

Life Cycle **Assessment**

of Electricity Production from an Onshore
V90-3.0 MW Wind Plant



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Life Cycle Assessment of Electricity Production from an onshore V90-3.0MW Wind Plant

October 2013

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Critical review

LIFE CYCLE ASSESSMENT OF ELECTRICITY PRODUCTION FROM AN ONSHORE V90-3.0MW WIND PLANT

Commissioned by: Vestas Wind Systems A/S
Randers, Denmark

Reviewer: Prof. Dr. Matthias Finkbeiner
Berlin, Germany

Reference: ISO 14040 (2006): *Environmental Management - Life Cycle Assessment - Principles and Framework*
ISO 14044 (2006): *Environmental Management - Life Cycle Assessment - Requirements and Guidelines*

Scope of the Critical Review

The reviewer had the task to assess whether

- the methods used to carry out the LCA are consistent with the international standards ISO 14040 and ISO 14044,
- the methods used to carry out the LCA are scientifically and technically valid,
- the data used are appropriate and reasonable in relation to the goal of the study,
- the interpretations reflect the limitations identified and the goal of the study, and
- the study report is transparent and consistent.

The review was performed according to paragraph 6.2 of ISO 14044, because the study is not intended to be used for comparative assertions intended to be disclosed to the public. This review statement is only valid for this specific report in its revised version 1.1 received on 31st October 2013.

The analysis and verification of individual datasets are outside the scope of this review.

Review process

The review process of the updated version 1.1 was based on the small changes of the original study and was performed on 5th November 2013. The original critical review was coordinated between Vestas and the reviewer. As a first step of the review, the review process was discussed and agreed in a call on 31.08.2012. The next step was the review of the draft final report of the study, which was provided to the reviewer on 03.09.2012. A review call was held on 11.09.2012 in which relevant changes compared to the previous reports and models were explained by Vestas. The reviewer provided 39 comments of general, technical and editorial nature to the commissioner by the 18.09.2012.

The feedback provided and the agreements on the treatment of the review comments were adopted in the finalisation of the study. The final version of the report was provided on 25.09.2012. All critical issues were comprehensively addressed, and even a

substantial number of the recommendations of the reviewer were addressed in a comprehensive and constructive manner.

The reviewer checked the implementation of the comments and agreed to the final report. The reviewer acknowledges the unrestricted access to all requested information as well as the open and constructive dialogue during the critical review process.

General evaluation

The current LCA builds upon a history of conducting LCAs of Vestas turbines since 2001. As a result, the methodology has reached a high level of maturity and the study is performed in a professional manner using state-of-the-art methods. The LCI modelling used for the study is outstanding with regard to the level of detail and the amount of primary data used. It covers around 25,000 components representing over 99.5% of the total mass of materials of the product. For the manufacturing part, the study includes information from over 100 sites. For plausible use phase scenarios, Vestas can rely on real-time performance data of over 20,000 wind turbines around the world, which covers 20% of current worldwide installed wind capacity.

In addition to the already established quality of the model, several improvements were made during the course of this study:

- database update to 2011 data
- inclusion of more detailed LCIs for electronics
- inclusion of improved plant cable layout data
- inclusion of detailed dismantling data for the nacelle
- inclusion of wake losses
- inclusion of an additional sensitivity analysis with regard to end-of-life modelling.

As a result, the report is deemed to be representative for an ONSHORE V90-3.0MW WIND PLANT. The defined and achieved scope for this LCA study was found to be appropriate to achieve the stated goals. The corrections made in the update did not affect the conclusions of the study significantly.

Conclusion

The study has been carried out in compliance with ISO 14040 and ISO 14044. The reviewer found the overall quality of the methodology and its execution to be of a high standard for the purposes of the study. The study is reported in a comprehensive manner including a transparent documentation of its scope and methodological choices.



Prof. Dr. Matthias Finkbeiner

5th November 2013

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Executive summary

The present Life cycle assessment (LCA) is the final reporting for the electricity produced from a 90MW onshore wind power plant composed of Vestas V90-3.0 MW turbines. Vestas Wind Systems A/S has prepared the report and the underlying LCA model.

This executive summary is intended to be read by a non-technical audience of the life cycle assessment study.

The study has been critically reviewed by an external expert, Prof. Dr. Matthias Finkbeiner, according to paragraph 6.2 of ISO 14044 (2006a), as the study is not intended for comparative assertions intended to be disclosed to the public.

Context

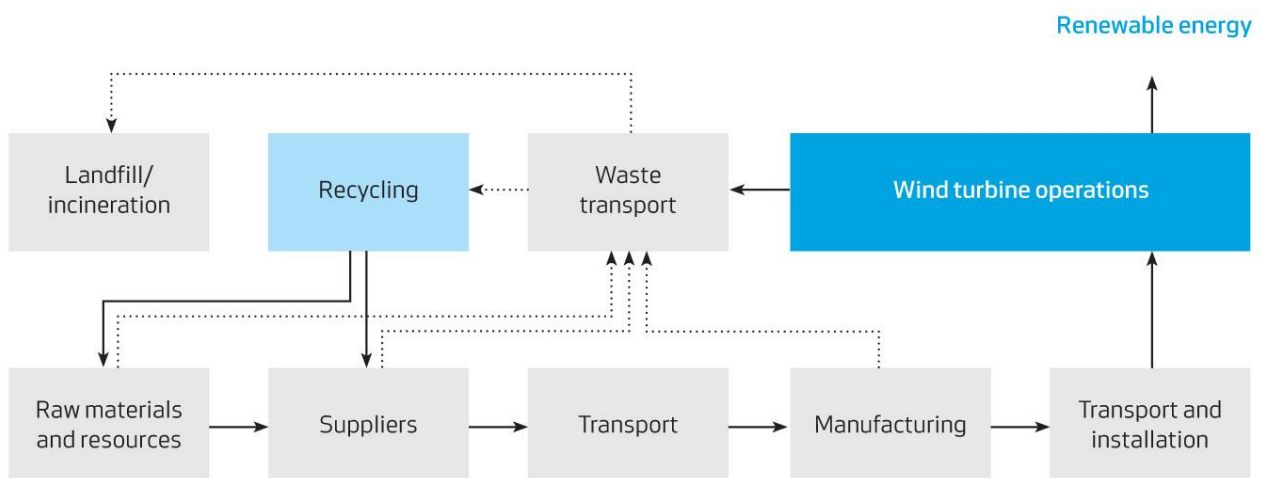
As part of the Vestas' ongoing sustainability agenda, previous LCAs have been conducted for a number of wind turbines. The current LCA builds upon a history of conducting LCAs of Vestas turbines since 2001. This study represents an update to the environmental profile from previous studies of the same onshore turbines.

This LCA of the V90-3.0MW power plant has assessed the turbine's entire bill-of-materials accounting for around 25,000 parts that make up the turbine. The complete wind power plant is assessed up to the point of the electricity grid, including the turbine itself, foundations, site cabling that connects the turbines together and other site parts such as the transformer station.

This LCA has covered 99.5% of the total mass of the turbine itself, and about 99.9% of the entire mass of the power plant. Missing information relates to parts where the material was not identified.

Each part of the wind plant is assessed over the entire life cycle from cradle to grave. The potential environmental impacts are calculated for each turbine component relating to the specific material grade of the part, manufacturing processes, country of origin, part maintenance, and specific disposal and recycling steps at end-of-life. This provides a comprehensive view of the environmental performance. The figure below shows the generic turbine life cycle assessed in the LCA.

Life cycle of the wind power plant



The functional unit

The functional unit is the 'reference unit' used to report the environmental performance of the wind power plant, which is assessed according to the following:

The functional unit for this LCA study is defined as:

1 kWh of electricity delivered to the grid by a wind power plant.

The functional unit is based on the design lifetime of the power plant (of 20 years), along with the total electricity produced over the lifetime based on average high wind conditions.

Benchmarking performance

Vestas turbines are designed to meet different functional requirements both in terms of onshore and offshore locations, as well as the wind classes for which they are designed to operate. The wind class determines which turbine is suitable for a particular site, and effects the total electricity output of the power plant¹.

When benchmarking a wind turbine performance from one wind turbine to another it is important that this is made on an equivalent functional basis, and should only be compared within similar wind classes. There are three wind classes for wind turbines which are defined by an International Electrotechnical Commission standard (IEC), corresponding to high, medium and low wind².

The Vestas V90-3.0MW wind turbine has been designed to operate under high wind conditions and for this study, average high wind conditions have been selected to evaluate environmental performance. The potential effect of medium wind class is also addressed.

Environmental impacts

The Table below presents the total potential environmental impacts associated with a 90MW onshore wind power plant of V90-3.0MW turbines, covering the entire power plant over the life cycle, per kWh of electricity delivered to the grid.

The results show that raw material and component production dominate the environmental impacts of the power plant, followed by end-of-life recycling credits, and other phases to a much lesser extent. Of production the nacelle, tower and foundations contribute most significantly to all environmental impact indicators. The next most significant components are the site cables and blades. Vestas factories contribute between 3% and 11% across all impact categories. Transport of the turbine components contributes between around 1% and 33% across all impact categories, and 9% to the total global warming impacts.

¹ Other site parameters are also important when establishing the performance of a wind power plant, such as, wind plant size, turbine power output, distance to grid and availability, amongst others.

² Refer to Annex E of the report further details of wind class and Vestas turbines within each classification.

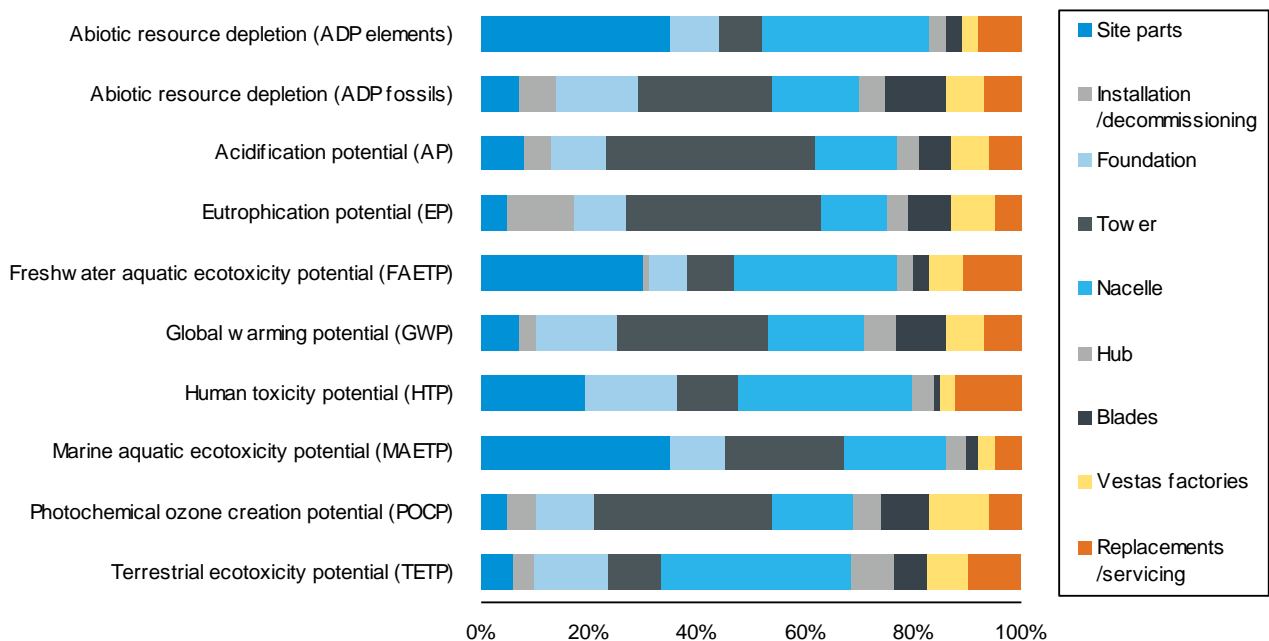
Whole-life environmental impacts of V90-3.0MW (units shown in g, mg or MJ per kWh)

Environmental impact categories:	Unit	Quantity
Abiotic resource depletion (ADP elements)	mg Sb-e	0.31
Abiotic resource depletion (ADP fossils)	MJ	0.08
Acidification potential (AP)	mg SO ₂ -e	29
Eutrophication potential (EP)	mg PO ₄ -e	3.1
Freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity potential (FAETP)	mg DCB-e	43
Global warming potential (GWP)	g CO ₂ -e	6.2
Human toxicity potential (HTP)	mg DCB-e	1840
Marine aquatic ecotoxicity potential (MAETP)	g DCB-e	584
Photochemical oxidant creation potential (POCP)	mg Ethene	3.3
Terrestrial ecotoxicity potential (TETP)	mg DCB-e	50

Note: impact indicators are based on CML impact assessment method (CML, 2009)

The Figure below also presents the environmental impacts for different components of the power plant for the production, maintenance and operation (i.e. all life cycle stages excluding end-of-life).

Production and use-phase environmental impacts of V90-3.0MW



Other environmental indicators

The Table below shows the other environmental indicators assessed as part of the LCA. Additionally, the return-on-energy of the V90-3.0MW turbine has been evaluated over the life cycle of the plant. This provides an indication of the energy balance of power plant, showing the relationship between the energy requirement over the whole life cycle of the wind plant (i.e to manufacture, operate, service and dispose) versus the electrical energy output from the wind plant. The payback period is measured in months where the energy requirement for the life cycle of the wind plant equals the energy it has produced.

The breakeven time of the V90-3.0MW is 6.7 months for high wind conditions and 8.3 months for medium wind. This may be interpreted that over the life cycle of the V90-3.0MW wind power plant will return 36 times (high wind) and 29 times (medium wind) more energy back to society than it consumed over the plant life cycle.

Whole-life environmental indicators of V90-3.0MW (units shown in g or MJ per kWh)

Non-impact indicators:	Unit	Quantity
*Primary energy from renewable raw materials	MJ	0.012
*Primary energy from resources	MJ	0.08
Water use	g	46
Turbine recyclability	% (w/w)	82%

* Net calorific value

Study assumptions and limitations

In accordance with ISO standards for LCA (ISO 14040/44), the assumptions and limitations of the study have been identified and assessed throughout the study. In general, there have been few places of uncertainty, but where there has been, a conservative approach has been adopted, which would have the tendency to overestimate the potential environmental impacts. The primary parameters for the study relate to the following:

- *Power plant lifetime:* the power plant lifetime is a dominant factor when determining the impacts of the electricity production per kWh. This LCA assumes a turbine lifetime of 20 years which matches the standard design life. Nonetheless, the wind turbine industry is still young (starting for Vestas in 1979), and few turbines have ever been disposed, with some turbines reaching operational lives of 30 years and over, for other Vestas turbine models. Although variations occur, the design lifetime for this study of 20 years for a 'typical' plant, is considered reasonable and accurate. The sensitivity of this assumption is tested in the LCA.
- *Electricity production:* the electricity production per kWh is substantially effected by the wind plant siting and site-specific wind conditions that the turbine operates under (i.e. low, medium or high wind classes defined by the IEC). Vestas wind turbines are designed to match these different wind classes and wind speeds, so it is not always the size of the rotor or the generator rating (in MW) that determines the electricity production of the turbine; but wind class is a dominant factor. Nonetheless, electricity production is very accurately measured for

Vestas turbines when the wind speed and conditions are known. The V90-3.0MW turbine assessed in this LCA is designed for the high wind class, and has been assessed for average high wind conditions, which fairly reflects a 'typical' power plant. The effect of changing wind class to medium wind is addressed in the LCA.

- *Impacts of metal production and recycling:* the turbine is constructed of around 84% metal (primarily iron and steel, and to a lesser extent aluminium and copper), and it is the production-phase and end-of-life phase that dominate the overall environmental impacts. Datasets for metal production are based on established and credible industry association sources (such as those from worldsteel and the European Aluminium Association). End-of-life recycling of metals in the power plant also provides environmental credits. This LCA uses an 'avoided impacts' approach accounting also for burdens of input scrap of raw materials; methodologically speaking, this is a consistent approach to environmental crediting for recycling. Additionally, specific parts of the turbine and power plant are applied different recycling rates dependent on their ease to disassemble and recycle. Furthermore, the effect of using a 'recycled content' approach is also estimated in the LCA. Concrete is the other main mass-flow material, which uses industry-specific production datasets accounting for the concrete grade. Polymer materials also use established and credible industry datasets.

Vestas operates sophisticated real-time diagnostic tools and sensors which measure individual turbine performance, power output and health status (such as fatigue loading and turbine condition). These systems operate on over 20,000 wind turbines around the world (of around 45,000 in total), which covers 20 per cent of current worldwide installed wind capacity. This provides highly detailed and valuable data for specific turbine performance and site operating conditions, which allows the above assumptions relating to the turbine to be carefully understood and reflected in the LCA.

Updates over recent LCAs

Several updates have been made in the current LCA since 2011. Most notably, a correction is made to the length and specification of the power plant cabling which inter-connects the turbines. This has the effect of reducing cabling significantly, with the effect also reducing the associated environmental impacts. Additionally, more accurate assessment of electronics and controllers has been made, as well as updating the recycling models based on industry data.

Conclusions and recommendations

Overall, the study represents a robust and detailed reflection of the potential environmental impacts of a 90MW onshore wind power plant consisting of thirty V90-3.0MW turbines. The LCA is based upon accurate product knowledge and current best-practice in the field of LCA, both in the methodologies applied and datasets used to account for environmental impacts, as well as the LCA tools and software applied. The LCA could further benefit by considering the following:

- include a more comprehensive data collection method for the mass flow inputs and outputs from Vestas manufacturing sites, particularly for waste disposal;
- include more specific supply chain data for the transport of incoming materials, which currently uses generic distances;
- explore improvements in accounting methods for water flows; and
- explore potential use of other impact assessment methods.

Glossary

Abbreviation	Definition
3D CAD	Three-dimensional Computer aided design
AP	Acidification potential
ADP _{elements}	Abiotic resource depletion (elements)
ADP _{fossil}	Abiotic resource depletion (fossils)
AEP	Annual energy production
BOM	Bill of materials
CML	Institute of Environmental Sciences (CML), Leiden University, The Netherlands.
CNC	Computer numerical control
DCB	Dichlorobenzene
DfX	DfX is a GaBi LCA software extension that allows automated import of an entire product bill of materials (consisting of thousands of parts) into the software LCA model.
DFIG	Double Fed Induction Generator
EIA	Environmental impact assessment (a complimentary assessment technique to LCA)
EP	Eutrophication potential
EPD	Environmental product declaration
FAETP	Freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity potential
GHG	Greenhouse gas
GWP	Global warming potential
HGWL	High ground water level (referring to water level of turbine foundations)
HTP	Human toxicity potential
IEC	International Electrotechnical Commission
ILCD	International reference life cycle data system
ISO	International Organization for Standardization
ICT	Information and communications technology
KPI	Key performance indicator
kWh	Kilowatt hour
LCA	Life cycle assessment
LCI	Life cycle inventory
LCIA	Life cycle impact assessment
LGWL	Low ground water level (referring to water level of turbine foundations)

MAETP	Marine aquatic ecotoxicity potential
MVA	Megavolt amp
MW	Megawatt
MWh	Megawatt hour
PCB	Printed circuit board
POCP	Photochemical oxidant creation potential
T-CAT	Technology cost assessment tool
TETP	Terrestrial ecotoxicity potential
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
VOC	Volatile organic compound
Wind plant	The wind power plant includes the wind turbines, foundations, site cabling (connecting the individual wind turbines to the transformer station) and site equipment (e.g. transformer station) up to the point of the existing grid.
Wind turbine	The wind turbine refers to the turbine itself and excludes the foundation and other site parts.
w/w	Weight for weight

1. Introduction

The present Life cycle assessment (LCA) is the final reporting for the electricity produced from a 90MW onshore wind power plant composed of Vestas V90-3.0 MW turbines. Vestas Wind Systems A/S (hereafter called Vestas) has prepared the report and the underlying LCA model. This study complies with the requirements of the ISO standards for LCA (ISO 14040: 2006, ISO 14044: 2006) and has undergone an external critical review to assure the robustness and credibility of the results, conducted by Prof. Dr. Matthias Finkbeiner.

The V90-3MW turbine was first put into operation in 2001 and is currently at the Mark 9 version, with around 2900 turbines installed worldwide, representing around 8.7 GW of total installed capacity.

1.1 Background

As part of the Vestas' ongoing sustainability agenda, previous LCAs have been conducted for a number wind turbines. The current LCA builds upon a history of conducting LCAs of Vestas turbines since 2001.

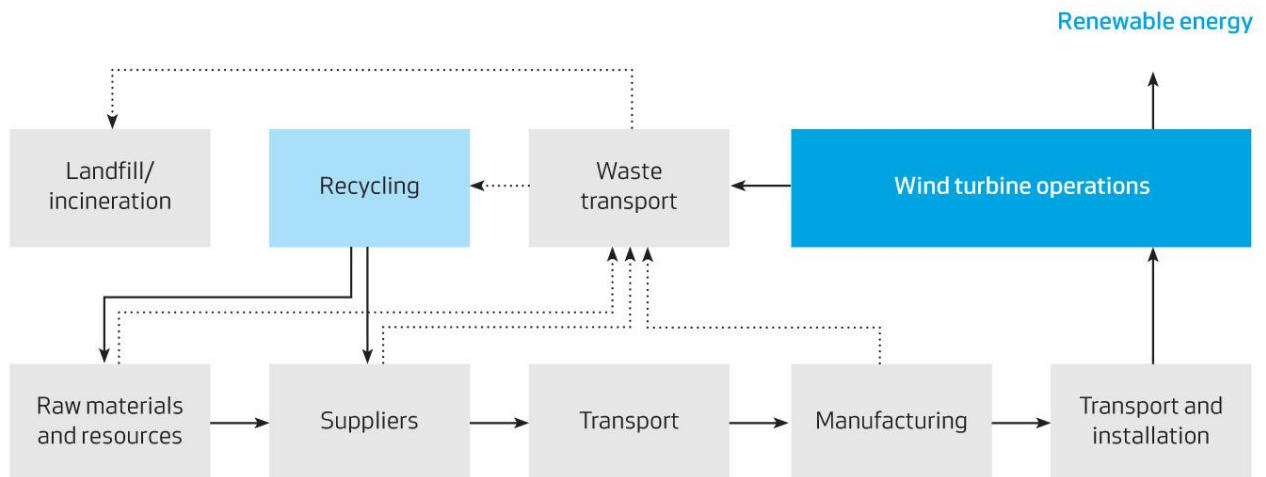
The present LCA represents an update to the previous studies of the same onshore turbines. This report is part of a series of two LCA reports published in September 2012, covering the V90-3.0 and V100-2.6MW turbines.

Although LCA often is a comprehensive exercise, as is also the case for the present LCA, in general it cannot stand alone in the assessment of technologies. Other environmental management techniques like risk assessment, environmental performance evaluation and environmental impact assessment are valuable supplementary tools in addressing other types of environmental aspects (e.g. noise and impacts on fauna). Likewise, other tools may be used to address social and economic aspects which are not included in environmental LCA.

1.2 Life cycle assessment

LCA addresses the environmental aspects and potential environmental impacts (e.g. use of resources and environmental consequences of releases) throughout a product's life cycle from raw material acquisition through to production, use, end-of-life treatment recycling and final disposal (i.e. cradle-to grave) as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Life cycle of a wind power plant



According to the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 14040/44 standards, a LCA study consists of four phases: (1) goal and scope (framework and objective of the study); (2) life cycle inventory (input/output analysis of mass and energy flows from operations along the product's value chain); (3) life cycle impact assessment (evaluation of environmental relevance, e.g. global warming potential); and (4) interpretation (e.g. optimisation potential) (ISO 14040, 2006 and ISO 14044, 2006).

This section introduces the goal and scope for the LCA of the following turbines:

- onshore V90-3.0 MW turbine; and
- onshore V100-2.6 MW turbine.

The two turbines listed above share a significant number of common components (around 90% of total weight), for example the nacelle, tower and all site parts (cabling, transformer, etc). The primary difference between the turbines relates to the blade size (90m or 100m diameter), the generator output, and the 'hub and nose cone' module which has some differences in construction. The turbines are built to meet specific wind conditions which range from medium to high wind speeds (see Section 3.4.2 for further details). The size of the turbine (e.g. blade diameter and MW rating of generator) does not necessarily determine the total amount of electricity production from the turbine, but the siting of the turbine and the particular wind class that it is operating under (i.e. medium or high wind conditions) is also a dominant factor. As such, the LCA model which is developed in the GaBi DfX software has been created for the complete '3MW platform' and differences in each turbine are included where these occur. This report presents the LCA results for the onshore V90-3.0 MW turbine. Improvements to the LCA have been made in comparison to previous studies relating to the power plant layout (cable lengths and specifications) and a more accurate assessment of electronics and controllers has been made, as well as updating the recycling models based on specific industry data. Further details of all improvements are shown in Section 1.2.4.

1.2.1 Goal and scope stage

In general terms, the goal and scope stage outlines the: rationale for the study; the anticipated use of the results of the study; the boundary conditions; the data requirements and the assumptions made

to analyse the product system under consideration; and other similar technical specifications for the study.

The goal of the study is to answer the specific questions that have been raised by the target audience and the stakeholders involved, while considering potential uses of the study's results.

The scope of the study defines the: system's boundary in terms of technological, geographical, and temporal coverage of the study; attributes of the product system; and the level of detail and complexity addressed by the study.

1.2.2 Life cycle inventory (LCI) and life cycle impact assessment (LCIA) stages

The life cycle inventory (LCI) stage qualitatively and quantitatively analyses the following for the product system being studied:

- the materials and energy used (inputs);
- the products and by-products generated; and
- the environmental releases in terms of non-retained emissions to specified environmental compartments and the wastes to be treated (outputs).

The LCI data can be used to: understand total emissions, wastes and resource-use associated with the material or the product being studied; improve production or product performance; and be further analysed and interpreted to provide insights into the potential environmental impacts from the product system being studied (i.e. life cycle impact assessment (LCIA) and interpretation).

1.2.3 Benchmarking wind turbine performance

Vestas turbines are designed to meet different functional requirements both in terms of onshore and offshore locations, as well as the wind classes for which they are designed to operate. The wind class determines which turbine is suitable for a particular site, and effects the power output of the turbine. Other site parameters are also important when establishing the performance of a wind power plant, such as, wind plant size, turbine power output, distance to grid and availability, amongst others.

A new approach for the calculation of use-phase power output of the turbine, using wind classes is used in this study which allows for a more robust benchmarking of wind power plants.

There are three wind classes for wind turbines which are defined by an International Electrotechnical Commission standard (IEC), corresponding to high, medium and low wind. Each wind class is primarily defined by the average annual wind speed (measured at turbine hub height), along with the speed of extreme gusts (occurring over 50 years), and how much turbulence there is at the wind site.

When benchmarking a wind turbine performance from one wind turbine to another it is important that this is made on an equivalent functional basis, and should only be compared within similar wind classes for the wind turbine (Garrett, 2012). Annex E provides further details of the wind classes and shows which Vestas turbines operate in different wind classes.

The current LCA (as with previous Vestas LCAs) has been performed in a way that makes it possible to compare the impacts of electricity produced from a wind power plant with electricity produced from power plants based on different technologies.

1.2.4 Improvements over recent LCAs

Several improvements have been made in comparison to previous LCA studies of Vestas wind plants, relating to the following areas:

Data improvements:

- *Vestas 2011 and GaBi 2011 databases* (including a software upgrade to GaBi 5) are included as updates in the current LCAs. Overall, these updates cause relatively small increases or decreases overall in the inventory and impact assessment results.
- *Electronics mapping*: the electronics have been mapped (mass) more accurately, based on data from Vestas design engineers. This has the effect of reducing the total assumed weight of electronic components over previous LCA studies (Vestas 2011a, 2011b, 2011c). Also, the GaBi 2011 databases reflect an update to the electronics production LCI which increases impacts per kg by about 50 to 100% across all impacts categories.
- *Plant cable layouts*: the cables interconnecting the turbines have been updated to reflect an average of 20 plants covering about 1.5GW of installed power. This gives a significant reduction in cable lengths and some changes to cable specifications. Annex B.10 shows the km lengths.
- *Nacelle dismantling*: the LCA includes results from a detailed study of dismantling a Vestas nacelle which has been used to update the recycling efficiencies of major turbine parts (e.g. gearbox, generator, 'rest' of turbine). This update also confirms the data/assumptions used in previous LCAs which closely match the new data. Refer to Section 3.4.4.
- *Wake losses*: a confirmation of wake losses has been made which reflects the electrical power losses of downstream turbines in the entire power plant. This is based on data for about 16000 turbines that have specific data on performance and site modelling. An average loss has been calculated from these data. Refer to Section 3.4.2.

Method updates:

- *Water flows*: updates to the 2011 GaBi datasets account for water flows differently from the previous GaBi databases published in 2006. Whereby water inputs and outputs are aggregated, as well as inclusion of some nomenclature changes. This has had the effect to dramatically increase water consumption per kWh generated by the wind plant. In the current LCAs, adjustments have been made to remove both lake water and river water from the 'non-impact' indicator for water-use (refer to Section 5.3), as well as being removed from the complete power plant inventory, shown in Annex G. These adjustments aim to give consistency with previous LCAs using the 2006 GaBi databases, which reflect similar results as previous LCA studies.

Results improvements:

- *Recycling credits*: an estimate of using a *recycled-content approach* to recycling credits is shown in a sensitivity analysis, which provides additional information to support both possible modeling approaches for environmental crediting for recycling metals. This has been modelled in the LCA by removing all end-of-life credits and also removing extra burdens that were added to input scrap for metals on the production side. Refer to Section 7.2.8.

2. Goal of the study

The goal of this study is to evaluate the potential environmental impacts associated with production of electricity from a 90MW onshore wind plant comprised of thirty V90-3.0 MW wind turbines from a life cycle perspective. A 90MW plant represents a typical plant size for these turbines. This includes the production of raw materials, fabrication and assembly of the wind turbine by Vestas and its suppliers, site parts (e.g. transformers, grid connections, cabling, etc.), use-phase replacements, servicing and losses (e.g. transformer losses, etc.), end-of-life treatment and transport. The study assesses a 'typical' plant layout and does not make any comparative assessments with other wind turbines or electricity generation methods. As a consequence, the results of the study are not intended to be used in comparative assertions intended to be disclosed to the public.

The environmental impacts evaluated in this study include a range of commonly applied LCA impact categories, such as global warming potential and abiotic resource depletion, as well as other, non-impact indicators, such as recyclability and water-use. These are listed in Section 3.8 and further explained in Annex A.

The wind plant size, power output and other site parameters (e.g. distance to grid, etc.) are chosen to represent a 'typical' onshore wind plant consisting of V90-3.0MW turbines. As mentioned in Section 1.1.1, the calculation of use-phase power output of the turbine is based on wind classes, which allows for a more robust benchmarking of wind power plants.

The results of the study will be used by Vestas to:

- inform senior management involved in decision making processes;
- identify optimisation and improvement areas for technology and product development within Vestas;
- to support environmental reporting at a product-level;
- to develop a framework for product LCAs at Vestas to integrate environmental considerations in product design, target setting and decision making; and
- develop marketing materials to communicate environmental the environmental performance of their products to their customers and other stakeholders.

Hence, the main audience for the study results will be:

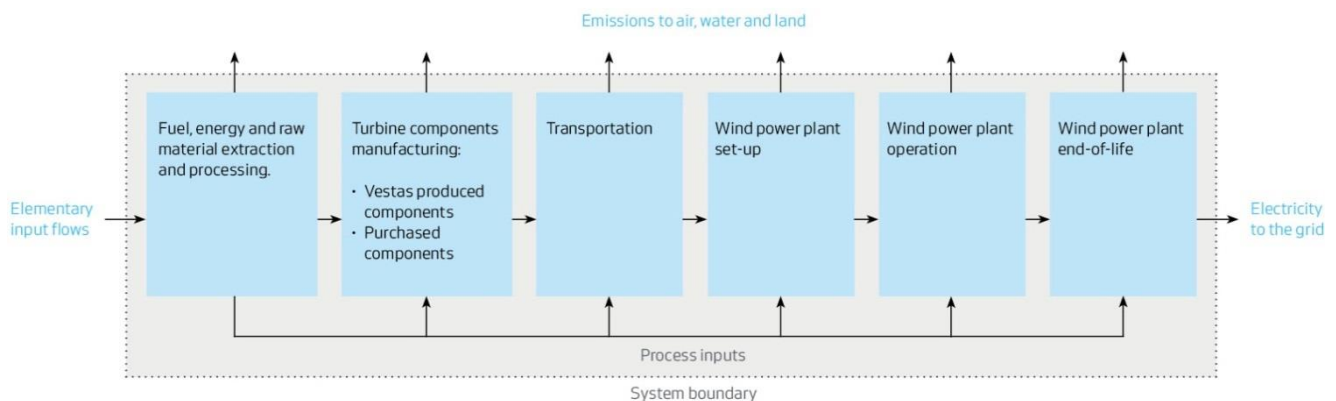
- customers of Vestas;
- internal Vestas Wind Systems A/S;
- investors of Vestas Wind Systems A/S; and
- other stakeholders and members of the general public with interests in renewable energy from wind and its associated potential environmental impacts.

3. Scope of the study

This study is a cradle-to-grave LCA, assessing the potential environmental impacts associated with electricity generated from a 90MW onshore wind power plant comprising of Vestas V90-3.0 MW wind turbines over the full life cycle.

This includes extraction of raw materials from the environment through to manufacturing of components, production of the assembled wind turbines, logistics, power plant maintenance, and end-of-life management to the point at which the power plant is disposed and returned to the environment (or is reused or recycled). Production and maintenance of capital goods (i.e. used for manufacture of turbine components) have been excluded from the scope of this study, unless specifically noted. However, power plant infrastructure itself is included in the study, i.e. those parts relating to cabling, roads, etc. needed to construct a complete wind power plant. Figure 2 shows the system boundary for the for the wind power plant system.

Figure 2: Scope of LCA for a 90MW onshore wind power plant of V90-3.0MW turbines



The following processes have been considered:

- **Production of all parts of the wind plant:** (a description of main components can be found in Annex B). This includes parts that are manufactured by Vestas' factories as well as supplier fabricated parts. Most of the information on parts and components (materials, weights, manufacturing operations, scrap rates) was obtained from bills of materials, design drawings and supplier data, covering over 99.5% of the turbine weight.
- **Manufacturing processes at Vestas' sites:** which includes both the Vestas global production factories (i.e. for casting, machining, tower production, generator production, nacelle assembly and blades production), as well as other Vestas activities (e.g. sales, servicing, etc.)
- **Transport:** of turbine components to wind plant site and other stages of the life cycle including, incoming raw materials to production and transport from the power plant site to end-of-life disposal;
- **Installation and erection:** of the turbines at the wind power plant site, including usage of cranes, onsite vehicles, diggers and generators;

- **Site servicing and operations (including transport):** serviced parts, such as oil and filters, and replaced components (due to wear and tear of moving parts within the lifetime of a wind turbine) are included;
- **Use-phase electricity production:** including wind turbine availability (the capability of the turbine to operate when wind is blowing), wake losses (arising from the decreased wind power generation capacity of wind a certain distance downwind of a turbine in its wake) and transmission losses; and
- **End-of-life treatment:** of the entire power plant including decommissioning activities.

3.1 Functional unit

The function of the wind power plant is the production of electricity including its delivery to the electricity grid.

It is important to consider the wind conditions onsite when assessing the potential environmental impacts from a wind plant. The Vestas V90-3.0MW wind turbine has been designed to operate under high wind conditions (IEC I) and for this study, average high wind conditions have been selected as the baseline scenario.

The potential effect of operating in medium wind conditions is addressed in the sensitivity analysis in Section 7 of this report. Refer to Section 3.4.2 for further details of turbine electricity generation.

The functional unit for this LCA study is defined as:

1 kWh of electricity delivered to the grid by a wind power plant.

The total electricity production of the 90MW wind power plant is 6514 GWh over a 20 year plant lifetime which results in a reference flow of 1.54×10^{-10} power plants per 1 kWh delivered.

The functional unit and reference flow have been derived on the design lifetime of the power plant (of 20 years), along with the total energy produced over the lifetime based on electricity production in high wind conditions. Refer to Section 3.4.2 and Annex E for further details.

It is also worth noting that the functional unit could have been derived on the 'total electricity production' basis (i.e. total electricity over the lifetime of the plant), but it has been chosen to define the functional unit in this study on a 'unit of electricity delivery' basis (i.e. per one kWh).

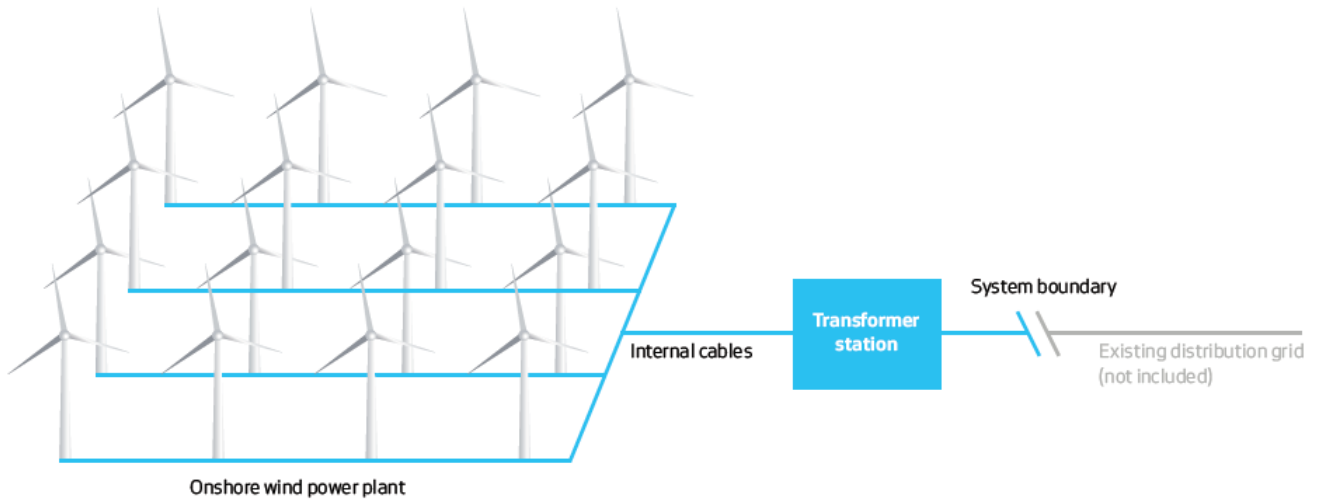
Please also note that the functional unit is for electricity delivered to the electricity grid, as with other Vestas LCAs, and not delivered to the consumer. If this study should be used for comparison with electricity delivered to the consumer, then grid distribution losses should be considered.

3.2 System description

The wind power plant itself includes the wind turbines, foundations, cabling (connecting the individual wind turbines to the transformer station) and the transformer station, up to the point of existing grid as shown in Figure 3.

The boundaries of the wind plant are taken to be the point at which the electrical power is delivered to the existing distribution grid.

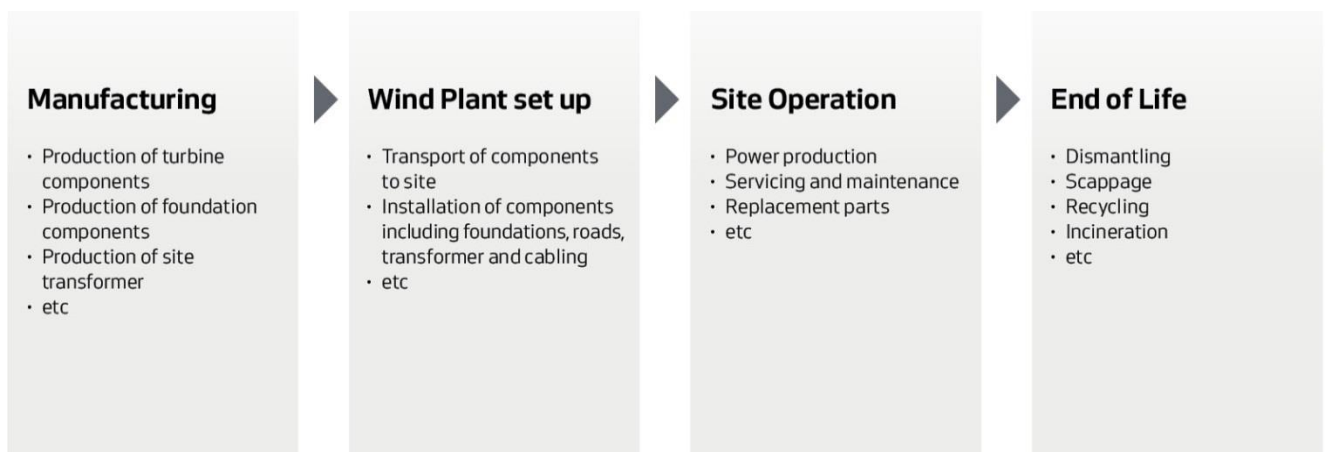
Figure 3: Scope of the power plant components



3.2.1 Life cycle stages

The entire life cycle of a wind plant can be separated into individual life cycle stages, as shown in Figure 4 used for this study.

Figure 4: Life cycle stages of a typical onshore wind plant including typical activities



The life cycle of the wind plant has been modelled using a modular approach corresponding to the life cycle stages shown in Figure 4. This allows the various life cycle stages of the wind plant to be analysed individually.

An overview of the modelling approach of each of the life cycle stages is presented in Section 3.7.

3.2.1.1 Manufacturing

This phase includes production of raw materials and the manufacturing of wind plant components such as the foundations, towers, nacelles, blades, cables and transformer station. Transport of raw materials (e.g. steel, copper, epoxy etc.) to the specific production sites is included within the scope of this study.

3.2.1.2 Wind plant set up

This phase includes transport of wind plant components to site and installation and erection of the wind power plant. Construction work on site, such as the provision of roads, working areas and turning areas, also falls under this phase. Processes associated with laying the foundations, erecting the turbines, laying internal cables, installing/erecting the transformer station and connecting to the existing grid are included in the scope of the study.

This study provides an update over previous LCAs for the power plant layout (i.e. of cable lengths and specification of the high voltage cables used for inter-connecting the turbines in the wind plant).

Transport to site for installation of the wind power plant includes transport by truck and by sea vessel. Vestas has established global production facilities that operate within their global region to service that particular region. As such, transport reflects a reasonable description of the current supply chain. The current LCA uses truck and sea vessel fuel consumption (and vehicle utilisation) with specific data for the transport of the various turbine components (such as, tower sections, blades and the nacelle).

As part of the scenario analysis, a worst-case approach has been assumed that the wind power plant is erected in a continent where Vestas does not have production facilities.

3.2.1.3 Site -operation

The site-operation phase deals with the general running of the wind turbine plant as it generates electricity. Activities here include change of oil and filters, and renovation/replacement of worn parts (e.g. the gearbox) over the life time of the wind plant. The transport associated with operation and maintenance, to and from the turbines, is included in this phase and has been updated to reflect typical vehicles and servicing.

3.2.1.4 End-of-life

At the end of its useful life the wind plant components are dismantled and the site is remediated to the agreed state (which is usually specified as a condition of obtaining planning permission and may vary from site to site). The end-of-life treatment of materials is also considered in this phase. Waste management options include: recycling; incineration with energy recovery; component reuse; and deposition to landfill. The LCA model for disposal of the turbine accounts for specific recycling rates of different components, depending on their material purity and ease of disassembly, based upon industry data. Section 3.4.3 provides further details of end-of-life treatment.

3.2.2 Technology coverage

This study assesses the production of the Vestas V90-3.0MW wind turbine, transportation of components to site, erection of wind turbines/wind plant set up, site operations/maintenance, as well as dismantling and scrapping of the wind plant components at end-of-life. These processes have been modelled based on state-of-the-art technologies used by Vestas.

3.2.3 Temporal coverage

The reference year for this study is 2011 which was chosen as it is the most representative and the most recent year for annual throughput of turbines. The V90-3.0MW turbine represents the most recent model of turbine. (Mark 9).

3.2.4 Geographical coverage

For the purpose of this study a typical “virtual” wind plant site has been assessed. The aim is to give an overall picture of wind power production rather than to assess any particular location. The actual electricity output is based on wind classes (described in Annex E). Nonetheless, specific sensitivity analyses have been conducted to assess the importance on the overall impacts for both:

- transport distances to the site; and
- distance to the grid for delivered electricity.

The geographical coverage of the “virtual” wind plant primarily relates to a European scenario, for example, relating to the following:

- the production of metals (iron, steel, copper and aluminium) uses European average datasets (such as those from worldsteel), of which the wind turbine is constituted around 84% metals;
- other material production datasets are European-focused, such as those used for polymer and composite production (e.g. Plastics Europe), as well as concrete; and
- end-of-life recycling also uses European datasets (such as those from worldsteel) for crediting.

For Vestas operations, the following is assumed:

- Vestas manufacturing of the turbine represents the weighted average of all Vestas global production facilities;
- turbine transport represents Vestas global footprint for transport – which is based on Vestas’ approach to “be in the region for the region”, offering a regional supply chain.

The above European data covers the majority of flows with environmental significance.

3.2.5 Data collection / completeness

Previous LCAs of Vestas turbines show that the most significant environmental impacts will typically arise during manufacturing of the turbines and final disposal of the turbines. Conversely, the operation of the turbine does not directly contribute in a significant way to overall environmental impacts, except that electricity production and turbine lifetime are significant factors for the impact per kWh of electricity produced (PE, 2011 and Vestas, 2006, 2011a, 2011b, 2011c). Therefore, data collection has focused on procuring as precise data as possible for the production and disposal stages of the life cycle. Additionally, other areas have been updated for this LCA relate to the wind plant layout, the composition of electronics and controls used in the turbine, and the recycling efficiencies at end-of-life.

Primary data have been collected from Vestas and from their suppliers. These primary data have been sourced through close co-operation with relevant functions at Vestas within their production processes, taken from item lists, via technical drawings, from the 3D CAD system used for component design, and from supplier declarations in the form of technical specification documents.

Instances where primary data have been used in this study include:

- materials composition of Vestas produced wind plant components;
- manufacturing process for Vestas produced wind plant components (e.g. casting and machining);
- utilities and materials consumption for Vestas production sites;
- materials composition of larger purchased components of the wind plant, such as, the gearbox and transformer, etc. (directly from suppliers);
- transport of Vestas components to erection site (fuel and vehicle utilisation data from suppliers);
- utilities and materials consumption for wind plant site preparation, operation and maintenance;
- electricity production of the wind plant based on measured data for turbine performance and using the Vestas software that forecasts power output; and
- electrical losses in the entire power plant (for transformers, site cables and turbine electricity consumption, etc) from Vestas; and
- recycling rates of specific components used in the turbine.

Where primary data have not been readily available from Vestas or component suppliers, secondary data have been used to fill these gaps. Secondary data have also been used to account for background processes that are upstream in the supply chain.

Instances where secondary data have been used in this study include:

- country-specific electricity grid mix information;
- production of primary materials (e.g. steel, iron, aluminium, fibre glass, plastic granulates);
- transport processes for raw material inputs;
- material composition of smaller standard purchased items (e.g. seals, washers, hex-nuts, screws and bolts);
- manufacturing processes for smaller standard purchased items (e.g. plastics injection moulding, thread turning and stamping); and
- end-of-life processes, for example, the landfill, incineration and recycling of steel.

Most secondary datasets are supplied by PE (2011b) and also include secondary sources from industry association, such as:

- worldsteel;
- Eurofer;
- European aluminium association; and
- Plastics Europe.

Details of data source and discussion of data quality is shown in Annex D.

3.3 Cut-off criteria

The following cut-off criteria were used to ensure that all relevant potential environmental impacts were appropriately represented:

- **Mass** – if a flow is less than 1% of the mass at either a product-level or individual-process level, then it may be excluded, provided its environmental relevance is not of concern.
- **Energy** – if a flow is less than 1% of the energy at either a product-level or individual-process level, then it may be excluded, provided its environmental relevance is not a concern.
- **Environmental relevance** – if a flow meets the above criteria for exclusion, but is considered to potentially have a significant environmental impact, it has been included. All material flows which leave the system (emissions) and whose environmental impact is higher than 1% of the whole impact of an impact category that has been considered in the assessment, shall be included.
- The **sum** of the neglected material flows shall not exceed 5% of total mass, energy or environmental relevance, at a product-level or individual-process level.

In actuality, over 99.5% of the total mass of materials in the V90-3.0MW turbine (i.e. covering all parts of the turbine-only, excluding foundation, site cables and site parts) has been accounted for, covering around 25, 000 components that make-up the entire turbine. Additionally, all site parts, foundations and cables are also included in their entirety for the complete wind power plant. As such, the LCA includes all materials and all components of environmental significance, with around 99.9% of the entire power plant accounted for by mass.

3.4 Assumptions

This section outlines the primary assumptions used in the LCA which affect the environmental performance of the wind power plant.

3.4.1 Lifetime of turbine and site parts

The lifetime of the wind plant is assumed to be 20 years. This corresponds to the design lifetime of the V90-3.0MW turbine and applies to all components of the wind plant, except for certain replacement parts. However, as the wind turbine industry is still relatively young (starting up in 1979) the actual lifetime of a particular wind plant is uncertain and some variance around this assumed 20 year figure is expected. For instance, Vestas has direct knowledge of a number of its turbines exceeding the design life time of 20 years. Additionally, other site components such as the site cabling and foundations may have a significantly longer useful lifetime (around 50 years). The effects of varying the lifetime of a wind plant on potential environmental impacts are discussed in Section 6.

3.4.2 Electricity production

A typical site for a V90-3.0MW turbine with an average high wind of 9.25 m/s with an 80m hub height is assessed for the LCA, which represents, for example, a realistic site placement in the UK or Germany. Table 1 shows the electricity production from the power plant.

Based on typical high wind speed curves, the electricity production from a 90MW onshore wind power plant of V90-3.0MW turbines is 6514 GWh over 20 years (equivalent to 10857 MWh per turbine per year). This is based on an availability of 97%.

Table 1 shows the electricity production, as delivered to the grid, for the various turbines.

Table 1: Electricity Production

Turbine	Wind class	Wind speed	Location	Grid distance	Per turbine per year (AEP)	Per 90MW plant per 20 years
		ms ⁻¹		km	MWh	GWh
V90-3.0MW (mk9)	Medium	8.0	Onshore	20	8717	5230
V90-3.0MW (mk9)	High	9.25	Onshore	20	10857	6514

Source: Vestas internal data for the electricity production of the wind turbine. This is based upon actual turbine test data for a typical power production curve and using analysis software (based on T-CAT) of the specific turbine performance. The annual energy production is reported in increments of 0.25 ms⁻¹ within the different wind classes and total electricity production is determined over the range of 0 ms⁻¹ to 25 ms⁻¹ of the entire power curve for the specific turbine.

All electrical losses are included up to the grid, including within the turbine, transformer station and site cables. These are calculated to be 1.7% based on Vestas plant layout for medium voltage (MV) of 36kV cables connecting between the turbines and a 20km distance to grid with a voltage of 110kV. The wake losses (which result from turbine losses downstream of each other) are also included within the above electricity production figures which represents an average 6% loss for this turbine and power plant size.

As the amount of electricity produced over the lifetime of the wind power plant is a decisive factor in the environmental profile of 1 kWh produced, a sensitivity analysis has been applied, considering alternative wind speeds, as shown in Section 7.

3.4.3 Materials Input

At the time that this study was carried out, it was not possible to obtain reliable data on the degree of recycled content of materials used in the product system. As such, it has been assumed that all materials entering the production system are sourced from primary material; however, for iron, steel, aluminium and copper, the secondary (or scrap metal) inputs to primary production have been adjusted to assign a burden to all secondary metal inputs (using primary production or worldsteel 'scrap value' for these burdens). This provides a fair and representative approach to assess the impacts of metal production and recycling. See Section 3.4.4 for further details of recycling approaches adopted in the LCA.

The V90-3MW turbine does not use rare earth elements (i.e. neodymium and dysprosium) in the turbine generator, but uses a Double Fed Induction Generator (DFIG) that is primarily constructed of iron/steel and copper. There is some use of rare earth elements within the turbine tower for attaching internal fixtures. The production of these materials is based on specific production datasets for their sourcing from Europe and Asia.

3.4.4 End-of-life treatment

End-of-life treatment of the turbine is extensive and detailed. It is assumed that the entire turbine is "collected" at the end-of-life. However, the entire turbine is not recycled homogeneously; as further explained below.

All large metal components that are primarily mono-material (e.g. tower sections, cast iron frame in nacelle, etc.) are assumed to be 98% recycled. Other major components, such as generator, gearbox, cables and yaw system parts are 95% recycled and all other parts of the turbine are treated as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: End-of-life treatment of turbine components not already mentioned in the text

Material	Treatment
Steel	92% recycled + 8% landfilled
Aluminium	92% recycled + 8% landfilled
Copper	92% recycled + 8% landfilled
Polymers	50% incinerated + 50% landfilled
Lubricants	100% incinerated
All other materials (including concrete)	100% landfilled

This information for recycling rates of turbine components comes from the full recycling of a nacelle of a Vestas turbine (Vestas and Averhoff, 2012), along with expert judgement and data obtained from previous LCA studies performed by Vestas. This represents an update from previous LCA studies. Material losses from the recycling process itself are calculated on top of these recycling rates.

At end-of-life, full credits are given for the material recovered (i.e. relating only to metal parts made of steel, iron, copper and aluminium), which is based upon an 'avoided impacts approach' to providing credits for recycling. This 'avoided impacts approach' (also called closed-loop approach) is supported by the metals industry (Atherton, 2007), and is consistent with ISO 14044 and for purposes of environmental modelling, decision-making, and policy discussions involving recycling of metals.

Additionally, the use of an avoided impacts approach provides a business measure to drive-up the total recyclability of the wind turbine, which can be accurately measured using the LCA models; allowing Vestas to promote business activities in this area, for example by focusing on recycling/reuse of non-metallic parts, such as composite blade materials, controllers and polymers.

However, it is also recognised that, from a scientific perspective, that a recycled-content approach for crediting may also be applied to wind turbines (Garrett, 2012). As such, Section 7.2 presents the LCA results if a 'recycled content' approach for crediting were applied. This is based upon the standard industry datasets (such as worldsteel) which contain average recycled content for material metal materials and therefore represent an estimate for the actual situation for a Vestas turbine, as the exact recycled content of all the turbine parts is not known.

Vestas has calculated the average recyclability across the components of a V90-3.0MW wind turbine to be approximately 82%. Details of recyclability can be found in Section 5.3.4.

The datasets for landfill disposal relate to the material type being disposed to sanitary landfill, for example, for generic polymers or steel and aluminium material for metals. The datasets used for incineration of generic lubricants also includes a credit for thermal energy recovery, while incineration of plastics relates to a glass-filled nylon polymer type, also with credits for energy recovery.

3.4.5 Sulphur hexafluoride (SF₆) gas

Sulphur hexafluoride is a very potent greenhouse gas which is used in switchgears for medium- and high-voltage applications. The gas acts as an electrical insulator for the operation of the switchgear.

Each turbine contains a switchgear, along with their use onsite for connecting turbines and connection to the transformer substation.

For the switchgear application this usually only becomes an issue if the gas is released into the environment during a blow-out. Occurrences of blowouts are extremely rare and have not been modelled in this study. During normal operation the turbine switchgear may potentially release up to 0.1% w/w of the sulphur hexafluoride per year, accounting for a potential 2% w/w total release over 20 years of operation. The potential effect of a blow-out is assessed in the sensitivity analysis, as shown in Section 6.7.

At end-of-life the switchgears are collected and the sulphur hexafluoride gas is reclaimed for reuse in new equipment. Vestas has established procedures and is working in partnership with customers and suppliers to assure the safe disposal of switchgears used in Vestas power plants. Based on supplier data it is estimated that a maximum of 1% w/w of the SF₆ gas may be released to atmosphere during the reclamation and recycling process at end-of-life. Vestas estimates that 95% of all switchgears will be returned for reclamation at end-of-life. The remaining 5% are assumed to have all the sulphur hexafluoride gas released to atmosphere at end-of-life.

3.4.7 Foundations

There are two basic kinds of foundations for onshore wind turbine towers depending on the ground water level, as follows:

- high groundwater level: indicates a (maximum) groundwater level equal to the level of the terrain, which requires more concrete and steel reinforcement; and
- low groundwater level: low ground water scenario (requiring less concrete and steel reinforcement).

The low groundwater level case has been chosen as the base case as it is more representative of the majority of wind power plant sites. The size of the foundation will also vary depending on the turbine tower height and the wind class for the V90-3.0MW turbine, which affects the mechanical loads on the foundation. These variations are also accounted for in the study.

3.4.8 Electrical/electronic components in turbine

Due to the complexities of the electrical/electronic sub-systems in the wind turbine it was not possible to obtain specific data on the exact components used on the printed circuit boards (PCBs) in the turbine controllers. The control units used on the turbine have been modelled on their overall breakdown (such as steel casings, fixings and mechanical parts), while the impacts associated with the electronics (PCBs) themselves use proxy datasets for generic signal electronics and signal & power electronic systems. This over-estimates potential impacts, as the use of these datasets is considered conservative.

The potential impacts associated with electronics are overestimated due to the production dataset used, which represents a typical printed circuit board for information and communications technology (ITC) equipment, which is considered to contain more densely spaced components per unit area, compared to wind-turbine controls, resulting in a per-kilogram higher overall impacts.

However, this study provides an update over previous LCA studies, whereby the specific total weight of electronic parts and printed circuit boards has been mapped much more accurately. All controllers on the turbine were mapped specifically for component types, such as, steel casing, polymer fittings,

PCBs and major electrical components. Specific material types and product processes were then mapped to each part, along with use of generic datasets as a proxy for PCBs mass which used inventories for signal electronics and signal & power. This has the effect of reducing the total assumed weight of electronic components over previous LCA studies (Vestas 2011a, 2011b, 2011c). Also, the GaBi 2011 databases reflect an update to the electronics production LCI which increases impacts per kg by about 50 to 100% across all impacts categories.

3.4.9 Transport

Transport steps that have been included in this study are described below:

- **Transport associated with incoming raw materials** to Vestas' suppliers is assumed to be 600km by truck, except for foundation concrete materials where 50km is assumed. This covers the transport from raw material manufacturers to Vestas suppliers.
- **Transport associated with incoming large components to Vestas production sites** is assumed to be 600km by truck. This accounts for 90% of turbine mass (excluding foundation) and covers the transport of the components from the supplier to Vestas' factories.
- **Transport associated with moving wind plant components** from Vestas' factories to the site are given in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Transport of wind plant components from Vestas to the wind plant site

Component	Truck (km)	Ship (km)
Nacelle	1025	0
Hub	1025	0
Blades	600	0
Tower	1100	8050
Foundation	50	0
Other site parts	600	0

Note: transport distances assume a German plant location and the supply chain distances are based on average sales for 2010. Foundations and other sites parts are estimated distances by Vestas.

- **Transport associated with end-of-life recycling or disposal** assumed to be 200km to a regional recycling or disposal operator, except for foundation concrete materials where 50km is assumed.
- **Transportation of maintenance crew** to and from the site during servicing operations is updated based on servicing data and is estimated to be 2160km per plant per year.

The current LCA also uses truck and sea vessel fuel consumption (and vehicle utilisation) with specific data for the transport of the various turbine components (such as, tower sections, blades and

the nacelle). These are based on measured data and specific distances with actual wind turbine transports. A scenario analysis on the transport of components to the wind plant has been carried out to determine the significance of these activities in the context of the full life cycle. A worst-case approach has been assumed that the wind power plant is erected in a continent where Vestas does not have full production facilities.

3.5 Allocation

Wind turbines have electricity as the single appreciable product output. However, since Vestas produces several models of turbines and production data were collected at a factory level for all global production facilities, allocation was required to assign the correct production burdens (from the different manufacturing locations) to the wind turbine. This is discussed in detail in Annex C.

3.6 Inventory analysis

This LCA study follows an attributional approach, which focuses on quantifying the relevant environmental flows related to the wind power plant itself and describes the potential impacts of the power plant³.

The life cycle inventories generated for each product are compiled from the inputs and outputs of the component processes. All environmentally relevant flows of energy and materials crossing the system boundaries have been accounted for (e.g. energy, material resources, wastes and emissions). These flows are recorded for each unit process and summarised across the entire wind power plant system.

The GaBi LCA software and databases together with GaBi DfX have been used to model the scenarios and to generate the life cycle inventories and impact assessments on which the study conclusions are based. The DfX software extension allows import of a complete product bill-of-materials (BOM) into a LCA model, which represents a state-of-the-art tool for carrying out LCAs (GaBi, 2011).

3.7 Modelling the life cycle phases

Modelling of the life cycle begins with a bill-of-materials (containing a part-tree of the entire turbine). Each part is associated with a material, manufacturing process and country of origin. This can be extremely extensive, where a selected BOM (i.e. excluding all turbine options) for the V90-3.0MW turbine accounts for around 25,000 parts. Modelling this many components “conventionally” in LCA is not practicable. However, using GaBi DfX allows this BOM to be imported into the LCA software where materials and manufacturing processes are mapped to individual components in the complete BOM.

³ Note: in contrast, a ‘consequential approach’ to conducting a LCA could also be adopted; however, this approach, does not aim to describe the impacts of the actual wind power plant itself, but rather it aims to describe the ‘response to decisions’ that might arise from installing the wind power plant. For example, how will electricity consumers react to purchasing the quantity of available of wind energy, etc. The ‘consequential approach’ is not suitable for the goal of this study.

Vestas' manufacturing process models are created with only the energy and consumables linked to these life cycle inventories (as turbine parts are already included in the BOM). Site operations are modelled similarly.

The LCA software generates a "product model" that includes all the material and energy resources involved in the production of the turbine, including material losses from the production processes and possible internal recycling loops.

GaBi DfX provides the opportunity to disassemble the entire turbine (or parts of it) into its source components. This allows for an extremely detailed end-of-life model to be created that is part-specific. This feature is used for the end-of-life treatment of the turbine where certain parts that can be more easily dismantled and recycled will receive higher efficiencies than the rest of the turbine.

3.8 Impact assessment categories and relevant metrics

The selection of the impact categories assessed in this study is representative of those impacts that are likely to arise from a wind plant system, based on the CML (2009) baseline characterisation factors for mid-point potential impacts. For example, the selected impact categories cover those associated with metal production, fabrication and recycling (of which the turbine itself is constituted of around 84% metals), as well as other materials contained with the turbine and power plant, such as concrete, polymers and composite materials. Ozone depletion potential (ODP) has been omitted from the selected impact categories as this is not considered to be a significant issue since the introduction of the Montreal Protocol in 1987 which has drastically reduced both the consumption and emission of ozone depleting substances (UNEP, 2007).

The following environmental impact categories and non-impact indicators are evaluated in the LCA:

Environmental impact categories:

- Abiotic resource depletion (ADP elements)
- Abiotic resource depletion (ADP fossils)
- Acidification potential (AP)
- Eutrophication potential (EP)
- Freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity potential (FAETP)
- Global warming potential (GWP)
- Human toxicity potential (HTP)
- Marine aquatic ecotoxicity potential (MAETP)
- Photochemical oxidant creation potential (POCP)
- Terrestrial ecotoxicity potential (TETP)

Non-impact indicators:

- Primary energy from renewable raw materials (net calorific value)
- Primary energy from resources (net calorific value)
- Water use
- Turbine recyclability

The impact modelling method used is that developed and advocated by the Centre for Environmental Science, Leiden University (CML, 2009) and which is incorporated into the GaBi LCA software tool.

In relation to the indicator for water-use, adjustments have been made to the PE 2011 datasets in order to give a consistent approach used with previous LCAs (PE 2011, Vestas 2011a, 2011b, 2011c), where in the 2006 datasets river water and lake water were treated differently.

The chosen CML-method has been used in the current and previous LCAs by Vestas to give robust results for mid-point potential impacts. However, it is also recognised that other impact assessment methods may be beneficial as they develop or become appropriate. For example, the Product Environmental Footprint (EC 2012) from the European Commission focuses on a range of life cycle impact categories and is a development of a harmonised methodology for the calculation of the environmental footprint of products.

The CML impact categories focus on the so-called “midpoints” of the cause-effect chain. This means that they aggregate data on emissions (the starting points in the cause-effect chain) and characterise their potential impacts in various categories (e.g. global warming, acidification, etc.), but do not go as far as to assess the endpoints, such as loss of biodiversity, damage to human health, etc. caused by these impacts. As such, the impact assessment results generated are relative expressions and do not predict impacts on category end-points, the exceeding of thresholds, safety margins or risks.

These impact categories occur on different geographical scales, ranging from global impacts (such as GWP) to regional impacts (such as acidification potential) and local impacts (such as, aquatic toxicity or human toxicity potential), and the relevance of the point of emission becomes more important the more localised the impact that is being considered. For example, one kilogram of carbon dioxide emitted anywhere in Denmark will give the same contribution to global warming as one kilogram of carbon dioxide emitted anywhere else in the world; whereas for more regionally confined impact categories, only emissions that occur in that location will have a measurable impact. As such, results generated using these impact categories should be considered to be worst-case potential impacts rather than actual impacts on the environment. Further details on the impact indicators can be found in Annex A.

For the ‘non-impact’ indicators assessed in the LCA some additional comments should also be noted in relation to water use and water footprinting. Currently, a proposed new standard is under development to provide the framework for internationally harmonised metrics for water footprints (Raimbault, 2011), which will be the *ISO 14046, Water footprint – Requirements and guidelines*. This will complement existing standards for life cycle assessment (i.e. ISO 14040/44), as well as others for product carbon footprints and greenhouse gas (GHG) accounting and verification.

At present, a LCA study only accounts for freshwater use - meaning that only the net total input of freshwater used for production and disposal processes is accounted for, as is the case with the current LCA. However, for this to be treated more thoroughly further consideration should be made regarding types of water used, inclusion of local water scarcity, as well as differentiation between watercourses and quality aspects (Berger, 2010), which will aid more accurate decision making.

Also, in general, a life cycle assessment does not address some other environmental concerns, such as the potential impacts of land use, noise and local impacts on flora and fauna. In general, a LCA should not stand alone in the assessment of technologies; but other environmental management techniques, such as risk assessment and Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA), are valuable tools that address these environmental concerns. These types of assessments are normally conducted as part of the local permitting and planning process for installation of the wind power plant. Additionally, it is noted that guidance already exists for preparing an Environmental Product Declaration (EPD)

based on ISO 14025 (2006b) for electrical energy via the Product Category Rules (Envirodec, 2007, 2011) for electricity generation and distribution. In general, those rules align with the current LCA in terms of functional unit, system boundaries and general data quality requirements. Although the current LCA has not adopted the EPD approach, but is in compliance with ISO 14040/44 (2006). Some differences in approach arise where end-of-life and recycling credits are excluded from the EPD boundary (but a recycled-content approach is adopted in the EPD), as well as the reporting of results, for example, where the EPD includes reporting of potential impacts both to the point of existing grid (as this LCA does), as well as to the point of the consumer (i.e. defined by voltage delivered). Some additional indicators are also reported within the EPD, such as waste generation, noise, land-use, impacts on biodiversity, as well as environmental risk assessment, which are not included in the LCA.

No normalisation, grouping, ranking or weighting have been applied to the results.

3.9 Interpretation

The interpretation stage of the LCA has been carried out in accordance with the main steps defined in ISO (2006a) for life cycle assessment, which includes an assessment of the significant environmental flows and environmental impacts based upon the results of the life cycle inventory (LCI) and life cycle impact assessment (LCIA). The most significant turbine components, life cycle stages and inventory flows (substance extraction and emissions to/from the environment) are identified and assessed.

An evaluation of both the completeness and consistency of datasets and assumptions has been qualitatively evaluated in the LCA. The LCI datasets have been qualitatively assessed based on the requirements shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Data quality requirements for inventory data

Parameter	Description	Requirement
Time-related coverage	Desired age of data and the minimum length of time over which data should be collected.	Data should represent the situation in 2011 and cover a period representing a complete calendar year.
Geographical coverage	Area from which data for unit processes should be collected.	Data should be representative of the Vestas global supply chain.
Technology coverage	Technology mix.	Technology (for manufacture, product usage and end-of-life management) should be representative of global supply conditions and technology.
Precision	Measure of the variability of the data values for each data category expressed.	No requirement specified.
Completeness	Assessment of whether all relevant input and output data are included for a certain data set.	Specific datasets will be compared with literature data and databases, where applicable.

Representativeness	Degree to which the data represents the identified time-related, geographical and technological scope.	The data should fulfil the defined time-related, geographical and technological scope.
Consistency	How consistent the study methodology has been applied to different components of the analysis.	The study methodology will be applied to all the components of the analysis.
Reproducibility	Assessment of the methodology and data, and whether an independent practitioner will be able to reproduce the results.	The information about the methodology and the data values should allow an independent practitioner to reproduce the results reported in the study.
Sources of the data	Assessment of data sources used.	Data will be derived from credible sources and databases.

Sensitivity analyses have also been conducted to better understand the scale and importance of uncertainties in data and of the modelling assumptions for the wind power plant system. The following sensitivity analyses have been carried out for this study:

- variation in wind power plant lifetime: ± 4 years;
- variation in frequency of parts replacement;
- operating the 90MW wind plant under medium wind conditions;
- varying the transport distances for components to wind plant erection site;
- varying the distance of the wind plant to the existing grid taking into account corresponding cable losses;
- changing the type of foundation used from low ground water level type to high ground water level type;
- incidence of a potential turbine switchgear blow-out; and
- potential effects of method used for crediting recycling of metals.

Additionally, the major conclusions and recommendations for improvement have been identified (refer to Section 9). The study limitations are highlighted throughout the report, where relevant.

As part of the interpretation of the study, reference has also been made to recent LCA guidance and documents, including:

- ILCDC handbook: General guide for life cycle assessment (EC, 2010); and
- UNEP Global Guidance Principles for Life Cycle Assessment Databases (UNEP, 2011).

3.10 Report type and format

This report will be made available electronically via the Vestas website.

3.11 Critical review

The outcomes of this LCA study are intended to support external communication. In order to assure the rigour of the study and robustness of the results, an independent critical review of the study has been conducted.

The goal and scope of the critical review is defined in accordance with ISO 14044, paragraph 6.1. Following ISO 14044, the critical review process shall ensure that (ISO, 2006b):

- the methods used to carry out the LCA are consistent with this International Standard;
- the methods used to carry out the LCA are scientifically and technically valid;
- the data used are appropriate and reasonable in relation to the goal of the study;
- the interpretations reflect the limitations identified and the goal of the study; and
- the study report is transparent and consistent.

Prof. Dr. Matthias Finkbeiner has been nominated by Vestas based on his expertise in the field of sustainability and his experience of reviewing technical LCA studies. The review is performed as a critical review by an external expert according to paragraph 6.2 of ISO 14044 (2006a), as the study is not intended for comparative assertions intended to be disclosed to the public.

4 Material breakdown of V90-3.0MW wind power plant

Table 5 and Table 6 present the material breakdown for the complete onshore 90MW wind power plant of V90-3.0MW turbines. The entire power plant is included in the inventory, with the exception of replacement parts. Figure 5 shows the percentage breakdown of wind turbine-only and Figure 6 shows the material breakdown for the entire wind power plant by mass. The data shown is updated in LCA report version 1.1, which corrects figures for aluminium, steel and composites and represents the ‘as-built’ mass of the wind turbine/plant.

The complete life cycle inventory results for the power plant is shown in Annex G, divided into substance flows and reported per main life cycle stage.

Figure 5: Material breakdown of V90-3.0MW turbine-only (% mass)

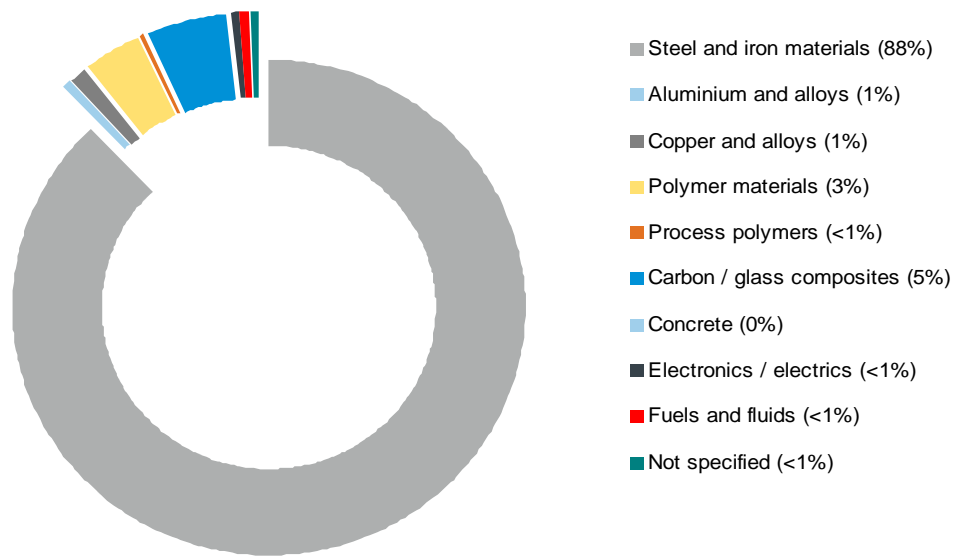


Figure 6: Material breakdown of 90MW power plant of V90-3.0MW turbines (% mass)

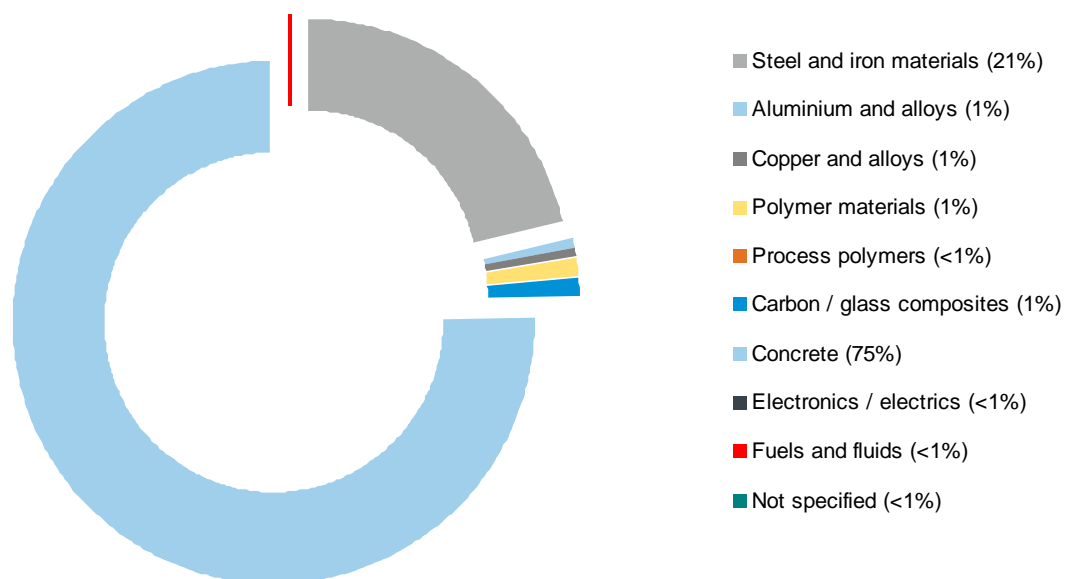


Table 5: Material breakdown of 90MW power plant of V90-3.0MW turbines (units shown in tonne or kg per total wind plant)

Material classification	Unit	Turbines	Foundations	Site cables	Site switchgears	Site transformer
Steel and iron materials (total)	tonne	6749	1640	0	10	20
Unalloyed, low alloyed	tonne	4853	157	0	0	20
Highly alloyed	tonne	918	130	0	10	0
Cast iron	tonne	979	0	0	0	0
Steel and iron materials (unspecified)	tonne	0	1352	0	0	0
Lights alloys, cast and wrought alloys (total)	tonne	52	0	211	0	28
Aluminium and aluminium alloys	tonne	52	0	211	0	28
Nonferrous heavy metals, cast and wrought alloys (total)	tonne	86	1	102	4	10
Copper	tonne	79	1	102	4	10
Copper alloys	tonne	0	0	0	0	0
Zinc alloys	tonne	7	0	0	0	0
Polymer materials (total)	tonne	260	5	162	1	0
Thermoplastics	tonne	63	5	131	0	0
Thermoplastic elastomers	tonne	3	0	0	0	0
Elastomers / elastomeric compounds	tonne	6	0	0	0	0

Duromers	tonne	82	0	31	0	0
Polymeric compounds	tonne	106	0	0	1	0
Process polymers (total)	tonne	37	0	0	0	0
Lacquers	tonne	37	0	0	0	0
Adhesives, sealants	tonne	0	0	0	0	0
Other materials and material compounds (total)	tonne	371	29600	1	0	2
Modified organic natural materials	tonne	33	0	0	0	1
Ceramic / glass	tonne	338	0	1	0	1
Other materials and material compounds	tonne	0	0	0	0	0
Concrete	tonne	0	29600	0	0	0
SF ₆ Gas	kg	220	0	0	81	0
Electronics / electrics (total)	tonne	58	0	0	0	0
Electronics	tonne	3	0	0	0	0
Electrics	tonne	48	0	0	0	0
Magnets	tonne	7	0	0	0	0
Fuels and auxiliary means (total)	tonne	36	0	0	0	19

Lubricants	tonne	23	0	0	0	19
Coolant / other glycols	tonne	13	0	0	0	0
Other fuels and auxiliary means	tonne	0	0	0	0	0
Not specified	tonne	40	0	0	0	0
Total mass	tonne	7689	31235	476	14	79
Total number of pieces	tonne	30	30	1	11	1
Mass of piece	tonne	256	1041	476	1	79

Note: Masses shown exclude replacement parts and process wastes included in the product bill-of-materials. The figures represent the 'as-built' mass of the wind plant.

Table 6: Material breakdown of 90MW power plant of V90-3.0MW turbines (units shown in g or mg per MWh)

Material classification	Unit	Turbines	Foundations	Site cables	Site switchgears	Site transformer
Steel and iron materials (total)	g per MWh	1036	252	0	2	3
Unalloyed, low alloyed	g per MWh	745	24	0	0	3
Highly alloyed	g per MWh	141	20	0	1	0
Cast iron	g per MWh	150	0	0	0	0
Steel and iron materials (unspecified)	g per MWh	0	208	0	0	0
Lights alloys, cast and wrought alloys (total)	g per MWh	8	0	32	0	4

Aluminium and aluminium alloys	g per MWh	8	0	32	0	4
Nonferrous heavy metals, cast and wrought alloys (total)	g per MWh	15	0	16	1	1
Copper	g per MWh	13	0	16	1	1
Copper alloys	g per MWh	0	0	0	0	0
Zinc alloys	g per MWh	2	0	0	0	0
Polymer materials (total)	g per MWh	40	1	25	0	0
Thermoplastics	g per MWh	10	1	20	0	0
Thermoplastic elastomers	g per MWh	0	0	0	0	0
Elastomers / elastomeric compounds	g per MWh	1	0	0	0	0
Duromers	g per MWh	13	0	5	0	0
Polymeric compounds	g per MWh	16	0	0	0	0
Process polymers (total)	g per MWh	6	0	0	0	0
Lacquers	g per MWh	6	0	0	0	0
Adhesives, sealants	g per MWh	0	0	0	0	0
Other materials and material compounds (total)	g per MWh	57	4542	0	0	0
Modified organic natural materials	g per MWh	5	0	0	0	0

Ceramic / glass	g per MWh	52	0	0	0	0
Other materials and material compounds	g per MWh	0	0	0	0	0
Concrete	g per MWh	0	4542	0	0	0
SF ₆ Gas	mg per MWh	34	0	0	12	0
Electronics / electrics (total)	g per MWh	9	0	0	0	0
Electronics	g per MWh	0	0	0	0	0
Electrics	g per MWh	7	0	0	0	0
Magnets	g per MWh	1	0	0	0	0
Fuels and auxiliary means (total)	g per MWh	6	0	0	0	3
Lubricants	g per MWh	4	0	0	0	3
Coolant / other glycols	g per MWh	2	0	0	0	0
Other fuels and auxiliary means	g per MWh	0	0	0	0	0
Not specified	g per MWh	6	0	0	0	0
Total mass	g per MWh	1180	4795	73	2	12

Note: Masses shown exclude replacement parts and process wastes included in the product bill-of-materials. The figures represent the 'as-built' mass of the wind plant.

5 Impact assessment

5.1 Summary of results

Table 7 presents the total potential environmental impacts associated with an onshore 90MW wind power plant of V90-3.0MW turbines, covering the entire power plant over the life cycle. An additional breakdown of the results is shown in Section 5.2, which provides an assessment of each impact category by life cycle stage. Annex A contains a description of the impact categories assessed in the study.

Table 7: Whole-life environmental impacts of V90-3.0MW (units shown in g, mg or MJ per kWh)

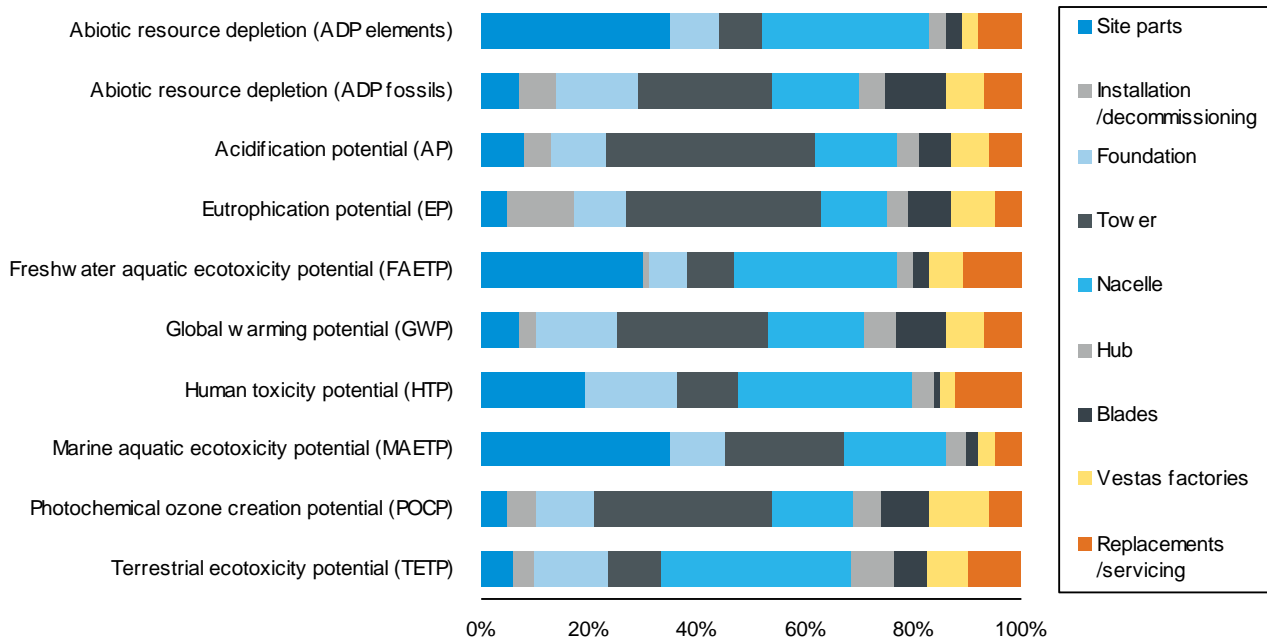
Environmental impact categories:	Unit	Quantity
Abiotic resource depletion (ADP elements)	mg Sb-e	0.31
Abiotic resource depletion (ADP fossils)	MJ	0.08
Acidification potential (AP)	mg SO ₂ -e	29
Eutrophication potential (EP)	mg PO ₄ -e	3.1
Freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity potential (FAETP)	mg DCB-e	43
Global warming potential (GWP)	g CO ₂ -e	6.2
Human toxicity potential (HTP)	mg DCB-e	1840
Marine aquatic ecotoxicity potential (MAETP)	g DCB-e	584
Photochemical oxidant creation potential (POCP)	mg Ethene	3.3
Terrestrial ecotoxicity potential (TETP)	mg DCB-e	50
Non-impact indicators:		
* Primary energy from renewable raw materials	MJ	0.012
* Primary energy from resources	MJ	0.08
Water use	g	46
Turbine recyclability	% (w/w)	82%

* Net calorific value

Figure 7 presents the potential environmental impacts for raw material and component production stages of the life cycle, including servicing, maintenance during operation (i.e. all life cycle stages

excluding end-of-life). The results show that the nacelle and tower contribute the most significant impacts across all categories. The next most significant components relate to the turbine foundations, site parts and blades. Vestas factories contribute between 3% and 11% across all impact categories. It should be noted that transport, where this occurs, is included for each part and has not been disaggregated.

Figure 7: Production and use-phase environmental impacts of V90-3.0MW



5.2 Analysis of results: impact categories

The results for each impact category are described in further detail in the following sections, identifying the potential impacts by life cycle stage of the wind power plant, and major contributing components and substances. Table 8 shows the results for each impact category, for the following main life cycle stages:

- *manufacture*: includes raw material extraction through to factory gate and transport to site;
- *plant set-up*: includes roads and onsite installation equipment (e.g. cranes, generators, etc);
- *operation*: includes power plant maintenance, servicing and transport; and
- *end-of-life*: includes decommissioning, recycling and waste disposal.

Annex A contains a description of the impact assessment methods and potential impact categories evaluated in this LCA.

Table 8: Whole-life environmental impacts of V90-3.0MW by life cycle stage (units shown in g, mg or MJ per kWh)

Impact category	Unit	Manufacture	Plant setup	Operation	End-of-life	Total
Abiotic resource depletion (ADP elements)	mg Sb-e	0.39	0.00	0.04	-0.11	0.31
Abiotic resource depletion (ADP fossils)	MJ	0.09	0.01	0.01	-0.02	0.08
Acidification potential (AP)	mg SO ₂ -e	33	1	2	-7	29
Eutrophication potential (EP)	mg PO ₄ -e	2.8	0.2	0.1	-0.1	3.1
Freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity potential (FAETP)	mg DCB-e	44	1	6	-7	43
Global warming potential (GWP)	g CO ₂ -e	7.6	0.2	0.4	-2.0	6.2
Human toxicity potential (HTP)	mg DCB-e	2160	8	297	-624	1840
Marine aquatic ecotoxicity potential (MAETP)	g DCB-e	2057	4	57	-1535	584
Photochemical oxidant creation potential (POCP)	mg Ethene	3.9	0.2	0.2	-1.0	3.3
Terrestrial ecotoxicity potential (TETP)	mg DCB-e	44	1	5	-1	50
Non-impact indicators:						
* Primary energy from renewable raw materials	MJ	0.012	0.000	0.001	-0.001	0.012
* Primary energy from resources	MJ	0.09	0.01	0.01	-0.02	0.08
Water use	g	49	2	2	-8	46

* Net calorific value

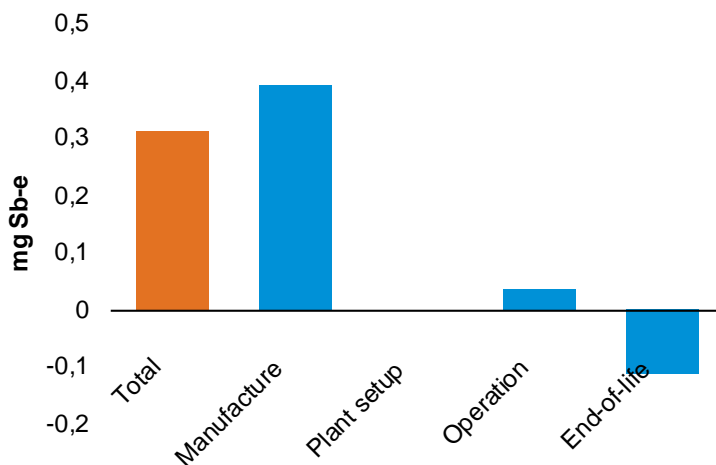
5.2.1 Abiotic resource depletion (elements)

Abiotic resource depletion (elements) provides an indication of the potential depletion (or scarcity) of non-energetic natural resources (or elements) in the earth's crust, such as iron ores, aluminium or precious metals, and it accounts for the ultimate geological reserves (not the economically feasible reserves) and the anticipated depletion rates. It is measured in mass of antimony equivalents.

Figure 8 shows the potential impacts by life cycle stage for abiotic resource depletion (elements) per kWh of electricity produced by the power plant. The manufacturing stage dominates the life cycle. This is primarily driven by use of metals, such as silver (24%), copper (16%), chromium (18%), lead (15%) and molybdenum (12%). This potential impact mainly relates to copper usage in the site cables, along with use of high-alloy steels in the nacelle parts, such as generator and gearbox, etc. . The end-of-life phase also has a significant overall contribution, providing an environmental credit for the recycling of metals (around -25%), where production of these materials is avoided. The end-of-life stage is dominated by the recycling of copper and steel. The impact from operation relates primarily to replacement parts over the lifetime of the turbine.

The contribution of rare earth elements (such as neodymium and dysprosium) used in the turbine generator magnets, and also in the magnets used for tower fittings, make a negligible contribution to total resource depletion.

Figure 8: Contribution by life cycle stage to Abiotic resource depletion (element) per kWh

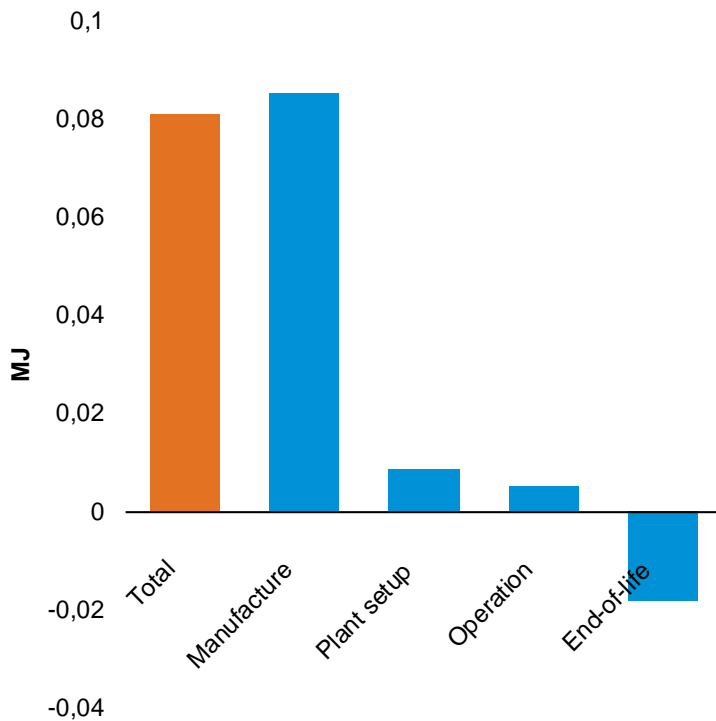


5.2.2 Abiotic resource depletion (fossil)

Abiotic resource depletion (fossil) provides an indication of the potential depletion (or scarcity) of non-renewable resources that are non-living, measured in terms of energetic value (as MJ).

Figure 9 shows the potential impacts by life cycle stage for abiotic resource depletion (fossil) per kWh of electricity produced by the power plant. The manufacturing stage dominates the potential impacts for the abiotic resource depletion (fossil), which is primarily driven by production of the turbine (60%), followed by the foundations (15%) and site cables (7%). Within production, the tower, nacelle and blades contribute most significantly to this impact category. Overall, the impacts relate to the consumption of oil (39%), natural gas (26%) and coal (30%) for the production of metals and polymers. End-of-life also provides significant environmental credits relating to avoided resource depletion associated with recycling of metals (of around -20%).

Figure 9: Contribution by life cycle stage to Abiotic resource depletion (fossil) per kWh



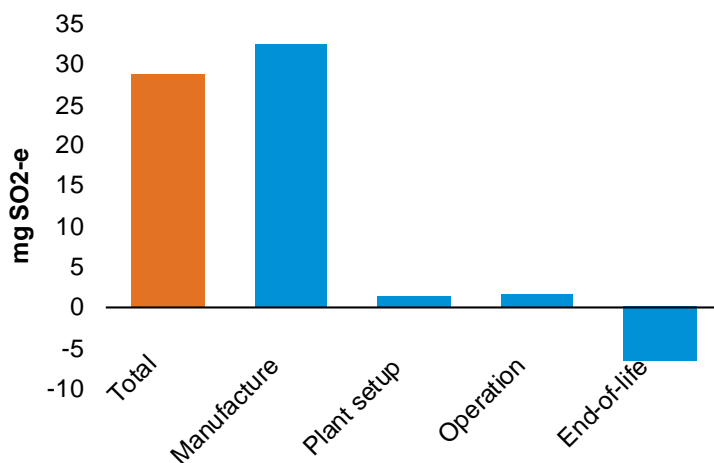
5.2.3 Acidification potential

Acidification potential provides a measure of the decrease in the pH-value of rainwater and fog, which has the effect of ecosystem damage due to, for example, nutrients being washed out of soils and increased solubility of metals into soils. Acidification potential is generally a regional impact and is measured in mass of sulphur dioxide equivalents.

Figure 10 shows the potential impacts of acidification per kWh of electricity produced by the power plant. The manufacturing stage of the power plant dominates this impact category, which primarily relates to production of the tower (40%), nacelle (15%), foundations (10%) blades (7%) and site cables (7%). The emissions to air of sulphur dioxide (59%) and nitrogen oxides (36%) associated with the production of iron and steel are the primary contributing substances.

The end-of-life phase also has a significant overall contribution, providing an environmental credit (of around -20%) for the recycling of metals, which avoids production of these materials. Similarly, the substances driving the environmental credit for end-of-life relate to the avoidance of sulphur-dioxide and nitrogen-oxide emissions to air.

Figure 10: Contribution by life cycle stage to Acidification potential per kWh

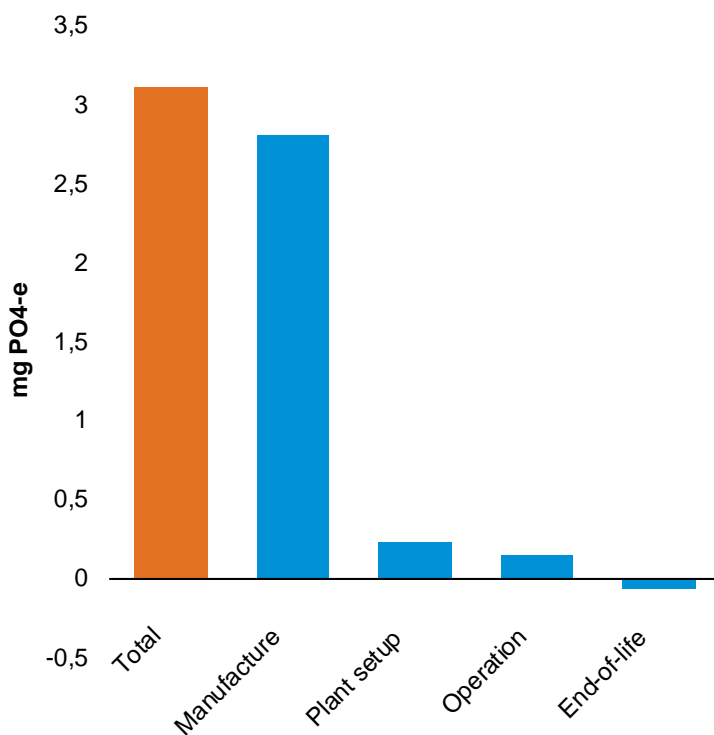


5.2.4 Eutrophication potential

In general terms, eutrophication potential provides a measure of nutrient enrichment in aquatic or terrestrial environments, which leads to ecosystem damage to those locations from over-enrichment, and is measured in mass of phosphate equivalents.

Figure 11 shows the potential impacts of eutrophication per kWh of electricity produced by the power plant. As with other impact categories, it is the manufacturing stage of the power plant that dominates the overall life cycle. The environmental credits associated with end-of-life are relatively small for this category. The principal turbine components contributing to eutrophication potential are the tower (15%), nacelle (13%), blades (8%) and foundation (10%). Additionally, installation and decommissioning processes contribute around 10%, as well as shipping transport of the towers (20%). Over the complete life cycle, the primary substances contributing to eutrophication are the emissions to air of nitrogen oxides (88%) and nitrous oxide (3%), as well as the chemical oxygen demand on fresh water bodies (2%). The relatively low credit at end-of-life for this impact category (in comparison to other impact indicators) relates to a lower credit for steel production credits, driven by lower nitrogen oxide emissions.

Figure 11: Contribution by life cycle stage to Eutrophication potential per kWh

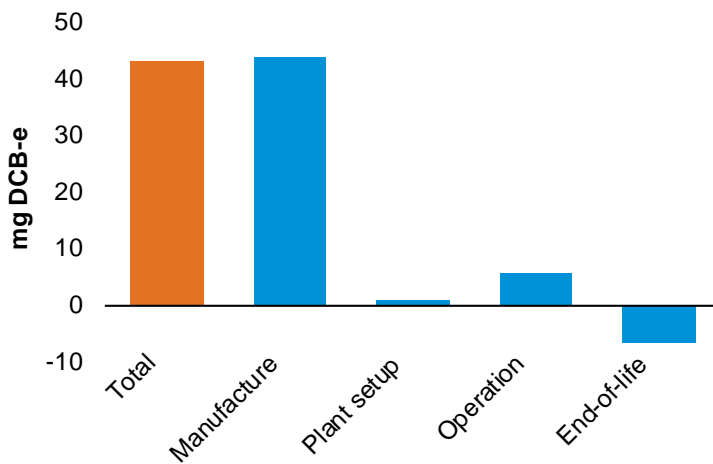


5.2.5 Freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity potential

Freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity potential, in general terms, refers to the impact on fresh water ecosystems, as a result of emissions of toxic substances to air, water and soil, and is measured in mass of dichlorobenzene equivalents.

Figure 12 shows the potential impacts of freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity per kWh of electricity produced by the power plant. The manufacturing stage dominates the life cycle impacts, with the production of cables (25%) and the nacelle (30%) being the principal contributing components, and to a lesser extent the towers (7%) and foundation (7%). For the cables, it is the production of polymer materials (polyvinylchloride and polyethylene), which results in the emission of polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins to fresh water, that contributes around 20% of total life cycle impacts. While other contributing substances relate to the release of heavy metals (60%) to water and to air, such as molybdenum, nickel, vanadium and copper. These heavy metal releases result from the production processes for metals used in the turbine. The environmental credit for end-of-life is also associated with the avoidance of heavy metal release to air and water (around -10%) from recycling.

Figure 12: Contribution by life cycle stage to Freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity potential per kWh

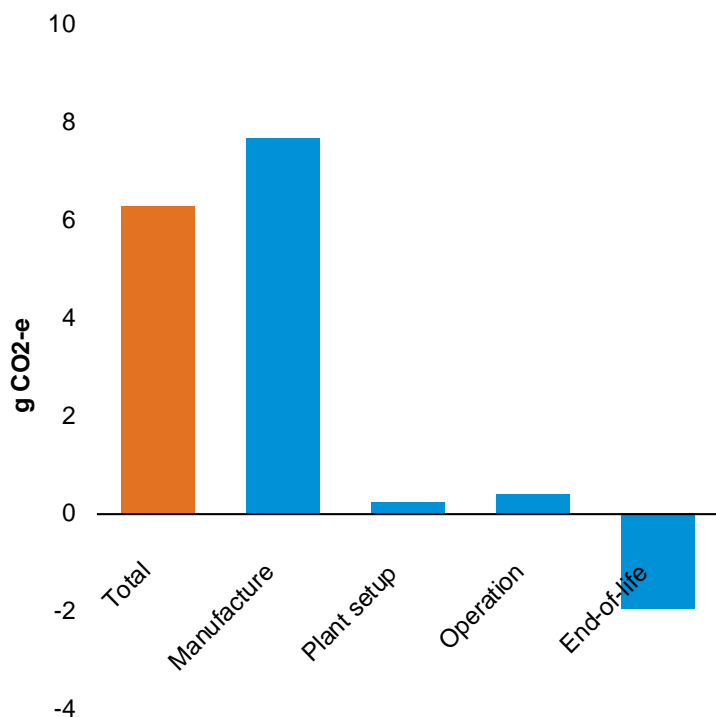


5.2.6 Global warming potential

Global warming potential impacts result in a warming effect of the earth's surface due to the release of greenhouse gases into the atmosphere and is measured in mass of carbon dioxide equivalents.

Figure 13 shows the potential impacts of global warming per kWh of electricity produced by the power plant. As with other impact categories, it is the manufacturing stage that dominates the life cycle, with the production of the tower (26%), nacelle (17%), foundations (15%), blades (10%) and cables (7%), being the primary components contributing to this impact category. Vestas production and operations contribute around 7% of the global warming impacts. The end-of-life phase also has a significant contribution (-52%), providing environmental credits associated with avoided metal production of iron, steel, copper and aluminium. The emission to air of carbon dioxide (92%) is the primary contributing substance, which results from the combustion of fuels in production of the turbine raw materials, as well as methane (5%) resulting from steel production. Other lesser contributing substances to global warming potential include the release of sulphur hexafluoride gas to air (1%) from improperly disposed switchgears, and nitrous oxide (1%) from various production processes, including glass fibre production used in the blades.

Figure 13: Contribution by life cycle stage to Global warming potential per kWh

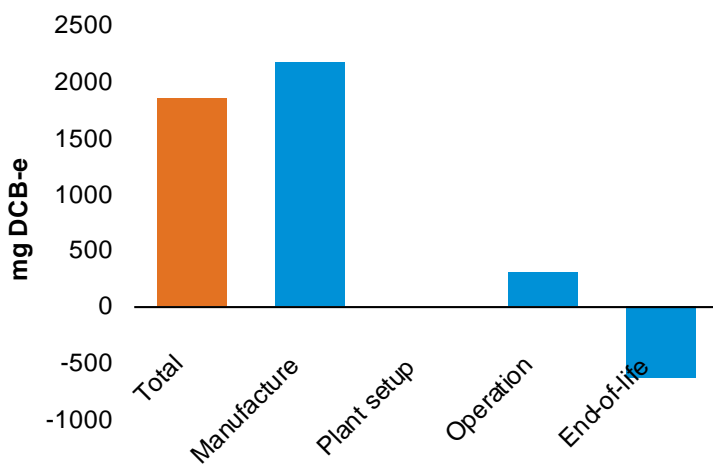


5.2.7 Human toxicity potential

Human toxicity potential, in general terms, refers to the impact on humans, as a result of emissions of toxic substances to air, water and soil, and is measured in mass of dichlorobenzene equivalents.

Figure 14 shows the potential impacts of human toxicity per kWh of electricity produced by the power plant. The manufacturing stage dominates the life cycle impacts, with the production of nacelle (32%), foundation (17%) cables (13%) and towers (11%) being the principal contributing components. The end-of-life phase also provides an environmental credit (around -25%) from the recycling of metals. The main contributing substances to human toxicity are the release to air of heavy metals (85%), such as arsenic and nickel, which result, for example, from the production of stainless steel materials. The emission to fresh water of molybdenum (4%) and polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins (3%) also contribute to this impact category. Vestas production and operations contribute around 4% in total to this impact category.

Figure 14: Contribution by life cycle stage to Human toxicity potential per kWh

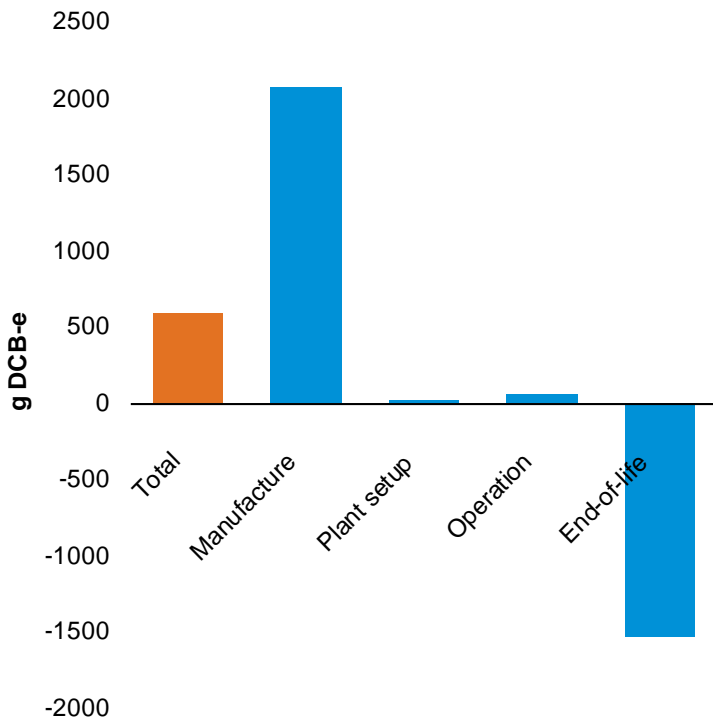


5.2.8 Marine aquatic ecotoxicity potential

Marine aquatic ecotoxicity potential, in general terms, refers to the impact on marine water ecosystems, as a result of emissions of toxic substances to air, water and soil, and is measured in mass of dichlorobenzene equivalents.

Figure 15 shows the potential impacts of marine aquatic ecotoxicity per kWh of electricity produced by the power plant. As with the other toxicity impacts presented the LCA, it is the manufacturing stage dominates the life cycle impacts. The potential impacts for marine aquatic ecotoxicity are primarily due to emissions of hydrogen fluoride to air (70%) from both aluminium and steel production processes, where the aluminium is used in the site cables, and steel throughout many parts of the turbine. The remaining impacts primarily result from emissions of heavy metals to air (14%), fresh water (5%) and sea water (5%), which result, for example, from the production of stainless steel materials. The end-of-life stage also offers substantial environmental credits (around -70%), which is mainly associated with the avoided emissions of hydrogen fluoride to air from aluminium and steel production. Vestas production and operations contribute about 4% overall to this impact category.

Figure 15: Contribution by life cycle stage to Marine aquatic ecotoxicity potential per kWh

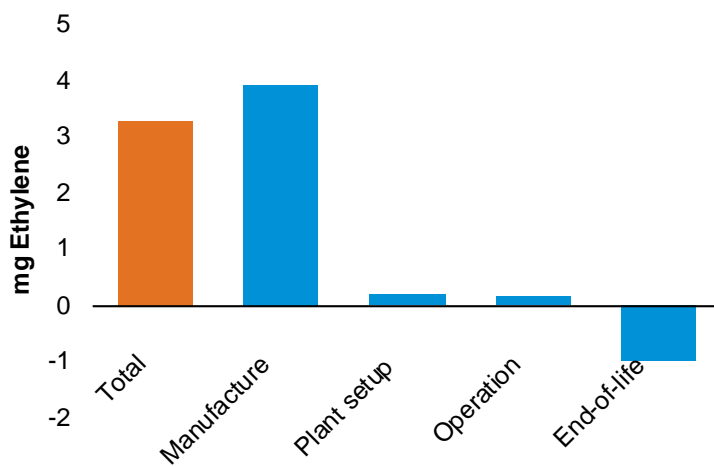


5.2.9 Photochemical oxidant creation potential

Photochemical oxidant creation provides a potential indication of low level oxidant formation, also known as summer smog, which damages vegetation and in high concentrations is toxic to humans.

Figure 16 shows the potential photochemical oxidant creation per kWh of electricity produced by the power plant. The results show that manufacturing stage dominates the life cycle, which is primarily related to the tower (34%), nacelle (14%), foundation (11%), blades (9%) and hub (5%). The main contributing substances are carbon monoxide (20%), nitrogen oxides (18%), sulphur dioxide (21%) and VOCs (40%) from steel and aluminium production processes. End-of-life recycling provides a credit of around -30% of potential impacts. Vestas production and operations contribute about 11% overall to this impact category.

Figure 16: Contribution by life cycle stage to Photochemical oxidant creation potential per kWh

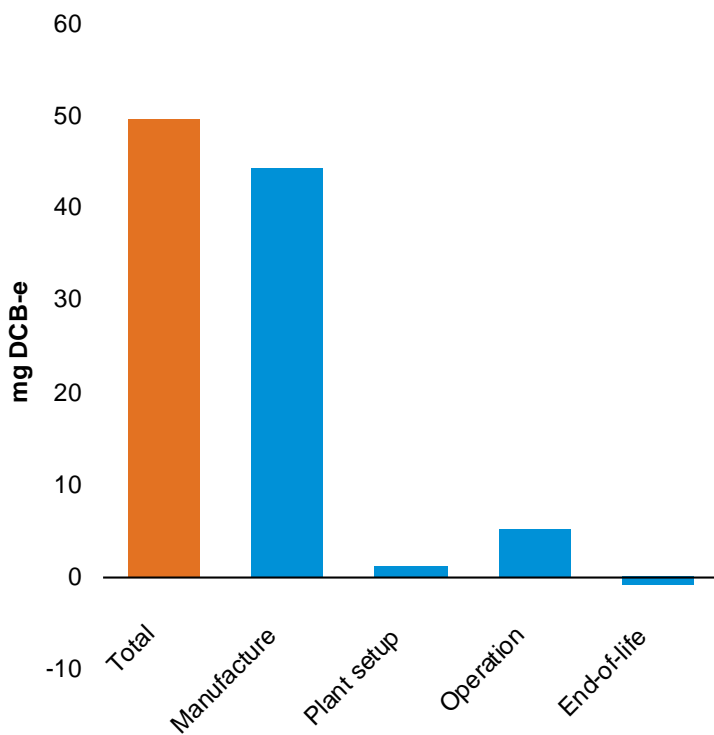


5.2.10 Terrestrial ecotoxicity potential

Terrestrial ecotoxicity potential, in general terms, refers to the impact on terrestrial ecosystems, as a result of emissions of toxic substances to air, water and soil, and is measured in mass of dichlorobenzene equivalents.

Figure 17 shows the potential impacts of terrestrial ecotoxicity per kWh of electricity produced by the power plant. As with other impact categories in the LCA, the results show that the manufacturing stage dominates the life cycle which is primarily driven by the release of heavy metals to air (79%), as well as heavy metal emissions to soil (20%), which relates mainly to chromium, mercury and arsenic. These emissions result from the production of metals used in the turbine, particularly production of steel and stainless steels in the nacelle (35%), and the foundations (14%), tower (10%) and hub (10%). Vestas production and operations contribute around 8% in total to this impact category.

Figure 17: Contribution by life cycle stage to Terrestrial ecotoxicity potential per kWh



5.3 Analysis of results: non-impact indicators

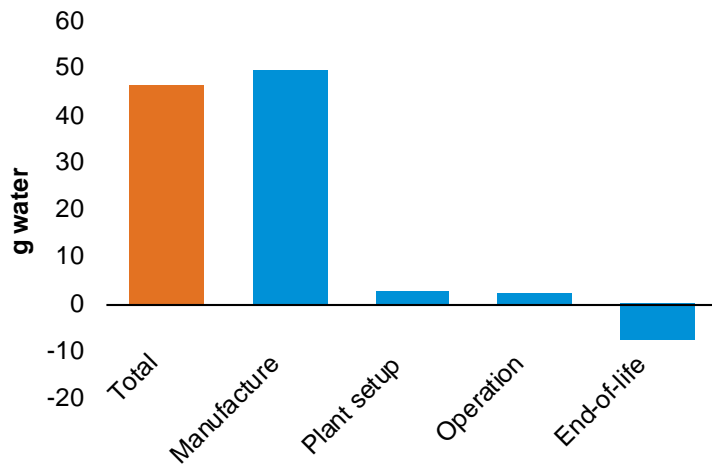
This section provides an analysis of the non-impact related indicators for the life cycle assessment.

5.3.1 Water use

Water use provides an indication of the total net input of water used throughout the life cycle of the power plant, presented in grams per kWh. This does not correspond to a water footprint, but represents total fresh water input for production and disposal processes from the LCI datasets used in the study. Accounting only for net input of freshwater would be a normal approach generally for the present status of life cycle assessment; however, for 'water' to be treated more thoroughly further consideration should be made regarding types of water used, inclusion of local water scarcity, as well as differentiation between watercourses and quality aspects (Berger, 2010), in order to aid more accurate decision making. Refer to Section 3.8 for some further discussion on water footprint metrics and the development of ISO standards in this area.

Figure 18 shows the water use per kWh of electricity produced by the power plant, which is primarily related to the manufacturing phase of the life cycle. Within manufacturing, the production of the tower (26%), foundation (16%), nacelle (15%), blades (11%) and site cables (7%) are the most significant contributors. The end-of-life stage provides a credit of around -20%. Water use is primarily driven by the production of iron and steel used in the wind power plant.

Figure 18: Contribution by life cycle stage to Water use per kWh

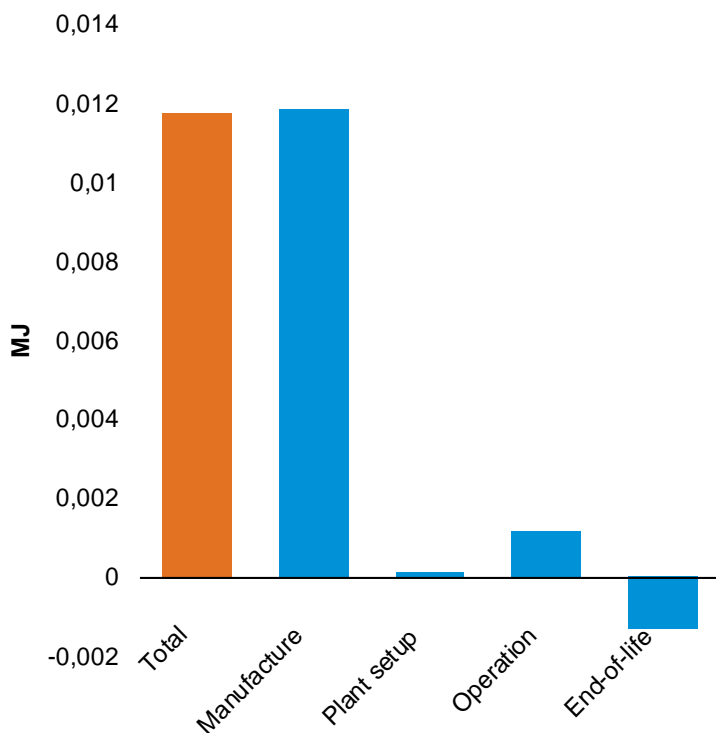


5.3.2 Primary energy from renewable raw materials (net calorific value)

Primary energy from renewable raw materials gives a measure of the quantity of renewable energy consumed from hydropower, wind power, solar energy and biomass, measured in MJ.

Figure 19 shows the consumption of primary energy from renewable raw materials per kWh of electricity produced by the power plant. As with other results in the LCA, the manufacturing stage dominates the life cycle, with end-of-life also providing a significant credit for this indicator. Within the manufacturing stage, the most significant components are the site cables (14%), nacelle (18%) and Vestas production (25%), while end-of-life also provides around -10% credit. The contributions to this indicator mainly arise from wind energy, hydropower and solar energy.

Figure 19: Contribution by life cycle stage to Primary energy from renewable raw materials (net calorific value) per kWh



5.3.3 Primary energy from resources (net calorific value)

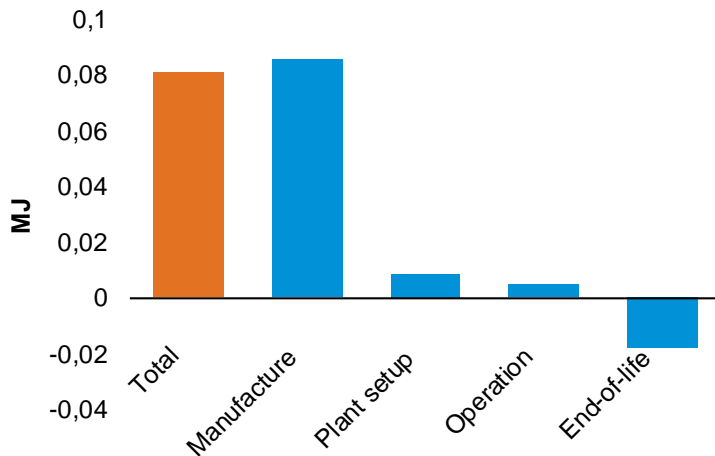
Primary energy from resources provides a measure of the consumption of non-renewable energy over the life cycle, for example, from coal, oil, gas and nuclear energy, measured in MJ.

Figure 20 shows the consumption of primary energy from resources per kWh of electricity produced by the power plant. As with other results in the LCA, the manufacturing stage dominates the life cycle, with end-of-life also providing a significant credit for this indicator.

Within the manufacturing stage, the most significant components are the tower (23%), nacelle (16%) and foundation (14%), blades (12%) and site cables (7%), while end-of-life provides a -20% credit.

Vestas production contributes around 8% to the total life cycle. The contributions to this indicator mainly arise from oil (36%), natural gas (24%), coal (27%) and uranium (8%).

Figure 20: Contribution by life cycle stage to Primary energy from resources (net calorific value) per kWh



5.3.4 Recyclability

Recyclability provides a measure of the proportion of the turbine that can be usefully recycled at end-of-life. It accounts for specific recycling rates of various components within the turbine (refer to Section 3.4.4) and is measured as a percentage of total turbine mass. The measure only relates to the turbine itself and excludes the foundations, site parts and other components of the wind plant. The following equation is used to calculate this indicator:

$$\text{Turbine recyclability (\%)} = \frac{[\text{sum for all turbine parts}] \text{ metal recycling rate (\%)}^4 \times \text{metal part mass (kg)}}{\text{total part mass (kg)}}$$

The overall recyclability of the V90-3.0MW turbine is 82%. The components contributing to recyclability relate to metal parts manufactured from iron, steel, aluminium and copper. Overall, the V90-3.0MW turbine is constructed from around 84% metals.

Other components within the entire wind power plant (i.e. the non-turbine parts, such as foundations, site cables, transformer station) are not included in the above indicator. From a LCA modelling perspective these parts are recycled at varying rates, such as the site cables receive a 95% recycling rate (as described in Section 3.4.4); however, these non-turbine components are not included in the 'recyclability' indicator.

The use of a 'recyclability' indicator (using an avoided impacts approach to crediting) provides a very 'usable' business measure to drive up the total recyclability of the wind turbine, which is accurately measured using the LCA models. This in turn drives business activities, for example by focusing on recycling/reuse of non-metallic parts, such as composite blade materials, controllers and polymers.

⁴ Refer to Section 3.4.4 for the recycling rates for the different metal parts of the turbine.

6 Return-on-energy from V90-3.0MW wind power plant

Section 8 presents the environmental performance of the wind power plant in terms of return-on-energy over the life cycle of the plant. This provides an indication of the energy balance of power plant, showing the relationship between the energy requirement over the whole life cycle of the wind plant (i.e. to manufacture, operate, service and dispose) versus the electrical energy output from the wind plant. The payback period is measured in months where the energy requirement for the life cycle of the wind plant equals the energy it has produced.

There are two approaches that have been taken to measure this indicator:

1. *Net energy*: the energy requirement for the whole life cycle of the wind plant is divided by the electrical energy output from the wind plant and then multiplied by the power plant lifetime in months. This is an absolute indicator, as follows:

$$\text{Net energy payback (months)} = \frac{\text{life cycle energy requirement of the wind plant (MJ)} \times 240}{\text{electrical energy output from the wind (MJ)}}$$

2. *Primary energy*: the second approach, is to conduct the same equation but to convert the electrical output from wind into the equivalent primary energy requirement from an example electricity grid (for example European average grid). This is a relative indicator, as follows:

$$\text{Primary energy payback (months)} = \frac{\text{life cycle energy requirement of the wind plant (MJ)} \times 240}{\text{primary energy input of EU average grid (MJ)}}$$

Following the net-energy approach, as defined above, the breakeven time of the onshore V90-3.0MW is 6.7 months for high wind conditions and 8.3 months for medium wind. This may be interpreted that over the life cycle of the V90-3.0MW wind power plant, the plant will return 36 times (high wind) or 29 times (medium wind) more energy back to society than it consumed over the plant life cycle.

The results of the second approach estimates a theoretical return on primary energy, based on typical electrical grid mix for different world regions. The approach accounts for the efficiency of the electricity power stations when determining the primary energy. There is no distinction made here as to whether base-load energy mix or marginal-load energy mix should be assessed. Nonetheless, the results show an estimated breakeven point of less than 2 months for the V90-3.0MW wind plant at high wind conditions, and less than 3 months for medium wind conditions, for this indicator when assessing example electricity mixes for Europe, Australia and the United States. The results differ slightly for each region which is a reflection of the primary fuels used for the particular electricity grid mix, as well as the electricity generation efficiencies of the power plants in those regions.

Overall, it may be concluded that the 'net return-on energy approach' does not include any relative conversions, which are required for the primary energy approach (as defined above), and therefore the 'net return-on energy' provides an absolute indication of performance (Garrett, 2012) and would be seen as the preferred indicator of energy-investment and the resulting return-on energy back to society.

7 Interpretation

7.1 Results and significant issues

The results described in this report show the environmental profile for the production of electricity from a wind power plant comprising of thirty V90-3.0MW wind turbines. This LCA is a comprehensive and detailed study covering 99.5% of the total mass of the turbine itself, and over 99.9% of the entire mass of the power plant. The missing mass relates to components in the power plant where the material was not identified.

Both the life cycle inventory data (presented in Annex G) and the life cycle impact assessment (shown in Section 5) clearly show that the production phase of the life cycle dominates all potential environmental impacts and inventory flows for the V90-3.0MW power plant. Additionally, the avoided potential impacts associated with end-of-life recycling also provide substantial environmental credits, which represents the second most important phase in the power plant life cycle. Operation, maintenance, installation and servicing are much less significant stages in the life cycle.

The impacts of transport of the turbine from Vestas production locations to the wind plant erection site are also reasonably significant. Transport includes specific fuel use (and vehicle utilisation) data for the transport of specific turbine components (for towers, nacelles and blades). These are based on measured data and specific distances with actual wind turbine transports. These specific datasets result in higher fuel consumption compared to default containerised-transport models used in previous LCAs of Vestas turbines (PE 2011 and Vestas 2006). Additionally, a sensitivity assessment shows that the transport of the wind turbine components from their Vestas production locations to a wind plant erection site, where Vestas does not have regional production facilities, results in reasonably significant life cycle impacts.

In general, the parts of the turbine that contribute most significantly to the LCI and LCIA results are the largest metal parts within the power plant (both for the manufacturing and end-of-life phases). In particular, this relates to the turbine tower, nacelle, blades, site cabling and foundations. Previous LCA studies of Vestas turbines (PE, 2011 and Vestas, 2006) have shown similar results. Updates and corrections have also been made to the site cabling (i.e. the cabling that inter-connects the turbines together and to the grid), which were over-estimated (in terms of length and specification) in previous studies (Vestas 2011a, 2011b and 2011c). This update is based on an assessment of over twenty typical plant layouts, representing about 1.5GW of installed capacity.

When considering Vestas production facilities, the results show that the impacts of fuels, electricity and consumables contribute around 3% to 11% of all potential environmental impacts. This is similar in scale to previous LCA studies of Vestas turbines.

The contribution of specific substance releases and extractions to/from the environment are not listed specifically here (refer to Section 5.2); however, the consumption of iron, steel, aluminium and concrete (in the turbines, site cabling and foundations) are the primary contributors to almost all elemental flows to and from the environment, and the resulting potential impacts. The careful LCA modelling of these materials, both in terms of datasets used for production and recycling, as well as accurately reflecting the grades of the material used (for example with high alloy steels), is essential for producing a reliable and accurate study. These assumptions have been accurately reflected in this life cycle assessment.

The results of the life cycle assessment also indicate the importance of wind plant siting and wind conditions that the turbines operates under (i.e. medium or high wind classes) which has a considerable effect on the overall impacts of the power plant, when referenced to the functional unit of 1 kWh of delivered electricity to the grid. The wind turbine is functionally designed to match the different wind classes and wind speeds, so it is not always the size of the rotor or the generator rating (in MW) that determines the electricity production of the turbine; but wind class is a dominant factor. These effects have been assessed in the sensitivity analysis. For this LCA, a mid-point average wind speed has been chosen for the wind-classes (i.e. medium or high wind speed), which represents a typical 'virtual' power plant and is a reasonable assumption. Nonetheless, higher or lower wind speeds will affect the LCA results for a specific plant location operating under different conditions.

The power plant lifetime is also a dominant factor when determining the impacts of the electricity production per kWh from the wind plant. The LCA assumes a lifetime of 20 years which matches the standard design life; however, the wind turbine industry is still young (starting for Vestas in 1979), and few turbines have ever been disposed, reaching operational lives of 30 years and over, for other Vestas turbine models. It is often wear or fatigue of the load-bearing components of the turbine (such as tower fatigue) which limit the overall turbine lifetime. Many components can be routinely replaced as part of maintenance, except for the fixed parts (such as the tower, foundation and cables, etc) which are generally not replaced and may limit the physical lifetime of the plant. Vestas operates sophisticated real-time diagnostic tools and sensors which measure individual turbine performance and fatigue and it is possible to predict lifetime of specific components for specific site conditions. These systems operate on over 20,000 wind turbines around the world (of around 45,000 in total), which covers 20 per cent of current worldwide installed wind capacity, providing Vestas with detailed information. These assessments are also conducted in the permit and planning phase of a new power plant, which are used to accurately predict component lifetime for specific site conditions. The plant lifetime, based on these assessments, informs the business case and contractual arrangements for the development of a new wind plant. For example, the LCA of the Roaring 40s wind power plant of V90-3MW turbines in Australia (PE, 2011a) calculated lifetime of the turbine to be 24 years, based on such assessments. Although these variations occur, the design lifetime for this study of 20 years for a typical 'virtual' plant is considered to be a reasonable and accurate estimate.

Overall, when comparing the scale of environmental impacts, per 1 kWh for the V90-3.0MW wind plant, the results are very similar to that of previous LCAs of Vestas turbines. The study, in general, is considered to be in alignment with LCAs of other Vestas turbines; and it also includes some additional updates which improve the robustness and accuracy of the overall assessment.

7.2 Sensitivity analysis

Sensitivity analysis provides a purposeful evaluation of the underlying assumptions, parameters and methodological choices of the LCA, which aims to provide an understanding of the importance and scale of the choices made in the LCA. Section 6 shows the results of the sensitivity analysis, which assess the following eight scenarios:

1. variation in wind power plant lifetime: ± 4 years;
2. variation in frequency of parts replacement;
3. operating the 90MW wind plant under medium and high wind conditions;
4. varying the transport distances for components to wind plant erection site;
5. varying the distance of the wind plant connection to the existing grid;

6. changing the type of foundation used to high ground water level type;
7. potential incidence of turbine switchgear blow-out; and
8. potential effects of method used for recycling.

These scenarios represent the most significant assumptions made in the LCA study.

7.2.1 Wind plant lifetime

The lifetime of a wind power plant is designed for 20 years; however, this may vary depending on the specific conditions of operation, and could be up to 30 years lifetime or over, when considering performance of other Vestas turbines. Power plant lifetime is an important assumption in the LCA because environmental impacts are amortised over the lifetime of the turbine per kWh of electricity generated. As such, changes in lifetime have a substantial overall effect on impacts per kWh produced by the power plant.

This sensitivity analysis presents the results for a variance of ± 4 years in lifetime of the power plant. No account is made for changes to replacement parts and servicing for this variation in plant lifetime, but this is shown as a separate sensitivity analysis in Section 6.2 to indicate the significance of that assumption.

Table 9 shows that all potential environmental impacts either increase by around 25%, for reduced lifetime of 4 years, or decrease by around 17%, for an increased lifetime of 4 years. As the results indicate, the impacts per kWh directly correspond to the power plant lifetime.

Table 9: Whole-life environmental impacts of varying power plant lifetime (units shown in g, mg or MJ per kWh)

Environmental impact categories:	Unit	Reduced lifetime (16 years)	Baseline (20 years)	Increased lifetime (24 years)
Abiotic resource depletion (ADP elements)	mg Sb-e	0.39	0.31	0.26
Abiotic resource depletion (ADP fossils)	MJ	0.10	0.08	0.07
Acidification potential (AP)	mg SO ₂ -e	36	29	24
Eutrophication potential (EP)	mg PO ₄ -e	3.9	3.1	2.6
Freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity potential (FAETP)	mg DCB-e	54	43	36
Global warming potential (GWP)	g CO ₂ -e	7.8	6.2	5.2
Human toxicity potential (HTP)	mg DCB-e	2300	1840	1530
Marine aquatic ecotoxicity potential (MAETP)	g DCB-e	730	584	486
Photochemical oxidant creation potential (POCP)	mg Ethene	4.1	3.3	2.7
Terrestrial ecotoxicity potential (TETP)	mg DCB-e	62	50	41

Non-impact indicators:

* Primary energy from renewable raw materials	MJ	0.015	0.012	0.010
* Primary energy from resources	MJ	0.11	0.08	0.07
Water use	g	57	46	38

* Net calorific value

7.2.2 Replacement parts

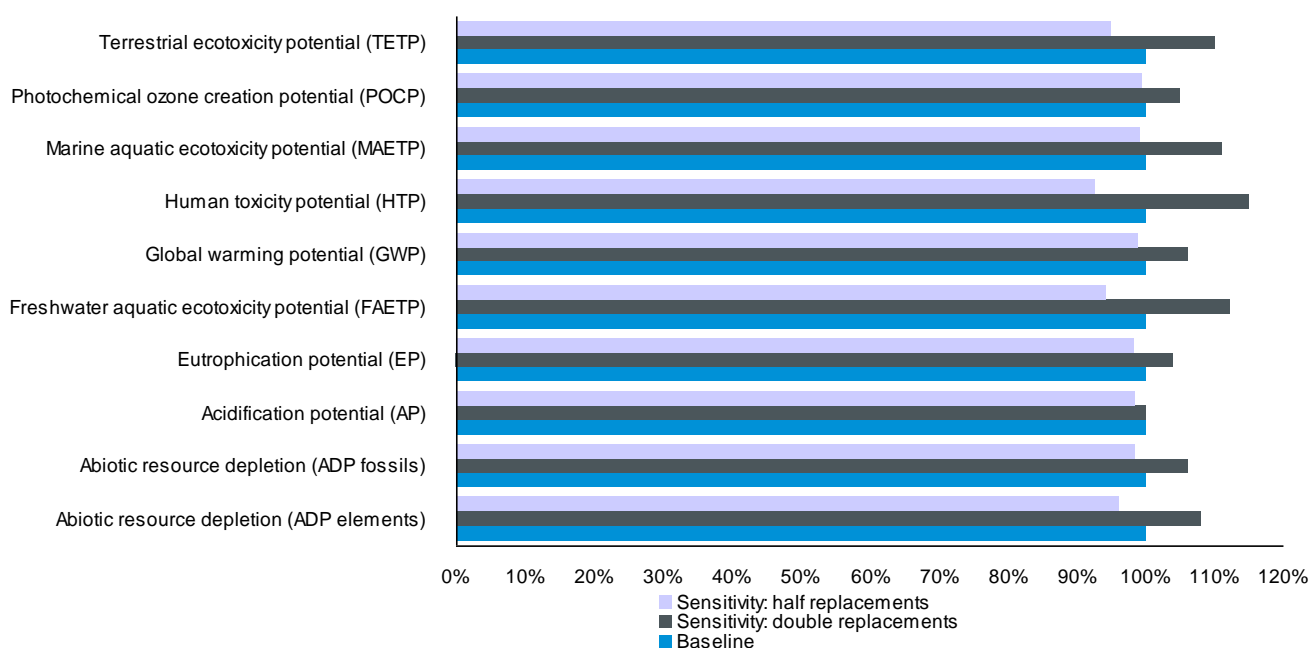
There may be variation in the level of maintenance and the need for replacement parts for any particular wind turbine power plant. Based on both monitored and calculated data, a typical rate for the replacement of parts is included in the LCA for the V90-3.0MW turbine.

This sensitivity analysis evaluates the effects of doubling the frequency of replacement parts, which represents an extremely conservative estimate, as well as halving replacement parts.

Figure 21 shows the results of the sensitivity analysis which shows that doubling of replacement parts has the effect of increasing all impact categories in the range of 1% to 15%. The impact categories effected most significantly are toxicity impacts for terrestrial ecotoxicity (+10%), human toxicity (+15%), marine & fresh water aquatic ecotoxicity (+11%), as well as abiotic resource depletion (+8%). For the ecotoxicity impacts, the increase generally relates to the increased emission of heavy metals to air (from stainless steel production) and hydrogen fluoride emissions to air from aluminium and steel production). While for abiotic resource depletion this is driven by increased use of high alloy steels, relating to the alloying elements in the steel, such as molybdenum and chromium.

Halving the replacement parts has the effect of reducing all impacts between -3% to -6%.

Figure 21: Whole-life sensitivity assessment of doubling or halving replacement parts



7.2.3 90MW wind plant operating under medium and high wind conditions

The baseline case for the life cycle assessment is the operation of the V90-3.0MW wind power plant in high wind conditions for which the turbine is designed to operate under (refer to Annex E for further details). Nonetheless, operation under medium wind conditions are also assessed, which will have the effect of reducing the electricity output of the turbine by around 20% compared to the high-wind used as the baseline.

This sensitivity analysis accounts for differences in construction of the tower and foundation dimensions when moving from high wind to medium wind conditions, while the construction of the remaining parts of the turbine remain unchanged, presenting an accurate estimate.

Table 10 presents the results of the assessment which, as expected, indicates a substantial increase across all impact indicators of 25% for the V90-3.0MW turbine. The power production of the turbine has a direct correlation with the impacts per kWh of electricity produced.

Table 10: Whole-life environmental impacts of high wind conditions (units shown in g, mg or MJ per kWh)

Environmental impact categories:	Unit	Baseline: High wind	Sensitivity: Medium wind
Abiotic resource depletion (ADP elements)	mg Sb-e	0.31	0.39
Abiotic resource depletion (ADP fossils)	MJ	0.08	0.10
Acidification potential (AP)	mg SO ₂ -e	29	36
Eutrophication potential (EP)	mg PO ₄ -e	3.1	3.9
Freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity potential (FAETP)	mg DCB-e	43	54
Global warming potential (GWP)	g CO ₂ -e	6.2	7.8
Human toxicity potential (HTP)	mg DCB-e	1840	2290
Marine aquatic ecotoxicity potential (MAETP)	g DCB-e	584	727
Photochemical oxidant creation potential (POCP)	mg Ethene	3.3	4.1
Terrestrial ecotoxicity potential (TETP)	mg DCB-e	50	62
Non-impact indicators:			
*Primary energy from renewable raw materials	MJ	0.012	0.015
*Primary energy from resources	MJ	0.08	0.10
Water use	g	46	57

* *Net calorific value*

7.2.4 Transport distance from production to wind plant site

The baseline case for transport represents Vestas' global production facilities that operate within their global region to service that particular region, reflecting the supply chain in 2010 for a European wind power plant site location, such as Germany or the UK.

This sensitivity analysis evaluates the significance of the transport of the wind turbine components from their production locations to the wind plant erection site and has assumed a worst-case approach where the wind power plant is erected in a continent where Vestas does not have full production facilities. This is assumed to be a wind plant in Australia and Table 11 shows the transport distances and modes. It should also be noted that the current LCA uses truck and sea vessel fuel consumption (and vehicle utilisation) with specific vehicle data for transport of the tower sections, blades and nacelles.

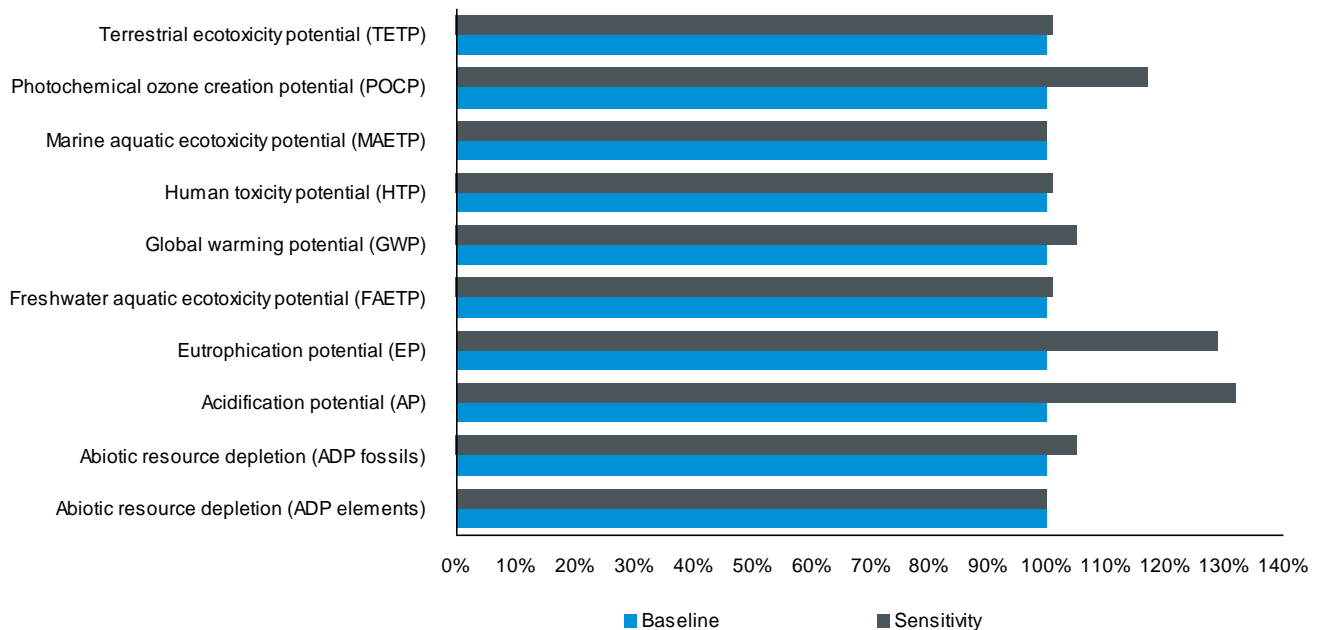
Table 11: Transport distances for increased transport sensitivity of wind plant components

Component	Truck (km)	Ship (km)
Nacelle	2435	9515
Hub	2435	9515
Blades	910	20 375
Tower	710	7530
Foundation	50	0
Other site parts	600	0

2 shows the results of the scenario analysis which indicates that most impact category results increase by 15% or less compared to the baseline, with the exception of potential impacts for acidification and eutrophication, which increase in range of 30%. These increases are primarily driven the by increased shipping or turbine parts which has the consequence of substantially increasing emissions of sulphur dioxides and nitrogen oxides to air, from the combustion of shipping fuels.

When evaluating global warming potential only, the baseline transport scenario (covering all transport stages within the LCA model) contributes around 9% to the life cycle impacts for this category, while in this sensitivity analysis, the contribution from transport increases to 13% of total global warming impacts.

Figure 22: Whole-life sensitivity analysis of increased transport



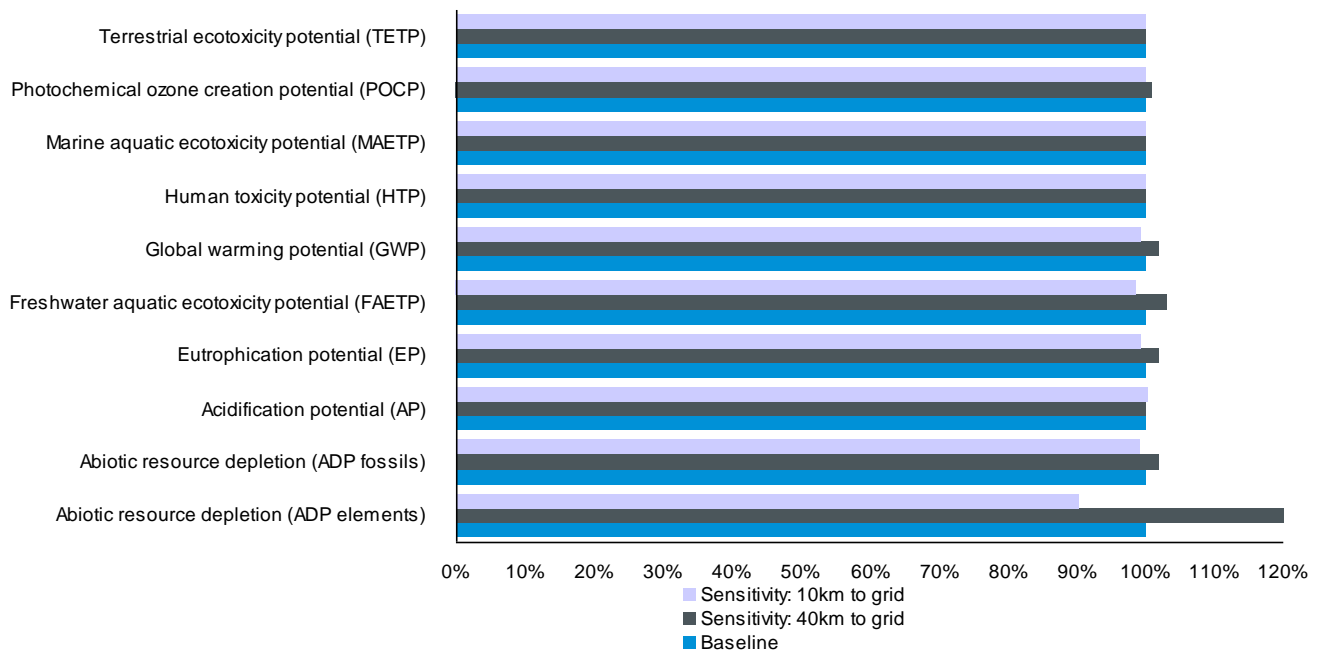
7.2.5 Distance of wind plant to electricity grid

The distance of the wind plant from the existing grid is another variable that will change depending on the site location. The baseline scenario for this study assumes that the wind plant is located 20km from the existing grid and includes a calculated electrical loss of 1.7% for the entire power plant.

This sensitivity analysis evaluates two alternative scenarios of the power plant being located either 10km or 40km from the existing grid, which results in a total calculated electrical loss of 1.5% and 2.5%, respectively. The analysis also accounts for the differences in amounts of 110kV high voltage electrical cable that connects the power plant to the grid.

Figure 23 shows the results of the analysis which indicates that the impacts do not change significantly with changing grid distance. A doubling of the distance to grid, from 20km to 40km, increases all environmental impact indicators from 0.1% to 3%, with the exception of abiotic resource depletion (elements), which is primarily affected by the use of copper in the high-voltage cable. While halving the grid distance, from 20km to 10km, reduces all potential impact indicators in the range of -0.1% to -10%.

Figure 23: Whole-life impacts for doubling and halving distance to grid to 40km

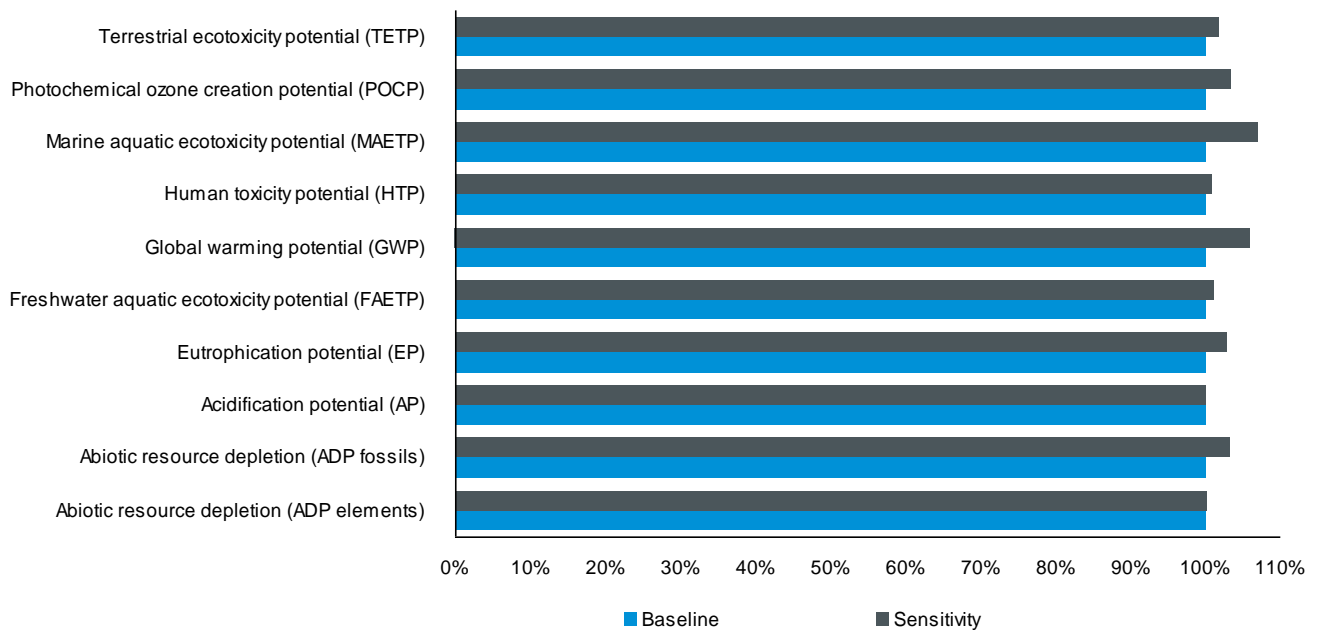


7.2.6 High ground water level type foundations

The baseline assessment assumes a low ground water level (LGWL) foundation for the turbine which has been chosen as the base case as it is more representative of the majority of wind power plant sites. This sensitivity evaluates the use of a high groundwater level (HGWL) foundation which indicates a (maximum) groundwater level equal to the level of the terrain, which requires increased quantities of concrete and steel reinforcement.

Figure 24 shows the results of the analysis for the use of the high groundwater level foundation which indicates that this does not significantly change the environmental impacts, increasing the potential impacts between 0.1% to 7% across all indicators. The increase in potential impacts directly correlates to the increased use of steel and concrete for this foundation type.

Figure 24: Whole-life impacts for changing from LGWL to a HGWL foundation



7.2.7 Potential incidence of turbine switchgear blow-out

The baseline assessment does not include potential switchgear blow-outs as part of the overall analysis of the wind plant, as these occurrences are rare. If a blow-out does occur then sulphur hexafluoride gas (SF₆) is released to atmosphere, which is a highly potent greenhouse gas. This sensitivity estimates the contribution of blow-out to the potential global warming impacts.

Based on estimates made by Vestas, it has been assumed that 1 in 2000 switchgears may have an incidence of a blow-out over a 20 year operating period. For a power plant containing thirty V90-3.0MW turbines, this would result in a release of approximately 100 grams of SF₆ over the lifetime, which equates to below 0.01% of the total global warming potential impacts.

7.2.8 Potential effects of recycling method

The baseline assessment uses an *avoided-impacts approach* to credit the recycling of metals at end-of-life, as described in Section 3.4.4.

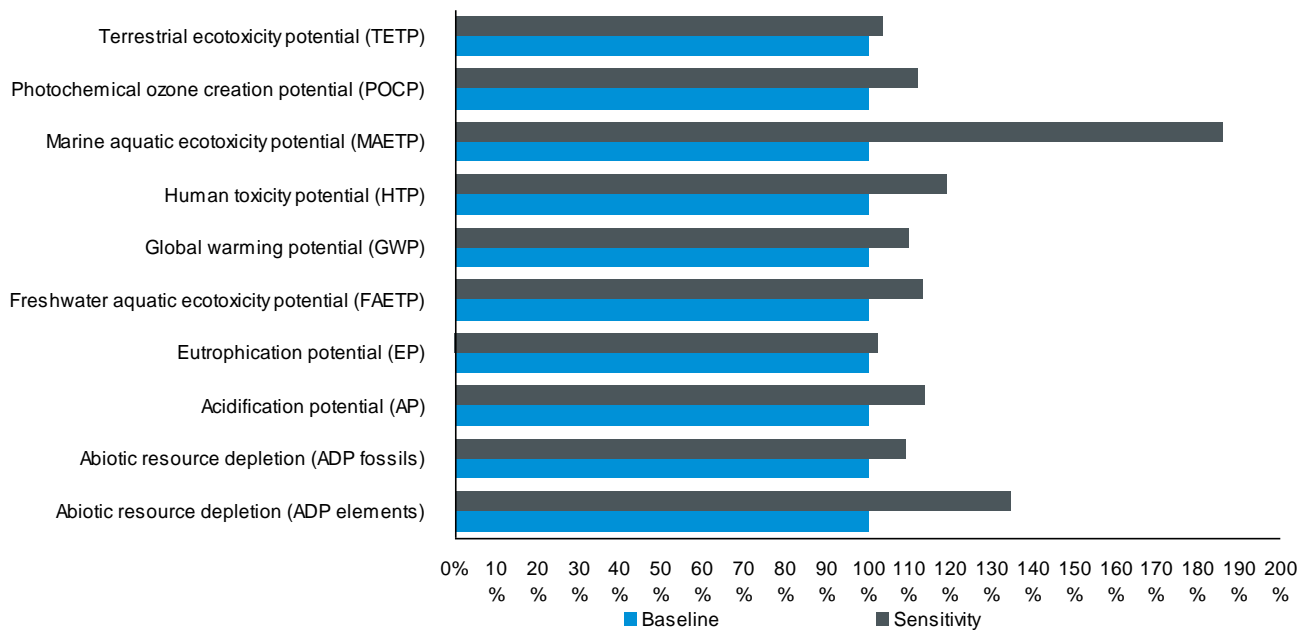
An alternative approach is to use a *recycled-content approach*, whereby environmental credits are received for the incoming raw-materials used to manufacture the wind-plant based upon the actual recycled material content of the wind turbine. For this approach no credit is given at end-of-life, but received by the incoming raw materials.

Around 84% of the wind-turbine itself is constructed from metal components (primarily iron and steel, as well as copper and aluminium). However, the exact recycled content of all the turbine components is not known. As such, an estimate is made based upon the standard industry datasets (such as worldsteel) which contain average global recycled content for iron and steel materials. Therefore, this sensitivity provides an estimate for using the *recycled-content approach* for environmental crediting.

In LCA modelling terms for this sensitivity analysis, the end-of-life credits are removed from the LCA models, as well as removing the burdens associated with input scrap (for iron, steel, copper and aluminium), which were added to the LCI datasets for the *avoided-impact approach* (see Section 3.4.3).

Figure 25 shows the results of the assessment which indicate that across all impact categories these increase between 2% and 12% compared to the baseline, with the exception of the potential toxicity indicators for marine aquatic ecotoxicity (+85%), human toxicity (+19%) and abiotic depletion elements (+35%). For the marine aquatic ecotoxicity potential, this primarily increases due to the reduced end-of-life recycling credit associated with both aluminium and steel production which is driven by hydrogen fluoride emissions to air. The increase to human toxicity potential mainly relates to reduced credits for stainless steel recycling which is driven by heavy emissions (to air and water). While for abiotic depletion (elements), the increased impact is primarily associated with reduced credits relating to copper use and high-alloy steel.

Figure 25: Whole-life impacts using a recycled-content approach for metal recycling credits



7.3 Data quality checks

As indicated previously, there are certain stages of the life cycle, study assumptions and inventory datasets that will dominate the environmental impacts of the wind plant. It is these important areas that have been focused upon when conducting checks for data completeness, consistency and representativeness. The following important areas are identified for this LCA:

- production LCI datasets for iron, steel, aluminium, concrete, copper, composites and polymers;
- end-of-life crediting method and LCI datasets used for crediting;
- power plant lifetime;
- power plant electricity production;

- transport datasets; and
- coverage of LCIA characterisation factors.

Refer to Annex D for a summary of results for each of the above areas in relation to the original requirements set in the goal and scope. The following text provides an overall summary.

In general, all foreground data supplied by Vestas is for the 2011 year of operation for all facilities, which includes the data for all Vestas' global production units and all other business functions (such as sales), consisting of over 100 sites. This accounts for material, energy and fuel inputs, as well as product outputs, wastes and recycled materials. Other foreground data from Vestas relates to the material breakdown of the turbine which has accounted for the entire bill-of-materials for the specific turbine model, which consists of around 25,000 components. Each component is assessed in terms of specific material grade (such as stainless steel grades), production processes and country of production. Country of production is used to define country-specific electricity production mix for materials and processing, where relevant. Where components in the turbine are not designed or manufactured by Vestas (such as the site transformer or turbine gearbox), then the manufacturer of these items has provided a specific material composition of these items, or the data has been collected from published EPDs.

For background datasets for material production, these have been obtained from various established and credible published sources, such as, worldsteel, Eurofer, Plastics Europe, as well as PE (2011) generated datasets. These are, in general, considered to be of good or high quality. The updated PE datasets for 2011 seem generally to be in alignment also with previous datasets from 2006. Checks have not been conducted for the entire wind power plant; although, some spot checks have been made relating to the environmentally significant datasets, such as metals and concrete. Overall, these are in alignment with previous 2006 data from an environmental impacts perspective for the complete power plant, with an estimated difference of below 5%, across all impact categories. However, the accounting of 'water flows' has changed, both in terms of method and some nomenclature changes in the 2011 datasets. The primary change is in relation to accounting method of flows, whereby input- and output-water flows for a process (e.g. hydro power or metal production) appear to be aggregated rather than subtracted to obtain water-consumption. Vestas has made adjustments to the water flows (refer to Section 1.2.4) in order to maintain reasonable consistency with the previous accounting method. Nonetheless, it may be stated that in general, the LCI accounting for water-flows is still in early development in terms of data availability, as well as harmonised methods being defined at an international level (such as, draft standard *ISO 14046, Water footprint – Requirements and guidelines*), as such, the 'water-use indicator' will be subject to improvements with recognised best-practice. In relation to the recycling methodology used, this LCA uses an 'avoided impacts approach' for the crediting, accounting also for burdens of input scrap from primary production of metals; methodologically speaking, this is a consistent approach to crediting and is a fair representation. Additionally, specific parts of the turbine and power plant are applied different recycling rates dependent on their ease to disassemble and recycle. A sensitivity analysis was also conducted for a recycled-content approach from crediting.

As discussed previously in Section 9.1, two important assumptions in the LCA relate to power plant lifetime and electricity production. These have, potentially, a very significant effect on the overall results and environmental performance of the turbine (relative to 1 kWh of production). The assumptions made for both these parameters are considered representative and robust.

Transport includes specific fuel use (and vehicle utilisation) data for the transport of specific turbine components (for towers, nacelles and blades). These are based on measured data and specific distances with actual wind turbine transports. These specific datasets result in higher fuel consumption compared to default containerised-transport models used in previous LCAs of Vestas turbines and considered representative data.

Based on a check of the completeness of the characterisation factors used in the CML method (for the impact categories assessed in this LCA), it is considered that all relevant substances have been characterised that are of relevance to the turbine life cycle. There are also no unusual or special elements or substances that have been identified in the data collection stage which require special account.

The general conclusion is that the robustness of the important data is considered, overall, to be complete, consistent and representative of the system being assessed.

7.4 Conclusions and recommendations

Overall, the study represents a robust and detailed reflection of the potential environmental impacts of the 90MW wind power plant consisting of V90-3.0MW turbines. The LCA is based upon accurate product knowledge and current best-practice in the field of life cycle assessment, both in the methodologies applied and datasets used to account for environmental impacts, as well as the LCA tools and software applied.

The study has been critically reviewed by an external expert, Prof. Dr. Matthias Finkbeiner, according to paragraph 6.2 of ISO 14044 (2006a), as the study is not intended for comparative assertions intended to be disclosed to the public.

The life cycle assessment could further benefit from considering the following:

- include a more comprehensive data collection method for the mass flow inputs and outputs from Vestas manufacturing sites, particularly for waste disposal;
- include more specific supply chain data for the transport of incoming materials, which currently uses generic distances;
- explore improvements in accounting methods for water flows; and
- explore potential use of other impact assessment methods.

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Annex A Impact category descriptions

A.1 Impact category descriptions

The following impact categories, as used by CML3.6 (2009) method, are described below (Goedkoop, 2008):

Environmental impact categories:

- Abiotic resource depletion (ADP elements)
- Abiotic resource depletion (ADP fossils)
- Acidification potential (AP)
- Eutrophication potential (EP)
- Freshwater aquatic ecotoxicity potential (FAETP)
- Global warming potential (GWP)
- Human toxicity potential (HTP)
- Marine aquatic ecotoxicity potential (MAETP)
- Photochemical oxidant creation potential (POCP)
- Terrestrial ecotoxicity potential (TETP)

Non-impact indicators:

- Primary energy from renewable raw materials (net calorific value)
- Primary energy from resources (net calorific value)
- Water use

A.2 Impact categories

- *Abiotic resource depletion (elements)*. This impact category is concerned with protection of human welfare, human health and ecosystem health. This impact category indicator is related to extraction of minerals and fossil fuels due to inputs into the system. The abiotic depletion factor (ADF) is determined for each extraction of minerals and fossil fuels (kg antimony equivalents/kg extraction) based on concentration reserves and rate of de-accumulation. The geographic scope of this indicator is at a global scale.
- *Abiotic resource depletion (fossil)* covers all natural resources (incl. fossil energy carriers) as metal containing ores, crude oil and mineral raw materials. Abiotic resources include all raw materials from non-living resources that are non-renewable. This impact category describes the reduction of the global amount of non-renewable raw materials. Non-renewable means a time frame of at least 500 years. This impact category covers an evaluation of the availability of natural elements in general, as well as the availability of fossil energy carriers. The reference substance for the characterisation factors is MJ.
- *Acidification*. Acidifying substances cause a wide range of impacts on soil, groundwater, surface water, organisms, ecosystems and materials (buildings). Acidification Potentials (AP) for emissions to air are calculated with the adapted RAINS 10 model, describing the fate and

deposition of acidifying substances. AP is expressed as kg SO₂ equivalents per kg emission. The time span is eternity and the geographical scale varies between local scale and continental scale.

- *Eutrophication* (also known as nutrification) includes all impacts due to excessive levels of macro-nutrients in the environment caused by emissions of nutrients to air, water and soil. Nutrification potential (NP) is based on the stoichiometric procedure of Heijungs (1992), and expressed as kg PO₄ equivalents/ kg emission. Fate and exposure is not included, time span is eternity, and the geographical scale varies between local and continental scale.
- *Fresh-water aquatic eco-toxicity*. This category indicator refers to the impact on fresh water ecosystems, as a result of emissions of toxic substances to air, water and soil. Eco-toxicity Potential (FAETP) are calculated with USES-LCA, describing fate, exposure and effects of toxic substances. The time horizon is infinite. Characterisation factors are expressed as 1,4-dichlorobenzene equivalents/kg emission. The indicator applies at global/continental/ regional and local scale.
- *Global warming* can result in adverse effects upon ecosystem health, human health and material welfare. Climate change is related to emissions of greenhouse gases to air. The characterisation model as developed by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) is selected for development of characterisation factors. Factors are expressed as Global Warming Potential for time horizon 100 years (GWP100), in kg carbon dioxide/kg emission. The geographic scope of this indicator is at a global scale.
- *Human toxicity*. This category concerns effects of toxic substances on the human environment. Health risks of exposure in the working environment are not included. Characterisation factors, Human Toxicity Potentials (HTP), are calculated with USES-LCA, describing fate, exposure and effects of toxic substances for an infinite time horizon. For each toxic substance HTP's are expressed as 1,4-dichlorobenzene equivalents/ kg emission. The geographic scope of this indicator determines on the fate of a substance and can vary between local and global scale.
- *Marine aquatic ecotoxicity* refers to impacts of toxic substances on marine ecosystems (see description fresh-water toxicity).
- *Terrestrial ecotoxicity*. This category refers to impacts of toxic substances on terrestrial ecosystems (see description fresh-water toxicity).
- *Photo-oxidant formation* is the formation of reactive substances which are injurious to human health and ecosystems and which also may damage crops. This problem is also indicated with "summer smog". Winter smog is outside the scope of this category. Photochemical Oxidant Creation Potential (POCP) for emission of substances to air is calculated with the UNECE Trajectory model (including fate), and expressed in kg ethylene equivalents/kg emission. The time span is 5 days and the geographical scale varies between local and continental scale.

A.3 Non-impact indicators

- *Primary energy demand* is often difficult to determine due to the existence multiple energy sources when modelling a system. Primary energy demand is the quantity of energy directly withdrawn from the hydrosphere, atmosphere or geosphere or energy source without any anthropogenic change. For fossil fuels and uranium, this is the quantity of resources withdrawn, and is expressed in its energy equivalent (i.e. the energy content of the raw material). For renewable resources, the primary energy is characterised by the energetic quantity of biomass consumed. For hydropower, the primary energy is characterised on the quantity of potential energy gained by the water. As aggregated values, the following indicators for primary energy are expressed:
 - *Primary energy consumption (non-renewable)* essentially characterises the gain from the energy sources of natural gas, crude oil, lignite, coal and uranium. Natural gas and crude oil are used both for energy production and as material constituents (e.g. in plastics). Coal will primarily be used for energy production. Uranium will only be used for electricity production in nuclear power stations. Primary energy consumption (non-renewable) is measured in MJ.
 - *Primary energy consumption (renewable)* comprises hydropower, wind power, solar energy and biomass. It is important that the primary energy consumed (e.g. for the production of 1 kWh of electricity) is calculated to reflect the efficiency for production or supply of the energy system being characterised. The energy content of the manufactured products is considered as feedstock energy content. It is characterised by the net calorific value of the product and represents the usable energy content. Primary energy consumption (renewable) is measured in MJ.
- In this assessment *water use* is calculated very simply as the quantity of liquid water taken from the environment minus the liquid water returned to the environment, as freshwater. Water in the form of vapour or steam emitted to atmosphere, or water incorporated into the finished product is considered to be lost and not directly available for reuse. The data for this assessment have been obtained from primary sources and data for raw material production, transport and other background data are sourced from PE (2006) datasets. There is no consideration made regarding the types of water used, inclusion of local water scarcity, as well as differentiation between watercourses and quality aspects (Berger, 2010), which would provide a more valid and accurate assessment.

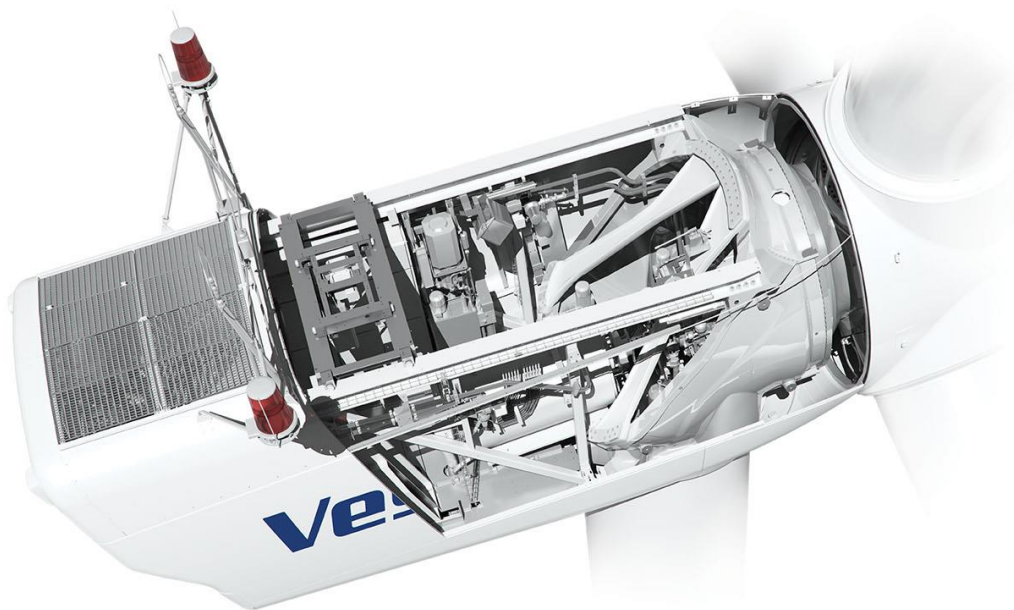
Annex B General description of wind plant components

A wind turbine is constructed of around 25,000 components which are grouped into several main systems, such as, the tower, nacelle, hub and blades. Within the nacelle, many of the electrical and mechanical components are contained, such as the gearbox, main shaft, generator and control systems. For this LCA, detailed part information on the turbine components has been taken from the bill-of-materials and engineering drawings, which provide specific data for material type and grade, as well as component mass.

Other components that form the main part of an onshore wind plant are the turbine foundations, the plant transformer, switchgears and site cabling (i.e. connecting between turbines, transformer and to the grid), as well as access roads. Data describing these components for the LCA was sourced from EPDs, directly from the manufacturers and design drawings.

B.1 Nacelle module

The nacelle module is the most complicated part of a wind turbine. The figure below shows the individual components of the nacelle module.



Most of the individual components are not manufactured by Vestas, but are purchased from sub-suppliers. Final finishing (welding, metal cutting) and subsequent assembly takes place at Vestas' factories. A description of the most significant individual components of the nacelle module is listed below:

B1.3 Gearbox

Data for the V90-3.0MW gearbox is based on supplier statement of the material composition by specific grade of iron and steel, as well as expert judgement.

B1.4 Generator

The generator is manufactured by Vestas and mainly consists of steel, cast iron and copper. The complete bill-of-materials was used to model the generator.

B1.5 Nacelle foundation

The nacelle foundation is made from cast iron and produced at Vestas' casting facilities and machined at Vestas facilities.

B.16 Nacelle cover

The nacelle cover is made from fibreglass, which consists of woven glass fibres, polyethylene (PET) and styrene.

B1.7 Other parts in the nacelle

In addition to the above-mentioned components, the nacelle also consists of a range of other components, including:

- yaw system;
- coupling;
- cooler top;
- cables; and
- controls.

All parts within the turbine have been assessed in the LCA based on the part mass and material composition from the bill-of-materials for the turbine.

B.2 Blades

The turbine blades are mainly produced at Vestas' blades factories. Each blade is 44 metres long and comprises a web, which is glued between two blade shell sections. The main materials used in the blades are carbon fibre and woven glass fibres infused with epoxy resin. Polyurethane (PUR) glue is the primary material used to assemble blade shells and web. After the gluing process, the blades are ground and polished to ensure the correct finish.

There are also auxiliary materials, such as vacuum fleece and various plastic films, which are used in the production of the blades production steps. These materials are also included in this LCA as part of the bill-of-materials for the wind turbine.

B.3 Hub

The hub and spinner are parts of the rotor system. The finished spinner is delivered to the Vestas factories where assembly is carried out. The spinner consists of a cover constructed of glass fibre-

reinforced polyester, a blade hub made of cast iron and internals. Specific data for material type, grade and mass has been used in the LCA.

B.4 Tower

The tower accounts for a significant proportion of the entire wind turbine, both in size and mass.

The baseline tower is 80 m high and is built for IEC IA (high) wind conditions. Other tower heights are available for other wind conditions for the turbine. Towers are designed for different heights to suit different wind speeds and local site conditions and physical loading.

Towers for Vestas' turbines are to a minor extent manufactured at Vestas' own factories, but the majority are purchased from sub-suppliers. In this LCA, data from towers manufactured by Vestas has been used.

Towers are manufactured primarily of structural steel. The steel is delivered to Vestas in steel plates. The steel plates are cut and the cut-off waste is recycled. The steel plates are then rolled and welded into tower sections. Subsequent surface treatment (i.e. sandblasting) and painting of towers is performed by either Vestas or at sub-suppliers.

Following the surface treatment, the tower sections are fitted with "internals" such as: platforms, ladders and fixtures for cables. Finally, the controller units in the bottom of the tower are installed.

B.5 Turbine transformer

Data for the V90-3.0MW turbine transformer is based on supplier data, which shows that the transformer mainly consists of steel, copper, aluminium and resin.

B.6 Cables

Data for the cables in the tower is based on supplier statement. According to the supplier, the cables mainly consist of aluminium, copper, steel and polymers.

B.7 Controller units and other electronics

The controller units mainly consist of signal and power electronics, which were approximated using generic GaBi datasets for the production of electronics. Material and mass details for the switchgears used for the power plant originate from information from the sub-suppliers and experts at Vestas.

B.8 Anchor

The anchor component is mainly composed of steel (cage), PVC and copper (for earthing). These materials are included in this LCA as part of the bill-of-materials for the wind turbine.

B.9 Foundation

The turbines are erected on foundations. Each turbine foundation is linked to an access road and working/turning area. The construction of access roads is included in this LCA, as described below. There are two general kinds of foundations depending on the water level, as follows:

- high groundwater level - indicates a (maximum) groundwater level equal to the level of the terrain, which requires more concrete and steel reinforcement; and
- low groundwater level – low ground water scenario.

The low groundwater level case has been chosen as the base case as it represents the majority of wind plant sites. The foundation size also varies depending on the wind speed and loading, which has been accounted for in the LCA. The data for material composition is from Vestas design specifications.

B.10 Site cables

30 km of 33 kV PEX cables with aluminium conductor is used for internal cables in the wind power plant i.e. for connecting between the turbines and between the turbine plant and the 100 MVA transformer. This cable length consists of various cables with differing aluminium conductor area of 95mm² (16.5km), 240mm² (4.5km) and 400mm² (9km), which represent a layout for this size of plant. According to the supplier, the cables mainly consist of aluminium, copper and polymer materials. The manufacturer has provided data for the materials used.

20km of high voltage 110kV PEX cables with aluminium conductor (630mm²) is used to connect the wind plant to the grid. These are mainly composed of aluminium, copper and polymer materials.

B.11 Wind plant transformer

A 100 MVA transformer has been included in the wind plant. The transformer is modelled from an EPD from ABB on a Power transformer 250 MVA and scaled down to 100 MVA (based on MVA rating).

B.12 Access roads

Generally a combination of tarred roads and dirt roads need to be built to provide access to the power plant turbines, which are often located in remote locations. It has been estimated that 10 km of tarred road is needed per power plant.

Annex C Manufacturing processes

Vestas' resource consumption and emissions for manufacturing of turbines is reported on a quarterly basis from each of the more than 100 sites which include all operations from cast houses and foundries to sales offices. All of these have been included in the LCA and grouped according to the kind of operation being carried out at the sites, as shown in Table C1. Country-specific energy mixes and auxiliary material datasets have been used for each of the sites wherever possible. This also includes sustainable energy shares reported by Vestas sites.

Table C1: Vestas manufacturing locations and other sites

Factory Class	Description	Allocation Rule
Assembly	Factories where the nacelle and all other turbine parts are put together.	kg of nacelle produced
Tower	Tower shells are fabricated and assembled into sections.	kg of tower produced
Blades	Manufacturing of blades. See Annex B.2 for more details.	kg of blades produced
Generator	Production of the generator.	MW of power shipped
Controls	Fabrication of controller equipment (electronics).	Number of turbines produced
Sales	Includes sales, servicing and installation.	Number of turbines produced
Overheads	General offices and research and development.	Number of turbines produced
Casting	Cast houses and foundries.	kg of metal cast
Machining	Factories for machining and finishing casted products.	kg of metal machined

Since all materials that form part of the turbine are included in the bill-of-materials, only auxiliaries (i.e. materials that are consumed in the process of fabrication) are included in these manufacturing processes. An assumption for the transport of raw materials is included in the model, and a sensitivity analysis for transport is included in the LCA.

Vestas casts approximately 30% of all cast parts used in the turbine. Due to lack of supplier data, the casting and machining processes from Vestas were used to proxy the casting and machining of larger parts of the turbine that are purchased. Metal waste from casting and machining is re-melted and used again in the fabrication process.

Other wastes are also included in the model but are not treated.

Annex D Data quality evaluation

Annex D provides a summary of the checks made in the LCA for data completeness, consistency and representativeness. The following important areas are identified for this LCA:

- production LCI datasets for iron, steel, aluminium, concrete, copper, composites and polymers;
- end-of-life crediting method and LCI datasets used for crediting;
- power plant lifetime;
- power plant electricity production;
- transport datasets; and
- coverage of LCIA characterisation factors.

Table D1 provides further details of the results of the evaluation which indicates where there have been deviations and also gives an overall brief summary of consistency.

Table D1: Data quality evaluation (part 1)

Parameter	Requirement	Production LCI datasets for iron	Production LCI datasets for steel	Production LCI datasets for aluminium	Production LCI datasets for concrete
General description	-	Iron is primarily used as structural components in the nacelle and hub, as well as the generator housing; comprising of about 10% mass of the turbine itself. Different cast grades are used, such as EN GJS 400 18 LT, EN GJS 350 22 LT and EN GJS 250. Vestas operates its own casting and machining operations for many components used in the turbine.	Steel is primarily used in the tower, nacelle, hub & nose cone (comprising about 70% of the turbine mass), as well as the turbine foundations. Different steel grades are used, including plate steel (tower), structural steel and stainless steels (used for example in the gearbox and fixing bolts).	Aluminium is mainly used in the turbine nacelle (around 65% plant mass) for the wind power plant, along with other components in the turbine. The aluminium grades vary according to the application in the wind plant. But generally the aluminium ingot dataset is used.	Concrete is used in the turbine foundation and three different grades are used (C12, C30 and C45), which are represented in the LCA datasets.
LCI dataset used (where applicable)	-	Datasets include: DE: Cast iron component	Datasets include: RER: Steel plate worldsteel RER: Steel FCRC worldsteel Steel billet (X12CrNi17 7) RER: Stainless steel cold rolled coil (304) Eurofer	Datasets include: Aluminium ingot mix Aluminium ingot for extrusion Aluminium cast parts	Datasets include: Concrete C12/15 Concrete C30/37 (also used for C45 concrete)
Time-related coverage	Data should represent the situation in 2011 and cover a period representing a complete calendar year.	Dataset published in 2011. Technology considered representative for 2011.	PE datasets published in 2011. Technology considered representative for 2011.	Dataset published in 2011. Technology considered representative for 2011.	Dataset published in 2011. Technology considered representative for 2011.
Geographical coverage	Data should be representative of the Vestas global supply chain.	The data set does not necessarily fit for any possible specific supply situation, but is representative for a common supply chain situation. The dataset represents a production mix at producer for German	Primarily worldsteel, Eurofer and PE datasets have been used in the LCA. Datasets generally based on a weighted average site-specific data (gate-to-gate) of European steel producers. This is	The dataset does not necessarily fit for any possible specific supply situation, but is representative for a common supply chain situation. The dataset represents a production mix at producer for German	The dataset does not necessarily fit for any possible specific supply situation, but is representative for a common supply chain situation. The dataset represents a production mix at producer for

		infrastructure.	considered representative of the supply chain.	infrastructure.	German infrastructure.
Technology coverage	Technology (for manufacture, product usage and end-of-life management) should be representative of global supply conditions and technology.	The dataset represents a technology mix for manufacture in a cupola furnace and sand casting. The technology is considered representative.	Primarily worldsteel and Eurofer datasets have been used in the LCA which represent European averages. This is considered representative of the supply chain.	The dataset represents a technology mix for primary production. The technology is considered representative.	The dataset represents provision of a standard technical product and is considered representative.
Precision	No requirement specified.	No comments.	No comments.	No comments.	No comments.
Completeness	Specific datasets will be compared with literature data and databases, where applicable.	A comparison has not been made with other datasets, as these were not readily available in GaBi 5 (for cast iron).	Comparison has been made with global worldsteel sources of data, which show similar overall potential impacts. For example, on per kg basis of plate steel basis (used in tower) reveals for the global dataset that ecotox impacts are slightly higher (around +10%), GWP lower (-5%) and ADP higher (around +35%). These datasets used are considered the most comprehensive and representative available.	In general, comparisons have not been made with other sources of data. Datasets available relate only to European average and Germany. The datasets used are considered the most comprehensive and representative available.	Comparisons have not been made with other sources of data, as only datasets for Europe were available.
Representativeness	The data should fulfil the defined time-related, geographical and technological scope.	Dataset considered representative for time-related, geographical and technological scope.	Dataset considered representative for time-related, geographical and technological scope.	Dataset in general considered representative for time-related, geographical and technological scope.	Dataset in general considered representative for time-related, geographical and technological scope.
Consistency	The study methodology will be applied to all the	Dataset is considered internally consistent across the PE (2011) database of inventories	Dataset is considered internally consistent across the PE (2011) database of inventories	Dataset is considered internally consistent across the PE (2011) database of inventories	Dataset is considered internally consistent across the PE (2011) database of inventories

	components of the analysis.	which are applied throughout the LCA.	which are applied throughout the LCA.	which are applied throughout the LCA.	which are applied throughout the LCA.
Reproducibility	The information about the methodology and the data values should allow an independent practitioner to reproduce the results reported in the study.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered accessible to reproduce.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered accessible to reproduce.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered accessible to reproduce.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered accessible to reproduce.
Sources of the data	Data will be derived from credible sources and databases.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered credible source.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered credible source. Original data sources include: Worldsteel Life Cycle Inventory Study for Steel Industry Products, 2010 and Eurofer publications.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered credible source. Original data sources include: European Aluminium Association, Environmental Profile Report for the European Aluminium Industry, 2000 and Gesamtverband der Aluminiumindustrie e.V.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered credible source. Based on following reference: Eyerer, P.; Reinhardt, H.-W.: Ökologische Bilanzierung von Baustoffen und Gebäuden, Birkhäuser, Zürich / Switzerland, 2000

Table D1: Data quality evaluation (part 2)

Parameter	Production LCI datasets for copper	Production LCI datasets for polymers	Production LCI datasets for composites	Power plant lifetime
General description	Copper is mainly used in the site cables (around 50% plant mass) for the wind power plant, along with other components in the turbine. The copper grade may vary according to the application in the wind plant. But generally a copper ingot dataset is used.	Polymers are mainly used in the turbine nacelle (around 60%) for the wind power plant, along with other components in the turbine. The polymer type varies according to the application in the wind plant. But generally a representative dataset from PlasticsEurope or PE database has been used.	Composite materials of epoxy resin combined with either glass fibres or carbon fibres are primarily used in construction of the blades. The percentage of polymer to fibre depends on the location in the blade. Generally a representative dataset from PlasticsEurope is used or PE database has been used.	The power plant lifetime represents the design life of the power plant. The LCA assumes a lifetime of 20 years which matches the standard design life; however, the wind turbine industry is still young (starting for Vestas in 1979), and few turbines have ever been disposed, reaching operational lives of 30 years and over, for other Vestas turbine models.

LCI dataset used (where applicable)	Datasets include: DE: Copper ingot mix	Datasets include: DE: Polypropylene granulate (PP) RER: Polyethylene high density granulate RER: Polyvinyl chloride sheet (PVC) PlasticsEurope	Datasets include: Epoxy resin PE Glass fibres PE	Not relevant.
Time-related coverage	Dataset published in 2011. Technology considered representative for 2011.	Dataset published in 2011. Technology considered representative for 2011.	Dataset published in 2011. Technology considered representative for 2011.	Representative of specific turbine being assessed in reference time period.
Geographical coverage	The dataset represents consumption mix at consumer. The dataset represents a production mix at producer for German infrastructure.	Generally the dataset represents an average production mix for European infrastructure.	Generally the dataset represents an average production mix for European infrastructure.	Representative of specific turbine being assessed for geographical coverage.
Technology coverage	The dataset represents a technology mix for primary production. The technology is considered representative.	The datasets represents a European technology mix that is considered representative.	The datasets represents a European technology mix that is considered representative.	Representative of specific turbine being assessed for technology coverage.
Precision	No comments.	No comments.	No comments.	No comments.
Completeness	A comparison has been made with global PE dataset for copper ingot. On per kg basis this shows, generally higher overall potential impacts for the global dataset. For example, on per kg basis the global copper dataset has about 20% higher GWP impacts. The datasets used are considered representative.	In general, comparisons have not been made with other sources of data. Datasets available relate only to European average and Germany. The datasets used are considered the most comprehensive and representative available.	In general, comparisons have not been made with other sources of data. Datasets available relate only to European average and Germany. The datasets used are considered the most comprehensive and representative available.	The design life is a standard 20 years across all Vestas turbines (except V164 offshore platform which is 25 years).
Representativeness	Dataset in general considered representative for time-related, geographical and technological scope.	Dataset in general considered representative for time-related, geographical and technological scope.	Dataset in general considered representative for time-related, geographical and technological scope.	The lifetime is considered representative.
Consistency	Dataset is considered internally consistent across the PE (2011)	Dataset is considered internally consistent across the PE (2011)	Dataset is considered internally consistent across the PE (2011)	Not relevant.

	database of inventories which are applied throughout the LCA.	database of inventories which are applied throughout the LCA.	database of inventories which are applied throughout the LCA.	
Reproducibility	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered accessible to reproduce.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered accessible to reproduce.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered accessible to reproduce.	Not relevant.
Sources of the data	Dataset is published by PE (2006) and considered credible source.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered credible source. Includes on following reference: PlasticsEurope, Association of Plastics Manufacturers, Brussels	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered credible source.	Vestas wind turbine specifications.

Table D1: Data quality evaluation (part 3)

Parameter	Power plant electricity production	Transport datasets	End-of-life crediting method and LCI datasets used for crediting	Coverage of LCIA characterisation factors.
General description	Electricity production is substantially effected by the wind plant siting and site-specific wind conditions that the turbine operates under (i.e. low, medium or high wind classes defined by the IEC). Electricity production is very accurately measured for Vestas turbines. The turbine assessed in this LCA is designed for the low wind class, and has been assessed for average low wind conditions, which fairly reflects a 'typical' power plant.	In general, incoming raw materials and components are transported via 'default' transport modes, while the transport of turbine components (e.g. blades, nacelle and tower) use vehicles with specific transport gear to move those components to power plant site and at end-of-life.	At end-of-life the wind plant components are dismantled and waste management options include: recycling; incineration with energy recovery; component reuse; and redeposition to landfill. The LCA accounts for specific recycling rates of different turbine components, depending on their material purity and ease of disassembly, based upon industry data. System expansion is used to account for recycling credits for metals. In general, datasets for input materials are the same as those used for recycling credits. All input scrap metal has been applied with primary or scrap burdens.	The selection of the impact categories assessed in this study is representative of those impacts that are likely to arise from a wind plant system, based on the CML (2009) baseline characterisation factors for mid-point potential impacts. Ozone depletion potential (ODP) has been omitted from the selected impact categories as this is not considered to be significant.

LCI dataset used (where applicable)	Not relevant.	Datasets include: GLO: Container ship ELCD GLO: Rail transport cargo GLO: Truck Plus modified datasets of the above.	Datasets include: RER: Value of scrap worldsteel RER: Aluminium ingot mix (2005) EAA GLO: Copper mix PE	Not relevant.
Time-related coverage	Representative of specific turbine being assessed in reference time period.	Dataset published in 2011. Technology considered representative for 2011.	Dataset published in 2011. Technology considered representative for 2011.	The CML (2009) baseline characterisation factors are considered representative for 2011.
Geographical coverage	Representative of specific turbine being assessed for geographical coverage.	The datasets represent a global mix, while modified datasets are based on specific transport fuel-use data from European and Asian suppliers (for blades, nacelle and tower).	Generally the datasets used for crediting represent an average production mix for European infrastructure.	The impact categories occur on different geographical scales, ranging from global impacts (such as global warming potential) to regional impacts (such as acidification potential) and local impacts (such as aquatic toxicity or human toxicity potential). The LCA does not account for specific local or regional conditions for these emissions.
Technology coverage	Representative of specific turbine being assessed for technology coverage.	The datasets represents a European and Asian technology mix that is considered representative.	The datasets represents average European or global technology mix that is considered representative.	The selected impact categories cover those associated with the wind power plant, such as for metal production, fabrication and recycling (of which the turbine itself is constituted of around 84% metals), as well as other materials contained within the turbine and power plant, such a concrete, polymers and composite materials.
Precision	No comments.	No comments.	No comments.	No comments.
Completeness	The electricity production is representative of the actual turbine and conditions being assessed.	Comparisons have not been made with other sources of data.	Comparisons have not been made with other sources of data.	A general check was made for metal, polymer and concrete production LCIs that important substance flows were covered in the CML characterisation factors. These are considered complete. Also, the

				<p>following impact categories were assessed using IMPACT 2002+ and considered reasonably similar for this study compared to CML. Similar components dominate the life cycle impacts, although often different substances are the main contributors to the impacts.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aquatic acidification - Midpoint • Aquatic ecotoxicity - Midpoint • Aquatic eutrophication - Midpoint • Photochemical oxidation - Midpoint • Terrestrial acidification/nutritification • Terrestrial ecotoxicity - Midpoint
Representativeness	The electricity production is considered representative and has been assessed for average low wind conditions.	Dataset in general considered representative for time-related, geographical and technological scope.	The datasets in general considered representative for time-related, geographical and technological scope.	The datasets in general considered representative for time-related, geographical and technological scope.
Consistency	Not relevant.	Dataset is considered internally consistent across the PE (2011) database of inventories which are applied throughout the LCA.	Dataset is considered internally consistent across the PE (2011) database of inventories which are applied throughout the LCA.	The impact assessment method is applied consistently throughout the LCA.
Reproducibility	Not relevant.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered accessible to reproduce.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered accessible to reproduce.	Dataset is published by CML (2009) and considered accessible to reproduce.
Sources of the data	Vestas internal data for the electricity production of the wind turbine. This is based upon actual turbine test data for a typical power production curve and using analysis software (based on T-CAT) of the specific turbine performance data.	Dataset is published by PE (2006) and considered credible source. Modified datasets for turbine component transport are specific data from Vestas suppliers.	Dataset is published by PE (2011) and considered credible source. Includes on following reference: European Aluminium Association, worldsteel and PE database (2011).	Dataset is published by CML (2009) the Centre for Environmental Science, Leiden University.

Annex E Turbine wind class

Turbine wind class is one of the factors which needs to be considered during the complex process of planning a wind power plant. The wind class determine which turbine is suitable for the wind conditions of a particular site.

The DS/ EN 61400 standard specifies the essential design requirements to ensure the engineering integrity of wind turbines, including the wind turbine class. Its purpose is to provide an appropriate level of protection against damage from all hazards during the planned lifetime.

This standard is concerned with all subsystems of wind turbines, but in relation to wind, the standard specifies wind turbines for low, medium and high class designations with reference wind speed and turbulence intensity, as defined in Table E1. The wind turbine class is defined by the average annual wind speed (measured at the turbine's hub height), the speed of extreme gusts that could occur over 50 years, and how much turbulence there is at the wind site.

For the LCA, electricity generation from the turbine is assumed at the following average wind speeds. This represents the mid-point of each wind class.

- high wind speed is assumed to be 9.25 m/s;
- medium wind speed is assumed to be 8.0 m/s; and
- low wind speed is assumed to be 7 m/s.

The wind turbine is functionally designed for specific wind classifications and when comparisons are made between turbines, these should only be compared within a specific wind class for which the turbine is designed.

Table E1: Wind turbine classes

Turbine Class	IEC I High Wind	IEC II Medium Wind	IEC III Low Wind
Annual average wind speed	8.5 to 10 m/s	7.5 to 8.5 m/s	6.5 to 7.5 m/s
Extreme 50-year gust	70 m/s	59.5 m/s	52.5 m/s
Turbulence classes	A 18%	A 18%	A 18%
	B 16%	B 16%	B 16%

International Electrotechnical Commission standard (IEC)

Vestas has an extensive portfolio of turbines which are each suited to specific conditions and requirements, Table E2 shows the various wind turbines and their wind classes.

Table E2: Vestas wind turbines

Turbine Class	IEC I High Wind	IEC II Medium Wind	IEC III Low Wind	Published LCA of turbine completed (year)
Onshore				
V52-850 kW	X	X		No
V60-850 kW		X	X	No
V82- 1.65 MW		X	X	Yes (2006)
V80-2.0 MW	X			Yes (2004)
V80-2.0 MW GridStreamer™	X			Yes (2011)
V90-1.8 MW		X		No
V90-1.8 MW GridStreamer™		X		No
V90-2.0 MW			X	No
V90-2.0 MW GridStreamer™			X	Yes (2011)
V90-2.0 MW GridStreamer™(IEC IA)	X	X	X	No
V100-1.8 MW			X	No
V100-1.8 MW GridStreamer™			X	Yes (2011)
V100-2.0 MW GridStreamer™(IEC IIA)		X	X	No
V100-2.6 MW		X	X	Yes (2012)
V90-3.0 MW	X	X		Yes (2012)
V112-3.0 MW		X	X	Yes (2011)
Offshore				
V90-3.0 MW Offshore	X	X		Yes (2006)
V112-3.0 MW Offshore	X	X		No
V164-7.0 MW Offshore	X	X		No

Annex F General uncertainties in life cycle assessment

The main mythological assumptions and uncertainties made in the LCA are described below.

F.1 Foreground (primary) data

The primary data collected by Vestas are considered to be of high quality and the modelling has been carried out to an extremely high level of detail. The GaBi DfX software was used to assess the wind turbine production down to the level of individual components. The BOM used contained around 25,000 items. This LCA has covered 99.5% of the total mass of the turbine itself, and about 99.9% of the entire mass of the power plant. Missing information relates to parts where the material was not identified. Manufacturing data were based on average production in Vestas global production facilities as described in Annex C and are also considered to be of high quality.

F.2 Background (secondary) data

A major source of uncertainty in any LCA study is the use of background (secondary) data rather than primary data specific to the system being studied. This study is a model of a typical 'virtual' wind plant so it is not possible to entirely specify how (un)representative the background data may be, as this would be dependent upon the location of an actual wind plant. However, for issues relating to wind power technology it is reasonable to assume that the same production processes will be applied regardless of location so it is not expected that this will lead to major inaccuracies in the results.

F.3 Allocation

Allocation was applied to the production data as described in Annex C. Different allocation rules would generate different results but the ones selected are based on physical properties of the system in alignment with the ISO standards for LCA. Allocation may also be applied in some of the background datasets for the production of materials, fuels and energy. These assumptions are described in the dataset documentation from PE (2011). The datasets have not been adjusted for any allocation procedures made. Lastly, allocation is also applied to the site transformer, based on MVA rating, which has been scaled down from 250MVA to 100MVA to represent the requirements of the 90MW wind plant, where material and production data were taken from the manufacturers EPD.

F.4 Recycling approach

In relation to the recycling methodology used, this LCA uses an 'avoided impacts' approach for the crediting, accounting also for burdens of input scrap from primary production of metals; methodologically speaking, this is a consistent approach to crediting. Additionally, specific parts of the turbine and power plant are applied different recycling rates dependent on their ease to disassemble and recycle. Also the LCA presents the results if a 'recycled content approach' is used for crediting the metal at end-of-life; based upon the standard industry datasets for average international recycling rates.

F.5 Impact assessment

Uncertainty is also introduced in the impact assessment phase of the LCA, which will vary according to the impact categories assessed. The main issues are:

- completeness: does the impact assessment methodology consider all potential contributing substances/emissions; and
- characterisation: has the degree of impact caused by each substance species been characterised appropriately.

Certain impact categories, such as global warming potential, are considered scientifically robust in both of these aspects; however, toxicity impacts, such as human toxicity and eco-toxicity, are less well developed and consequently less reliance should be placed on these categories.

Based on a check of the completeness of the characterisation factors used in the CML method (for the impact categories assessed in this LCA), it is considered that all relevant substances have been characterised that are of relevance to the turbine life cycle. There are also no unusual or special elements or substances that have been identified in the data collection stage which require special account.

Annex G Life cycle inventory

Table G1 shows the life cycle inventory results for 1 kWh of electricity supplied to the grid for the V90-3.0MW turbine. A mass cut-off has been applied to Table G1 in order to limit the number of flows presented to a reasonable number. Where substances that fall below cut-off were identified in the LCIA these have also been included.

Table G1: Life cycle inventory of 90MW power plant of V90-3.0MW turbines (units shown in mg per kWh)

Flow	Unit	Turbine	Foundations	Site parts	Plant setup	Replacements/ servicing	End-of-life	Total
Energy resources								
Non-renewable energy resources								
Crude oil (resource)	mg per kWh	3.8E+02	1.6E+02	7.4E+01	1.5E+02	4.0E+01	-4.6E+01	7.6E+02
Hard coal (resource)	mg per kWh	1.3E+03	2.5E+02	6.8E+01	7.7E-01	1.4E+02	-8.1E+02	9.1E+02
Lignite (resource)	mg per kWh	2.4E+02	6.0E+01	4.1E+01	4.6E-01	3.9E+01	2.4E+01	4.0E+02
Natural gas (resource)	mg per kWh	3.2E+02	3.2E+01	5.9E+01	1.0E+01	2.8E+01	3.6E+01	4.8E+02
Renewable energy resources								
Renewable fuels	mg per kWh	1.7E+00	2.8E-03	2.0E-01	0.0E+00	6.5E-01	-1.1E-02	2.5E+00
Material resources								
Non-renewable elements								
Chromium	mg per kWh	6.0E+01	4.2E+01	1.0E+01	1.5E-04	1.5E+01	-4.6E-03	1.3E+02
Copper	mg per kWh	4.0E+01	6.9E+00	2.4E+01	1.2E-04	1.1E+01	-4.5E+01	3.7E+01
Iron	mg per kWh	5.6E+01	2.4E+01	4.3E+00	6.2E-02	6.9E+00	1.9E-01	9.1E+01
Lead	mg per kWh	4.0E+00	4.1E-02	3.9E+00	1.1E-03	1.8E-01	-6.7E-01	7.5E+00

Manganese	mg per kWh	3.9E+00	3.2E-02	4.2E-01	9.7E-04	1.4E+00	-2.2E-04	5.7E+00
Molybdenum	mg per kWh	1.1E+00	3.9E-01	1.5E-01	1.1E-06	4.2E-01	-1.3E-02	2.0E+00
Nickel	mg per kWh	4.8E+00	2.5E+00	9.5E-01	-3.7E-06	1.3E+00	8.1E-05	9.5E+00
Silicon	mg per kWh	2.1E-03	1.0E+00	7.8E-07	2.5E-08	6.8E-06	-2.2E-05	1.0E+00
Tantalum	mg per kWh	3.3E+01	9.9E-04	4.3E-01	1.5E-05	1.0E-02	-2.3E-05	3.4E+01
Zinc	mg per kWh	9.4E+00	2.3E-01	2.1E+01	3.6E-04	2.3E-01	-1.0E+00	3.0E+01

Non-renewable resources

Basalt	mg per kWh	6.4E-01	1.1E+00	2.6E-01	2.3E-06	1.0E-01	-6.8E-01	1.4E+00
Bentonite	mg per kWh	7.9E-01	1.4E+00	1.6E-01	9.1E-02	3.4E-02	2.3E-01	2.7E+00
Chromium ore (39%)	mg per kWh	6.0E-01	-1.9E-03	7.4E-02	0.0E+00	2.3E-01	8.2E-03	9.1E-01
Clay	mg per kWh	-4.1E+00	2.5E+01	2.1E+00	1.9E-02	-1.2E-01	2.0E+01	4.2E+01
Colemanite ore	mg per kWh	1.0E+01	1.1E-02	2.5E-02	4.9E-04	8.0E-02	7.4E-04	1.0E+01
Copper - Gold - Silver - ore (1.0% Cu; 0.4 g/t Au; 66 g/t Ag)	mg per kWh	1.8E+01	3.1E-03	1.2E-02	0.0E+00	-6.8E-04	-2.1E-02	1.8E+01
Copper - Gold - Silver - ore (1.1% Cu; 0.01 g/t Au; 2.86 g/t Ag)	mg per kWh	1.3E+01	3.8E-01	5.5E-02	0.0E+00	2.6E-01	-9.8E-01	1.2E+01
Copper - Gold - Silver - ore (1.16% Cu; 0.002 g/t Au; 1.06 g/t Ag)	mg per kWh	7.1E+00	2.2E-01	3.1E-02	0.0E+00	1.5E-01	-5.5E-01	6.9E+00

Copper ore (1.2%)	mg per kWh	1.9E+00	3.3E-04	1.2E-03	0.0E+00	-7.1E-05	-2.1E-03	1.9E+00
Dolomite	mg per kWh	3.9E+01	2.0E+01	2.8E+00	6.3E-06	3.7E+00	-1.8E+01	4.8E+01
Fluorspar (calcium fluoride; fluorite)	mg per kWh	1.0E+00	2.5E-02	9.8E-01	5.3E-04	2.2E-01	-1.5E+00	8.1E-01
Gypsum (natural gypsum)	mg per kWh	-5.8E+00	2.1E+01	2.9E-02	3.3E-03	-7.7E-01	6.1E+00	2.1E+01
Heavy spar (BaSO ₄)	mg per kWh	6.8E-01	1.2E-01	2.2E-01	9.7E-07	-2.4E-02	-2.8E-02	9.7E-01
Inert rock	mg per kWh	1.6E+04	3.2E+03	4.0E+03	1.2E+01	3.1E+03	-1.5E+04	1.1E+04
Iron ore (56.86%)	mg per kWh	1.7E+03	3.8E+02	1.6E+01	0.0E+00	1.8E+02	-1.5E+03	7.9E+02
Kaolin ore	mg per kWh	2.0E+01	2.7E-01	4.1E-02	8.6E-04	6.1E-01	-3.0E-01	2.0E+01
Limestone (calcium carbonate)	mg per kWh	1.6E+02	8.7E+02	1.5E+01	8.3E-01	1.1E+01	-1.2E+01	1.0E+03
Magnesium chloride leach (40%)	mg per kWh	2.2E+00	1.3E-02	8.7E-02	3.6E-03	2.0E-01	4.9E-01	3.0E+00
Manganese ore (R.O.M.)	mg per kWh	1.5E+01	5.3E+00	1.7E-01	0.0E+00	1.7E+00	-1.3E+01	9.6E+00
Natural Aggregate	mg per kWh	-8.0E+01	4.5E+03	2.5E+01	5.1E-02	2.0E+01	7.2E+01	4.6E+03
Nickel ore (1.6%)	mg per kWh	1.0E+00	1.4E-01	3.0E-01	0.0E+00	1.0E-01	-5.6E-01	9.7E-01
Potashsalt. crude (hard salt. 10% K ₂ O)	mg per kWh	4.1E+00	1.2E+00	8.8E-02	2.5E+00	4.0E-01	-1.3E+00	6.9E+00
Quartz sand (silica sand; silicon dioxide)	mg per kWh	1.4E+02	1.1E+01	3.3E+01	1.6E-02	2.2E+01	-2.0E+01	1.8E+02
Rare-earth ore	mg per kWh	2.1E+01	0.0E+00	5.7E-01	0.0E+00	0.0E+00	0.0E+00	2.2E+01

Raw pumice	mg per kWh	3.1E-01	1.8E+00	6.7E-02	2.1E-06	4.6E-02	-1.6E-05	2.3E+00
Sodium chloride (rock salt)	mg per kWh	8.3E+01	1.2E+00	1.1E+01	9.5E-02	2.8E+00	-6.7E+00	9.1E+01
Soil	mg per kWh	6.8E+01	8.9E+02	3.2E+01	1.1E-01	1.3E+01	8.1E+00	1.0E+03
Stone from mountains	mg per kWh	1.2E+00	8.7E-03	9.2E-02	3.0E-03	7.9E-02	1.3E-03	1.4E+00
Talc	mg per kWh	1.6E+00	-5.5E-06	4.4E-03	1.0E-10	6.5E-03	2.6E-05	1.6E+00
Titanium ore	mg per kWh	5.9E+00	2.2E-01	1.4E-02	0.0E+00	1.7E-01	-8.9E-01	5.4E+00
Vanadium ore (ROM)	mg per kWh	5.8E+00	4.5E+00	7.0E-02	0.0E+00	1.3E+00	-1.0E+01	1.3E+00
Zinc - copper ore (4.07%-2.59%)	mg per kWh	7.7E+00	9.2E-01	2.3E-02	0.0E+00	8.1E-01	-6.3E+00	3.1E+00
Zinc - lead - copper ore (12%-3%-2%)	mg per kWh	4.8E+00	3.9E-01	1.1E-02	0.0E+00	3.5E-01	-2.7E+00	2.8E+00
Renewable resources								
Water	mg per kWh	3.5E+04	8.6E+03	5.0E+03	3.7E+03	3.0E+03	-9.5E+03	4.6E+04
Air	mg per kWh	1.6E+04	8.9E+02	2.2E+03	3.3E+01	1.7E+03	6.3E+02	2.2E+04
Carbon dioxide	mg per kWh	1.5E+02	2.4E+01	3.4E+01	1.1E+01	2.7E+01	-1.8E+01	2.3E+02
Nitrogen	mg per kWh	2.6E+00	6.7E-02	3.9E+00	7.3E-09	5.7E-02	-2.1E-04	6.6E+00
Emissions to air								
Inorganic emissions to air								

Carbon dioxide	mg per kWh	5.2E+03	1.2E+03	5.7E+02	2.7E+02	5.5E+02	-2.0E+03	5.8E+03
Carbon dioxide (biotic)	mg per kWh	1.2E+02	3.5E+01	1.3E+01	2.3E-01	2.2E+01	9.0E+00	2.0E+02
Carbon monoxide	mg per kWh	3.6E+01	8.2E+00	8.7E-01	1.7E+00	3.5E+00	-2.5E+01	2.5E+01
Nitrogen (atmospheric nitrogen)	mg per kWh	8.3E+01	1.1E-01	7.7E-01	3.5E-03	8.4E-01	-2.3E-01	8.5E+01
Nitrogen oxides	mg per kWh	1.5E+01	2.3E+00	9.8E-01	2.9E+00	1.1E+00	-1.8E+00	2.1E+01
Oxygen	mg per kWh	1.6E+01	3.4E-01	1.4E+01	2.1E-04	3.4E-01	2.2E-01	3.1E+01
Sulphur dioxide	mg per kWh	1.4E+01	1.9E+00	2.0E+00	3.7E-01	1.2E+00	-5.2E+00	1.4E+01
Water (evapotranspiration)	mg per kWh	4.3E+03	1.4E+03	1.7E+02	3.5E+03	4.3E+02	-1.6E+02	9.6E+03
Water vapour	mg per kWh	9.5E+03	7.8E+02	6.5E+03	8.1E+01	1.3E+03	-1.5E+03	1.7E+04
Organic emissions to air (group VOC)								
Group NMVOC to air	mg per kWh	2.2E+00	2.7E-01	1.3E-01	8.2E-01	1.8E-01	-2.3E-01	3.3E+00
Methane	mg per kWh	1.3E+01	2.4E+00	1.3E+00	2.8E-01	1.3E+00	-5.3E+00	1.3E+01
VOC (unspecified)	mg per kWh	9.8E-01	1.4E-04	2.2E-03	0.0E+00	7.0E-02	3.7E-03	1.1E+00
Other emissions to air	mg per kWh	1.1E+04	7.2E+02	1.7E+03	2.3E+01	1.2E+03	7.6E+02	1.5E+04
Particles to air								
Dust (> PM10)	mg per kWh	2.2E-01	4.2E-02	2.1E-02	2.8E-04	4.7E-02	-7.3E-03	3.2E-01

Dust (PM10)	mg per kWh	5.1E-01	2.4E-02	2.6E-02	0.0E+00	1.5E-02	-1.2E-01	4.6E-01
Dust (PM2.5 - PM10)	mg per kWh	1.4E-01	1.4E-01	3.8E-02	4.8E-03	2.6E-02	5.8E-02	4.1E-01
Dust (PM2.5)	mg per kWh	1.3E+00	2.1E-01	1.9E-01	1.4E-03	2.7E-01	-1.5E-01	1.8E+00
Dust (unspecified)	mg per kWh	2.1E+00	3.0E-01	2.1E-01	0.0E+00	1.8E-01	-1.3E+00	1.5E+00

Emissions to fresh water

Adsorbable organic halogen compounds (AOX)	mg per kWh	3.5E-01	6.8E-04	9.7E-04	3.5E-05	2.1E-03	4.7E-03	3.6E-01
Biological oxygen demand (BOD)	mg per kWh	2.7E-01	1.1E-02	5.2E-03	7.2E-04	1.2E-02	-1.9E-02	2.8E-01
Chemical oxygen demand (COD)	mg per kWh	2.9E+00	1.6E-01	1.9E-01	5.2E-03	2.3E-01	-1.0E-01	3.4E+00
Solids (dissolved)	mg per kWh	4.7E-01	5.1E-04	1.1E-01	3.2E-05	4.3E-03	1.9E-04	5.8E-01
Heavy metals to fresh water	mg per kWh	9.4E-01	3.2E-01	1.1E-01	2.7E-03	1.9E-01	3.4E-02	1.6E+00

Inorganic emissions to fresh water

Calcium (+II)	mg per kWh	2.4E+00	1.7E-01	1.8E-01	2.8E-03	1.6E-01	-4.0E-01	2.5E+00
Chloride	mg per kWh	2.7E+01	3.2E+00	2.4E+00	5.9E-01	2.2E+00	-6.3E+00	2.9E+01
Fluoride	mg per kWh	1.4E+00	9.8E-02	1.6E-01	1.7E-03	2.4E-01	-3.9E-02	1.9E+00
Hydrogen chloride	mg per kWh	9.3E-01	3.4E-02	1.8E-03	9.0E-09	2.8E-02	-1.4E-01	8.5E-01
Hydrogen peroxide	mg per kWh	1.0E+00	3.4E-05	1.2E-02	5.3E-07	3.5E-04	-7.9E-07	1.0E+00

Sodium (+I)	mg per kWh	6.4E+00	2.2E-01	7.0E-01	1.0E-02	2.7E-01	-5.0E-01	7.1E+00
Sodium chloride (rock salt)	mg per kWh	1.6E+01	5.7E-06	1.7E-01	4.1E-08	5.8E-01	-3.1E-07	1.7E+01
Sodium sulphate	mg per kWh	2.3E+01	7.4E-04	2.7E-01	1.1E-05	7.8E-03	-1.7E-05	2.3E+01
Sulphate	mg per kWh	3.8E+00	5.3E-01	1.5E+00	1.5E-02	5.0E-01	-5.5E-01	5.8E+00
Other emissions to fresh water								
Waste water	mg per kWh	9.2E+03	2.7E+03	7.3E+01	0.0E+00	7.4E+02	-5.0E+03	7.7E+03
Particles to fresh water	mg per kWh	4.9E+00	7.8E-01	5.3E-01	6.1E-01	2.2E-01	1.8E-01	7.2E+00
Solids (suspended)	mg per kWh	4.4E+00	6.1E-01	5.1E-01	2.0E-01	1.7E-01	2.0E-01	6.1E+00
Emissions to sea water								
Chloride	mg per kWh	1.2E+01	5.1E+00	1.4E+00	2.6E+00	1.2E+00	-1.3E+00	2.1E+01
Other emissions to sea water	mg per kWh	6.6E+02	1.5E+02	1.2E+02	7.6E+01	1.0E+02	-1.3E+01	1.1E+03
Particles to sea water	mg per kWh	2.8E-01	1.0E-01	6.2E-02	2.3E-02	2.7E-02	-2.9E-02	4.7E-01
Emissions to industrial soil								
Ammonia	mg per kWh	1.1E-02	3.0E-04	2.6E-03	2.2E-07	-1.2E-04	-9.2E-04	1.2E-02
Calcium (+II)	mg per kWh	2.0E-01	5.0E-01	1.5E-01	1.0E-03	4.9E-02	-1.2E-01	7.7E-01
Chloride	mg per kWh	1.1E-02	5.6E-03	3.7E-03	2.7E-05	1.2E-03	3.1E-02	5.3E-02

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