellation of symptoms comprising WTS is Visceral Vibratory Vestibular Disturbance (VVVD), which she defines as "a sensation of internal quivering, vibration, or pulsation accompanied by agitation, anxiety, alarm, irritability, rapid heartbeat, nausea, and sleep disturbance" (p. 270).

Drawing on the recent work of Balaban and colleagues (i.e., Balaban and Yates, 2004), Pierpont describes the close association between the vestibular system and its neural connections to brain nuclei involved with balance processing, autonomic and somatic sensory inflow and outflow, the fear and anxiety associated with vertigo or a sudden feeling of postural instability, and aversive learning. These neurological relationships give credence to Pierpont's linkage of the symptoms of VVVD to the vestibular system.

Todd et al (2008) demonstrated that the resonant frequency of the human vestibular system is 100 Hz, concluding that the mechano-receptive hair cells of the vestibular structures of the inner ear are remarkably sensitive to low-frequency vibration and that this sensitivity to vibration exceeds that of the cochlea. Not only is 100 Hz the frequency of the peak response of the vestibular system to vibration, but it is also a frequency at which a substantial amount of acoustic energy is produced by wind turbines. Symptoms of both VAD and VVVD can presumably occur in the presence of ILFN as a result of disruptions of normal paths or structures that mediate the fine coordination between living tissue deformation and activation of signal transducers; these disruptions can lead to aberrant mechano-electrical coupling that can, in turn, lead to conditions such as heart arrhythmias (Ingber, 2008). Ultimately, further research will be needed

to sort out the commonalities and differences among the symptoms variously described in the literature as VAD, VVVD, and WTS.

Dr. Geoff Leventhall, a British scientist, and his colleagues (Waye et al, 1997; Leventhall, 2003, 2004) have documented the detrimental effects of low-frequency noise exposure. They consider it to be a special environmental noise, particularly to sensitive people in their homes. Waye et al (1997) found that exposure to dynamically modulated low-frequency ventilation noise (20–200 Hz)—as opposed to midfrequency noise exposure—was more bothersome, less pleasant, impacted work performance more negatively, and led to lower social orientation.

Leventhall (2003), in reviewing the literature on the effects of exposure to low-frequency noise, found no evidence of hearing loss but substantial evidence of vibration of bodily structures (chest vibration), annoyance (especially in homes), perceptions of unpleasantness (pressure on the eardrum, unpleasant perception within the chest area, and a general feeling of vibration), sleep disturbance (reduced wakefulness), stress, reduced performance on demanding

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verbal tasks, and negative biological effects that included quantitative measurements of EEG activity, blood pressure, respiration, hormone production, and heart rate.

Regarding work performance, reviewed studies indicated that dynamically modulated low-frequency noise, even when inaudible to most individuals, is more difficult to ignore than mid- or high-frequency noise and that its imperviousness to habituation leads to reduced available information-processing resources. Leventhall hypothesized that low-frequency noise, therefore, may impair work performance. More recently, as a consultant on behalf of the British Wind Energy Association (BWEA), the American Wind Energy Association (AWEA), and the Canadian Wind Energy Association (CANWEA), Leventhall (2006) changed his position, stating that although wind turbines do produce significant levels of low-frequency sound, they do not pose a threat to humans—in effect reverting to the notion that *what you can't hear can't hurt you*.

According to the World Health Organization guidelines (WHO, 2007), observable effects of nighttime, outdoor wind-turbine noise do not occur at levels of 30 dBA or lower. Many rural communities have ambient, nighttime sound levels that do not exceed 25 dBA. As outdoor sound levels increase, the risk of AHEs also increases, with the most vulnerable being the first to show its effects. Vulnerable populations include elderly persons; children,

especially those younger than age six; and people with pre-existing medical conditions, especially if sleep is affected. For outdoor sound levels of 40 dBA or higher, the WHO states that there is sufficient evidence to link prolonged exposure to AHEs. While the WHO identifies long-term, nighttime audible sounds over 40 dBA outside one's home as a cause of AHEs, the wind industry commonly promotes 50 dBA as a safe limit for nearby homes and properties. Recently, a limit of 45 dBA has been proposed for new wind projects in Canada (Keith et al, 2008).

Much of the answer as to why the wind industry denies that noise is a serious problem with its wind turbines is because holding the noise to 30 dBA at night has serious economic consequences. The following quotation by Upton Sinclair seems relevant here: "It is difficult to get a man to understand something when his salary depends upon his not understanding it" (Sinclair, 1935, reprinted 1994, p. 109).

In recent years, the wind industry has denied the validity of any noise complaints by people who live near its utility-scale wind turbines. Residents who are leasing their properties for the siting of turbines are generally so pleased to receive the lease payments that they seldom complain. In fact, they normally are required to sign a leasing agreement, or gag clause, stating they will not speak or write anything unfavorable about the turbines. Consequently, complaints, and sometimes lawsuits, tend to be initiated by individuals who live near property on which wind turbines are sited, and not by those who are leasing their own property. This situation pits neighbor against neighbor, which leads to antagonistic divisions within communities.

Measurement of Wind-Turbine Noise

It is important to point out that the continued use of the A-weighting scale in sound-level meters is the basis for misunderstandings that have led to acrimony between advocates and opponents of locating wind turbines in residential areas. The dBA scale grew out of the desire to incorporate a function into the measurement of sound pressure levels of environmental and industrial noise that is the inverse of the minimum audibility curve (Fletcher and Munson, 1933) at the 40-phon level. It is typically used, though, to specify the levels of noises that are more intense, where the audibility curve becomes considerably flattened, obviating the need for A-weighting. It is mandated in various national and international standards for measurements that are compared to damage-risk criteria for hearing loss and other health effects. The A-weighted scale in sound-level meters drastically reduces



FIGURE 2: Utility-scale wind turbines located in Huron County, Michigan.

sound-level readings in the lower frequencies, beginning at 1000 Hz, and reduces sounds at 20 Hz by 50 dB.

For wind-turbine noise, the A-weighting scale is especially ill-suited because of its devaluation of the effects of low-frequency noise. This is why it is important to make C-weighted measurements, as well as A-weighted measurements, when considering the impact of sound from wind turbines. Theoretically, linear-scale measurements would seem superior to C-scale measurements in wind-turbine applications, but linear-scale measurements lack standardization due to failure on the part of manufacturers of sound-level meters to agree on such factors as low-frequency cutoff and response tolerance limits. The Z-scale, or zero-frequency weighting, was introduced in 2003 by the International Electro-technical Commission (IEC) in its Standard 61672 to replace the flat, or linear, weighting used by manufacturers in the past.

State of Michigan Siting Guidelines

Michigan's siting guidelines (State of Michigan, 2008) will be used as an example of guidelines that deal only in a limited way with sound. These guidelines refer to earlier, now outdated, WHO and Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) guidelines to support a noise criterion that SPLs cannot exceed 55 dBA at the adjacent property line. This level is allowed to be exceeded during severe weather or power outages, and when the ambient sound level is greater than 55 dBA, the turbine noise can exceed

that higher background sound level by 5 dB. These levels are about 30 dB above the nighttime levels of most rural communities. When utility-scale turbines were installed in Huron County, Michigan, in May 2008, the WHO's 2007 guidelines that call for nighttime, outside levels not to exceed 30 dBA were already in place. Based on measurements made by the authors, these turbines produce 40–45 dBA sound levels at the perimeter of a 1,000 ft radius under typical weather conditions, and the additive effects of multiple turbines produce higher levels. Many of the turbines have been located close enough to homes to produce very noticeable noise and vibration.

Kamperman and James (2009) have offered recommendations for change in the State of Michigan guidelines (2008) for wind turbines. Some of the more pertinent details of the Michigan siting guidelines are shown in the left-hand column of TABLE 2. The state of Michigan permits sound levels that do not exceed 55 dBA or L90 + 5 dBA, whichever is greater, measured at the property line closest to the wind-energy system. These guidelines make no provisions to limit low-frequency sounds from wind-turbine operations.

In consideration of the current WHO guidelines (2007), measurements made by the authors in Huron County, Michigan, indicate that the current Michigan guidelines do not appear adequate to protect the public from the nuisances and known health risks of wind-turbine noise. In fact, these guidelines appear to be especially lenient

Table 2. Current and Proposed Wind-Turbine Siting Guidelines

Current Michigan Guidelines*	Alternative Proposed Guidelines**
Sound level cannot exceed 55 dBA or L90 + 5 dBA, whichever is greater.	Operating LAeq is not to exceed the background LA90 +5 dBA, where LA90 is measured during a preconstruction noise study at the quietest time of night. Similar dBC limits should also be applied.
Limits apply to sound levels measured at homes (as stated in Huron County Ordinance).	Limits apply to sound levels measured at property lines, except that turbine sounds cannot exceed 35 dBA at any home.
No provisions are made for limiting low-frequency sounds from wind-turbine operations.	LCEq-LA90 cannot exceed 20 dB at receiving property, e.g., LCEq (from turbines) minus (LA90 [background] + 5) < 20 dB, and is not to exceed 55 LCEq from wind turbines (60 LCEq for properties within one mile of major heavily trafficked roads).

*Source: State of Michigan, 2008

**Source: Kamperman and James, 2009

in terms of tolerable sound levels. Sound levels that approach 20 dBA higher than natural ambient levels are considered unacceptable in most countries; Michigan permits 30 dBA increases.

In considering the health and well-being of people living near wind-turbine projects, the changes recommended by Kamperman and James (2009) would abandon the 55 dBA limit in favor of the commonly accepted criteria of $L_{90} + 5$ dBA, for both A- and C-scale readings, where L_{90} is the preconstruction ambient level. These recommendations also include a prohibition against any wind-turbine-related sound levels exceeding 35 dBA on receiving properties that include homes or other structures in which people sleep. Additional protections against low-frequency sound are given in the right-hand column of TABLE 2. These recommended provisions would protect residents by limiting the difference between C-weighted

People living near wind turbines may experience sleep disturbance.

Leq during turbine operation and the quietest A-weighted pre-operation background sound levels, plus 5 dB, to no more than 20 dB at the property line. This level should not exceed 55 dB Leq on the C scale, or 60 dB Leq for properties within one mile of major heavily trafficked roads, which sets a higher tolerance for communities that tend to experience slightly noisier conditions.

Implementation of the recommendations of Kamperman and James would result in siting wind turbines differently than what is currently planned for future wind-turbine projects in Michigan. This change would result in sound levels at nearby properties that are much less noticeable, and much less likely to cause sleep deprivation, annoyance, and related health risks. These sound-level measurements should be made by independent acoustical engineers or knowledgeable audiologists who follow ANSI guidelines (1993, 1994) to ensure fair and accurate readings, and not by representatives of the wind industry.

People living within a mile of one or more wind turbines, and especially those living within a half mile, have frequent sleep disturbance leading to sleep deprivation,

and sleep disturbances are common in people who live up to about 1.25 miles away. This is the setback distance at which a group of turbines would need to be in order not to be a nighttime noise disturbance (Kamperman and James, 2009). It is also the setback distance used in several other countries that have substantial experience with wind turbines, and is the distance at which Pierpont (2009) found very few people reporting AHEs.

A study conducted by van den Berg (2003) in The Netherlands demonstrated that daytime levels cannot be used to predict nighttime levels and that residents within 1900 m (1.18 mile) of a wind-turbine project expressed annoyance from the noise. Pierpont (2009) recommends baseline minimum setbacks of 2 kilometers (1.24 mile) from residences and other buildings such as hospitals, schools, and nursing homes, and longer setbacks in mountainous terrain and when necessary to meet the noise criteria developed by Kamperman and James (2009).

In a panel review report, the American Wind Energy Association (AWEA) and Canadian Wind Energy Association (CANWEA) have objected to setbacks that exceed 1 mile (Colby et al, 2009). A coalition of independent medical and acoustical experts, the Society for Wind Vigilance (2010), has provided a recent rebuttal to that report. The society has described the panel review as a typical product of industry-funded white papers, being neither authoritative nor convincing. The society accepts as a medical fact that sleep disturbance, physiological stress, and psychological distress can result from exposure to wind-turbine noise.

Wind turbines have different effects on different people. Some of these effects are somewhat predictable based on financial compensation, legal restrictions on free speech included in the lease contracts with hosting landowners, and distance of the residence from wind projects, but they are sometimes totally unpredictable. Planning for wind projects needs to be directed not only toward benefitting society at large but also toward protecting the individuals living near them. We believe that the state of Michigan, and other states that have adopted similar siting guidelines for wind turbines, are not acting in the best interest of all their citizens and need to revise their siting guidelines to protect the public from possible health risks and loss of property values, as well as reduce complaints about noise annoyance.

Wind-utility developers proposing new projects to a potential host community are often asked if their projects will cause the same negative community responses that are heard from people living in the footprint of operating projects. They often respond that they will use a different



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type of wind turbine or that reports of complaints refer to older-style turbines that they do not use. In our opinion, these statements should usually be viewed as diversionary.

Finally, it is important to note that there is little difference in noise generated across makes and models of modern utility-scale, upwind wind turbines once their power outputs are normalized. Kamperman (pers. comm., 2009), after analyzing data from a project funded by the Danish Energy Authority (Søndergaard and Madsen, 2008), has indicated that when the A-weighted sound levels are converted to unweighted levels, the low-frequency energy from industrial wind turbines increases inversely with frequency at a rate of approximately 3 dB per octave to below 10 Hz (the lowest reported frequency). Kamperman has concluded that the amount of noise generated at low frequencies increases by 3–5 dB for every MW of electrical power generated. Because turbines are getting larger, this means that future noise problems are likely to get worse if siting guidelines are not changed.

Conclusion

Our purpose in this article has been to provide audiologists with a better understanding of the types of noise generated by wind turbines, some basic considerations underlying sound-level measurements of wind-turbine noise, and the adverse health effects on people who live near these turbines. In future years, we expect that audiologists will be called upon to make noise measurements in communities that have acquired wind turbines, or are considering them. Some of us, along with members of the medical profession, will be asked to provide legal testimony regarding our opinions on the effects of such noise on people. Many of us will likely see clinical patients who are experiencing some of the adverse health effects described in this article.

As a professional community, audiologists should become involved not only in making these measurements to corroborate the complaints of residents living near wind-turbine projects but also in developing and shaping siting guidelines that minimize the potentially adverse health effects of the noise and vibration they generate. In these ways, we can promote public health interests without opposing the use of wind turbines as a desirable and viable alternative energy source. 📞

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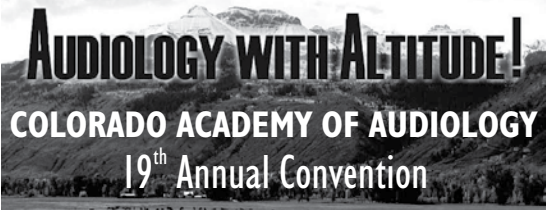
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