

**DIRECT TESTIMONY OF**

**ARJUN MAKHIJANI, Ph.D.**

**AND**

**SARA BARCZAK**

**ON BEHALF OF SOUTHERN ALLIANCE FOR CLEAN ENERGY**

**GPSC DOCKET NO. 24505-U**

**GEORGIA POWER'S INTEGRATED RESOURCE PLAN**

**MAY 4, 2007**

1 **I. Introduction**

2  
3 **Q. PLEASE STATE YOUR NAMES, TITLES AND BUSINESS ADDRESSES.**

4 **A.** (SB) My name is Sara Barczak. I am the Safe Energy Director at Southern Alliance for  
5 Clean Energy (SACE). My office address is 428 Bull Street, Suite 201, Savannah,  
6 Georgia 31401.

7 (AM) My name is Dr. Arjun Makhijani. I am the President of the Institute for  
8 Energy and Environmental Research (IEER). My office address is 6935 Laurel Avenue,  
9 #201, Takoma Park, Maryland 20912.

10 A copy of our current resumes is attached as Exhibit \_\_ AM,SB-1.

11  
12 **Q. MS. BARCZAK, PLEASE SUMMARIZE YOUR EDUCATION AND**  
13 **PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE.**

14 **A.** (SB) I worked for twelve years in diverse environmental fields in the private and non-  
15 profit sectors, including as an environmental consultant for Department of Defense  
16 facilities relating to hazardous waste and air quality issues and later as a citizens'  
17 advocate for two non-profit organizations focusing on environmental and public health  
18 issues. As Safe Energy Director for Southern Alliance for Clean Energy, I participate in  
19 legislative, state and federal regulatory proceedings and forums on issues concerning  
20 nuclear energy, public safety, utilities, and impacts of fossil fuel and nuclear power plants  
21 on the region's water quality. I received a B.A. degree in Biology from Lawrence  
22 University in Appleton, Wisconsin.

23  
24 **Q. DR. MAKHIJANI, PLEASE SUMMARIZE YOUR EDUCATION AND**  
25 **PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE.**

26 **A.** (AM) I have been President and Senior Engineer at the Institute for Energy and  
27 Environmental Research (IEER) for 19 years. IEER provides policy-makers, journalists,  
28 and the public with understandable and accurate scientific and technical information on  
29 energy and environmental issues. In that capacity, I have authored and produced many  
30 studies and articles on energy and nuclear energy related issues, including nuclear waste,  
31 security, and environmental and health impacts. I have served as an expert witness in

1 Nuclear Regulatory Commission proceedings and in legal proceedings relating to nuclear  
2 reactor accidents, and regulations relating to emissions from nuclear facilities such as  
3 uranium processing plants. Most recently, I have nearly completed a study on the  
4 feasibility of a zero-CO<sub>2</sub> economy in the United States without nuclear power or fossil  
5 fuels. This study will be published in 2007. I was the principal author of the first study  
6 done (completed in 1971) on energy efficiency potential of the U.S. economy and was the  
7 principal editor of *Nuclear Wastelands* and the principal author of *Mending the Ozone*  
8 *Hole*, both published by MIT Press. Previous employment included serving as an  
9 Assistant and Associate Professor at Capitol College in Maryland and as a Visiting  
10 Professor at the National Institute of Bank Management, Bombay, India. I have served as  
11 an Independent Consultant for over three decades on a variety of issues, including  
12 electricity rates and investment planning, energy efficiency, technical and economic  
13 analyses of alternative energy sources, modeling of electric utility economics, analysis of  
14 energy use in agriculture, U.S. energy policy, energy policy for the Third World, and  
15 evaluations of portions of the nuclear fuel cycle. Clients in the 1975-87 period included:  
16 Tennessee Valley Authority, Lower Colorado River Authority, Federation of Rocky  
17 Mountain States, Environmental Policy Institute, and Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory,  
18 among others. I hold a Ph.D. in Engineering (specialization: controlled nuclear fusion)  
19 from the University of California, Berkeley, 1972; a M.S. in Electrical Engineering from  
20 Washington State University, Pullman, Washington, 1967; and a Bachelor of Engineering  
21 (Electrical) from the University of Bombay, Bombay, India, 1965.

## 22 **II. Overview of Southern Alliance for Clean Energy's Concerns**

### 23 **Q. WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF YOUR TESTIMONY?**

24  
25 A. (SB & AM) The purpose of our testimony is to provide background on how the  
26 conclusions in the Company's IRP regarding its desire to build new baseload nuclear  
27 power plants in Georgia potentially threatens ratepayers and the general public.  
28 Specifically, our testimony is intended to provide the Commission with information on  
29 the risks associated with the development of a new nuclear reactor or reactors in Georgia  
30

1 as it pertains to environmental, nuclear waste, and security concerns that have significant  
2 potential to negatively impact ratepayers and the general public.

3  
4 **Q. HAS THE PANEL REVIEWED THE COMPANY’S INTEGRATED RESOURCE**  
5 **PLAN AND ASSOCIATED PUBLIC FILINGS?**

6 **A.** (SB & AM) Yes.

7  
8 **Q. HAVE EITHER OF THE MEMBERS OF THE PANEL SIGNED A**  
9 **CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT ALLOWING THE SIGNATORY TO**  
10 **REVIEW THE UNREDACTED VERSION(S) OF THE IRP AND ASSOCIATED**  
11 **FILINGS?**

12 **A.** (SB & AM) No. In this testimony we have relied on the redacted versions of the IRP  
13 filings and other public sources of information. A complete list of references cited is  
14 included at the end of our testimony.

15  
16 **Q. PLEASE SUMMARIZE YOUR CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE GEORGIA**  
17 **POWER IRP.**

18 **A.** (SB & AM)

19 1) The Georgia Power IRP claims that “[a]dding new coal or nuclear baseload generation  
20 will ensure that there remains a diversity of generation to protect customers from fuel  
21 volatility associated with natural gas prices.”<sup>1</sup> However, our analysis shows that the  
22 construction of new nuclear or coal fired capacity in Georgia would not improve the  
23 diversity of the State’s electricity sector. The state is already heavily reliant on coal and  
24 nuclear power and even if all the new demand projected for 2015 were met with natural  
25 gas (not an option that we support), Georgia would still remain dependent on coal and  
26 nuclear power. The construction of a new nuclear power plant would only further  
27 increase this dependence.

28 The range of options for power supply that should be considered in the IRP are  
29 broader than presented under the traditional three-sector analysis of baseload,  
30 intermediate load, and peaking power plants. Compared to the rest of the United States,

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<sup>1</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 1-6

1 in 2005 Georgia had a less diverse electricity sector and lagged behind in developing  
2 renewable energy resources. The development of renewable resources would, therefore,  
3 have a far more positive impact on diversifying the State's energy mix. Significantly,  
4 despite collaborating with Georgia Tech's Strategic Energy Institute to study offshore  
5 wind potential in the State, Georgia Power dropped any consideration of wind in the IRP  
6 from detailed consideration. The Company should have maintained offshore wind as a  
7 potentially viable supply option in the IRP. Further, the wind resource should be  
8 evaluated in combination with other resources such as combined cycle standby capacity,  
9 and hydropower resources given that such combinations improve the overall reliability of  
10 the system and reduces the cost of wind integration into the grid. Finally, the cost of  
11 solar PV at intermediate levels (~several hundred kW to a few MW), installed for  
12 instance in large commercial parking lots and rooftops, has declined dramatically in the  
13 past two years. Its consideration should be included in the IRP as part of the analysis of  
14 optimized supply options in combination with wind, natural gas combined cycle standby,  
15 and hydropower. It should also be included in the transmission plan.

16  
17 2) The IRP claims that “[w]hile it is impossible to estimate accurately future project  
18 costs, current industry projections show nuclear energy to be the lowest cost option for  
19 generation in 2015.”<sup>2</sup> However, from the public data that we have reviewed, it appears  
20 very unlikely that new nuclear power generation would be economically competitive with  
21 other options available. Recent studies on the economics of nuclear power conducted at  
22 the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the University of Chicago put the likely  
23 cost of electricity from new nuclear power plants well above the cost of electricity from  
24 natural gas or pulverized coal fired plants over the time period considered in the Georgia  
25 Power IRP. Similar conclusions were reached by a review from the Congressional  
26 Budget Office based on information provided by the Nuclear Regulatory Commission,  
27 the Department of Energy, and the nuclear industry. In addition, as noted by analysts at  
28 Standard & Poor's in their 2006 assessment of nuclear power, “given that construction  
29 would entail using new designs and technology, cost overruns are highly probable.”<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 6-5

<sup>3</sup> Kennedy et al. 2006

1           If newer coal fired technologies such as Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle  
2 (IGCC) are included in the mix of options, nuclear power is still not likely to be cost  
3 competitive. This conclusion is supported by reviews in a 2006 IEER study and a 2007  
4 study conducted at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Significantly, the U.S.  
5 Energy Information Administration’s 2007 *Energy Outlook* also predicts that both  
6 advanced coal fired plants and new natural gas fired plants would produce electricity  
7 cheaper than new nuclear power plants in 2015 and that new nuclear plants would still be  
8 a more expensive option in 2030. Our own evaluation of the cost of future combined  
9 cycle natural gas fired plants at \$7 or \$ 8 per million Btu fuel cost is that it would be  
10 about the same as nuclear power plant costs without even considering the financial  
11 uncertainties associated with waste, proliferation, and severe accident liabilities or the  
12 benefits associated with the short lead time of combined cycle plants. We are not  
13 advocating the use of new natural gas baseload plants but are presenting this as a point of  
14 comparison. In fact, we prefer energy efficiency in combination with greatly increased  
15 use of renewables.

16       3) Georgia Power explicitly notes that “[t]he best IRP is one that provides a high level of  
17 customer value while incorporating a broad range of potential changes.”<sup>4</sup> Among the  
18 “additional objectives” in the IRP noted by the company are “Flexibility - Can the Plan  
19 be altered if the future is different than expected?” and “Risk - Does the Plan represent a  
20 reasonable balance between risk and cost?”.<sup>5</sup> However, the IRP is seriously deficient in  
21 addressing the environmental, health, and security risks that would accompany any effort  
22 to build a new nuclear plant in Georgia.

23           Nuclear power is not a flexible choice for electricity generation. The potential for  
24 public pressure to shutdown existing plants in the wake of a serious accident or  
25 successful large scale terrorist attack on a nuclear power facility would leave open far  
26 fewer energy options (particularly in terms of reducing greenhouse emissions) if nuclear  
27 power was being expanded in Georgia. In addition, the economic vulnerability of future  
28 regulatory requirements in relation to protection of the public from terrorist attacks or as  
29 a result of new science on the hazards of radiation, such as the BEIR VII report of the

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<sup>4</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 2-4

<sup>5</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 2-4

1 National Academy of Sciences or the emerging science on the health risks of tritium,  
2 being integrated into the regulatory framework, also increases with increasing reliance on  
3 nuclear power plants.

4 The potential for catastrophic accidents are a unique vulnerability of nuclear  
5 power. However, the likelihood of such accidents occurring is extremely difficult to  
6 predict. The uncertainties in the methodology most commonly used to make these  
7 predictions are a particular concern for new reactor designs such as the Westinghouse  
8 AP-1000, proposed for consideration by Georgia Power, since this type of reactor does  
9 not exist anywhere but on paper. While it is true that new reactor designs are more  
10 advanced than those currently in existence, information is not yet available to determine  
11 whether or to what degree these advancements were, in fact, improvements.

12 Many of Georgia's power plants are among the largest water users in the state.  
13 Fossil fuel and nuclear power plants require large quantities of water to operate, in  
14 marked contrast to renewable energy supplies such as bio-energy, solar, and wind. Also,  
15 the adoption of energy efficient practices and technologies reduces system-wide energy  
16 needs, thereby reducing the water requirements of the electric system as a whole. When  
17 comparing types of energy generation in relation to their water withdrawal and  
18 consumption, nuclear power has higher rates of withdrawal and consumption than coal or  
19 natural gas. To put the proposed expansion of nuclear Plant Vogtle into perspective, with  
20 average per capita daily water use in Georgia at 75 gallons from surface and ground  
21 water, more water will be lost as steam from the two existing and two proposed reactors  
22 at Plant Vogtle than is used currently by all residents (2005 census) of Atlanta (470,688),  
23 Augusta (190,782) and Savannah (128,453) combined.<sup>6</sup>

24 Further, proposed new energy supply sources, such as expanding nuclear power  
25 generation at nuclear Plant Vogtle by building up to two new reactors, could reduce water  
26 availability in the Savannah River as climate change impacts, such as reduced summer  
27 river flow, develop. Also, there are existing water quality concerns that additional  
28 nuclear reactors at Plant Vogtle along the Savannah River could exacerbate. With  
29 saltwater intrusion of the Floridan Aquifer already occurring both Beaufort and Jasper  
30 counties in South Carolina and the Savannah area will become more dependent in the

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<sup>6</sup> Barczak 2007 pp. 2-3

1 future on the Savannah River for drinking water as will other areas near the Savannah  
2 River that are expanding due to population growth and development.

3 With regard to the high-level waste that would be generated by a new nuclear  
4 plant, it is important to consider the difficulties that have plagued the development of the  
5 nation's first high-level waste repository. Despite having already taken many decades,  
6 Yucca Mountain still faces many daunting hurdles before it could even obtain a license to  
7 begin construction. Moreover, development of a repository for existing waste should not  
8 be seen as a license for producing more waste from new power plants, since there is  
9 really no satisfactory solution to the problem of long-term waste management. Finally,  
10 proposals to reprocess spent fuel would greatly increase the vulnerabilities of a decision  
11 to build a new nuclear plant in that reprocessing schemes are expensive and create a  
12 number of serious environmental risks.

13 It is also important for the PSC to note that the difficulties in addressing  
14 nonproliferation would be increased if new nuclear plants were built in the United States  
15 since new uranium enrichment capacity would almost certainly have to be built. In short,  
16 as summarized by the authors of a 2003 report on the future of nuclear power conducted  
17 at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology

18 The potential impact on the public from safety or waste management  
19 failure and the link to nuclear explosives technology are unique to nuclear  
20 energy among energy supply options. *These characteristics and the fact*  
21 *that nuclear is more costly, make it impossible today to make a credible*  
22 *case for the immediate expanded use of nuclear power.*<sup>7</sup>

23 Finally, with respect to broader considerations of risk, we note that, despite being,  
24 by far, the largest single environmental concern associated with the current energy  
25 system, the public IRP filings lack any substantive discussion of climate change or the  
26 proposed impact its decisions will have on the emissions of greenhouse gases, either  
27 positively or negatively. In fact, the proposed strategy puts the ratepayers in double  
28 jeopardy with respect to climate change. The first proposal for a nuclear plant is likely to  
29 be costly and the stated back up option is a polluting CO<sub>2</sub> emitting coal fired power plant  
30 that is likely to face stiff taxes or equivalent costs via carbon trading.

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<sup>7</sup> MIT 2003 p. 22 (emphasis added)



1 **III. Lack of Diversification**

2

3 **Q. WHAT DOES THE IRP SAY REGARDING THE NEED FOR GEORGIA TO**  
4 **RECEIVE ITS ELECTRICITY FROM A DIVERSE MIX OF ENERGY**  
5 **RESOURCES AND THE POTENTIAL ROLE OF NEW NUCLEAR POWER OR**  
6 **COAL IN HELPING TO IMPROVE THAT DIVERSIFICATION?**

7 **A.** (AM) Regarding the current and near-term energy mix of Georgia Power, the IRP notes  
8 that

9 The Company's current mix of fuel sources and generation type provides  
10 diversity of fuel source and reliability of electric supply. Fuel diversity  
11 helps to dampen fuel cost volatility as well as helps to mitigate any  
12 potential fuel availability issues that may arise in the future. The current  
13 mix of energy serving our customers by generation source is  
14 approximately 71% coal, 18% nuclear, 8% natural gas and oil, and 3%  
15 hydro power. Furthermore, for 2008, the projected mix of energy serving  
16 our customers by generation source is approximately 68% coal, 15 %  
17 natural gas and oil, 14 % nuclear, and 3% hydropower.<sup>8</sup>

18 Despite the fact that their own projections show that coal and nuclear power will  
19 be supplying more than 80 percent of the electricity generated in 2008, the IRP makes  
20 numerous references to the need to build new nuclear or coal fired plants to help increase  
21 the diversification of the Georgia energy mix. Representative examples of such claims  
22 from the IRP include:

23 The Company has not added baseload nuclear or coal generation since  
24 1989 and is now entering an era where new cost effective baseload  
25 generation is needed to serve customers. Adding new coal or nuclear  
26 baseload generation will ensure that there remains a diversity of  
27 generation to protect customers from fuel volatility associated with natural  
28 gas prices. Without new base load nuclear or coal generation additions,  
29 the Company projects that over half of its generating capacity will be

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<sup>8</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 14-7 to 14-8

1 fueled by natural gas and that the amount of gas-fired energy generation  
2 will double by about the middle of the next decade.<sup>9</sup>

3  
4 Continued operation of the coal units will maintain fuel diversity and help  
5 to mitigate the risk of volatile natural gas fuel prices. Without the addition  
6 of baseload nuclear or coal, retirement of additional baseload generation  
7 would cause an unacceptable increase in the amount of gas-fired energy  
8 generated for customers in the 2015/2016 timeframe.<sup>10</sup>

9  
10 The addition of nuclear generation would further diversify Georgia's  
11 generation mix, lessening our state's dependency on natural gas and coal,  
12 while providing an additional, environmentally sound fuel alternative.<sup>11</sup>

13  
14 **Q. DO YOU AGREE WITH THE CONCLUSION THAT ADDITIONAL NUCLEAR**  
15 **CAPACITY IN GEORGIA IS REQUIRED BY 2015 IN ORDER TO MAINTAIN**  
16 **AN ACCEPTABLE MIX OF FUELS TO SERVE GEORGIA RATEPAYERS?**

17 **A.** (SB & AM) No. The construction of new nuclear or coal fired capacity in Georgia would  
18 not improve the diversity of the State's electricity sector. The state is already heavily  
19 reliant on coal and nuclear power and even if all the projected new demand were met  
20 with natural gas (not an option that we support), Georgia would still remain dependent on  
21 coal and nuclear power for generating more than two-thirds of its electric power. Even  
22 compared to the rest of the United States, in 2005 Georgia lagged behind in developing  
23 renewable energy resources. As far as new supply is concerned, the development of  
24 renewable resources would have a more positive impact on diversifying the State's  
25 energy mix than increasing the State's already significant dependence on coal and nuclear  
26 power.

27  

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<sup>9</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 1-6

<sup>10</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 1-10

<sup>11</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 6-5

1 **Q. PLEASE EXPLAIN WHY YOU HAVE CONCLUDED THAT NEW NUCLEAR**  
2 **OR COAL FIRED CAPACITY IS NOT REQUIRED TO ENSURE AN**  
3 **ACCEPTABLE LEVEL OF DIVERSITY IN GEORGIA.**

4 **A.** (AM) According to the U.S. Department of Energy’s Energy Information Administration  
5 (EIA), the State of Georgia as a whole received 86.9% of its total electricity demand from  
6 coal (63.8%) and nuclear (23.1%) in 2005. If only the electricity generated by electric  
7 utilities is considered, then the dependence on coal and nuclear grows worse. In 2005,  
8 the electric utilities accounted for more than 92 percent of the State’s electricity  
9 production and 93.2% of the utilities’ generation was from nuclear and coal fired power  
10 plants.<sup>12</sup> However, when considering the diversity of the State’s electricity sector it is  
11 important to consider all contributions to generation and not just what level of capacity  
12 Georgia Power has installed.

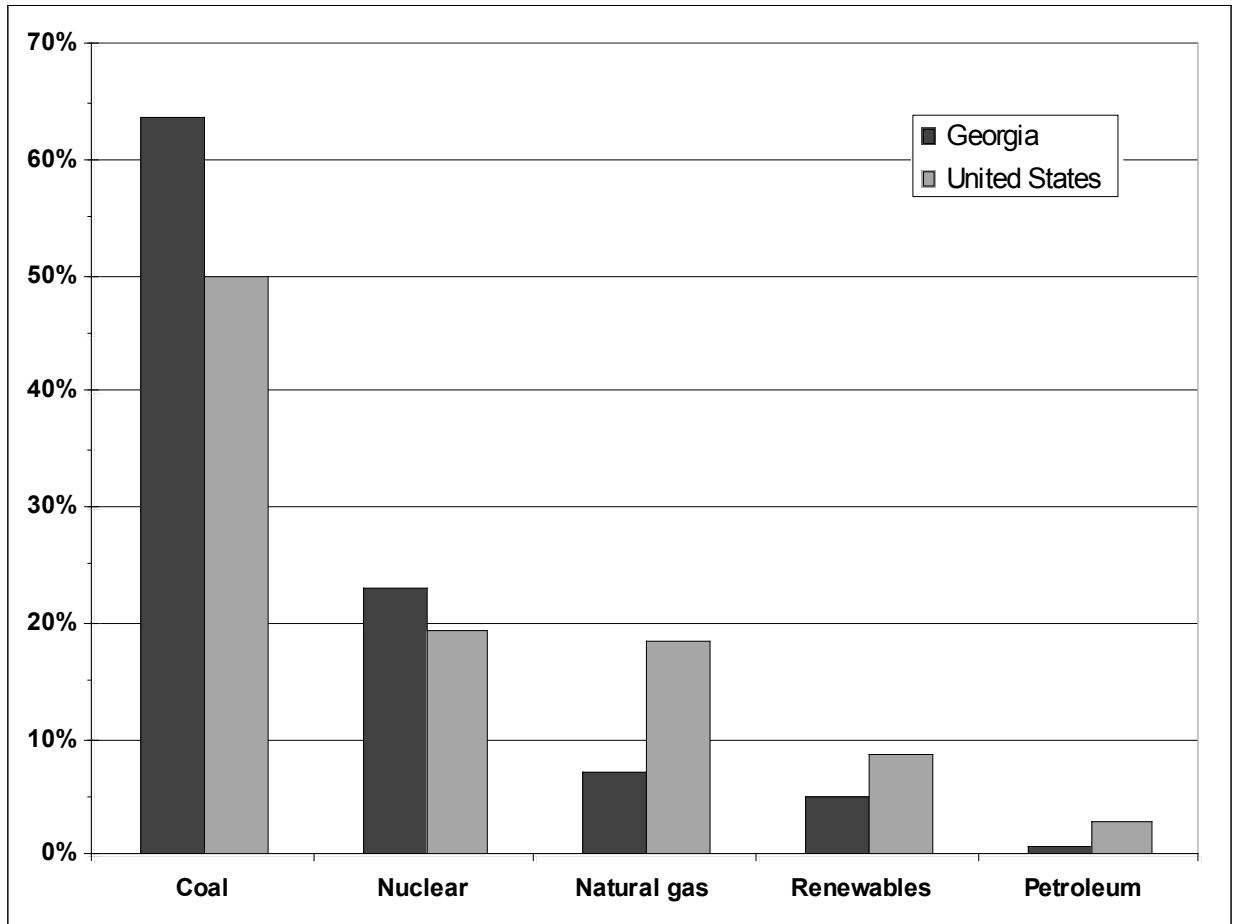
13 In the IRP, Georgia Power notes that “[t]he Company has not added baseload  
14 nuclear or coal generation since 1989 and is now entering an era where new cost effective  
15 baseload generation is needed to serve customers.”<sup>13</sup> The EIA reports that between 1990  
16 and 2005, the amount of total nuclear and coal fired electricity in Georgia has grown  
17 slowly at an average of 1.62% per year while the amount of natural gas fired generation  
18 has grown much more rapidly at an average of 17.9% per year. Less than half of the  
19 electricity from new natural gas fired plants was provided by the electric utilities.  
20 Despite these very different growth rates, only about one quarter of the additional  
21 generation in 2005 compared to 1990 was supplied by natural gas while the remaining  
22 three-quarters of new electricity in the State was supplied by the increased generation at  
23 coal and nuclear power plants. To put these numbers another way, the increased  
24 generation at coal and nuclear plants in Georgia between 1990 and 2005 in absolute terms  
25 was nearly three times the increase in generation from natural gas plants.

26 To view the mix of fuels in a more convenient way, Figure 1 compares the  
27 percent of generation by coal, nuclear, natural gas, renewables, and petroleum in the  
28 Georgia electricity sector to that in the U.S. as a whole for the year 2005.  
29

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<sup>12</sup> All information in this answer is from EIA 2006 [1990 - 2005 Net Generation by State by Type of Producer by Energy Source (EIA-906)] unless otherwise noted.

<sup>13</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 1-6



1  
 2 *Figure 1: Fuel mix based on generation in the U.S. and Georgia electric power sectors in*  
 3 *2005.*<sup>14</sup>

4 As expected, Figure 1 shows that Georgia is currently heavily dependent on just  
 5 two fuels (coal and nuclear) for the bulk of its electricity. It also shows that Georgia has  
 6 a less diverse mix of fuels than the overall United States.

7 To consider the claims in the IRP noted above that a new nuclear power plant is  
 8 needed to “further diversify Georgia’s generation mix” we constructed a set of scenarios  
 9 that would tend to maximize the amount of new natural gas fired generation.<sup>15</sup> This is  
 10 done not to support a continuation of the rapid expansion of natural gas usage that has  
 11 occurred in Georgia since 1990, but to illustrate how the addition of new nuclear  
 12 generating capacity might affect the diversity of the State’s energy mix and to focus the  
 13 discussion on the fuel mix as measured by generation and not by installed capacity. To

<sup>14</sup> EIA 2006 [1990 - 2005 Net Generation by State by Type of Producer by Energy Source (EIA-906)]

<sup>15</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 6-5

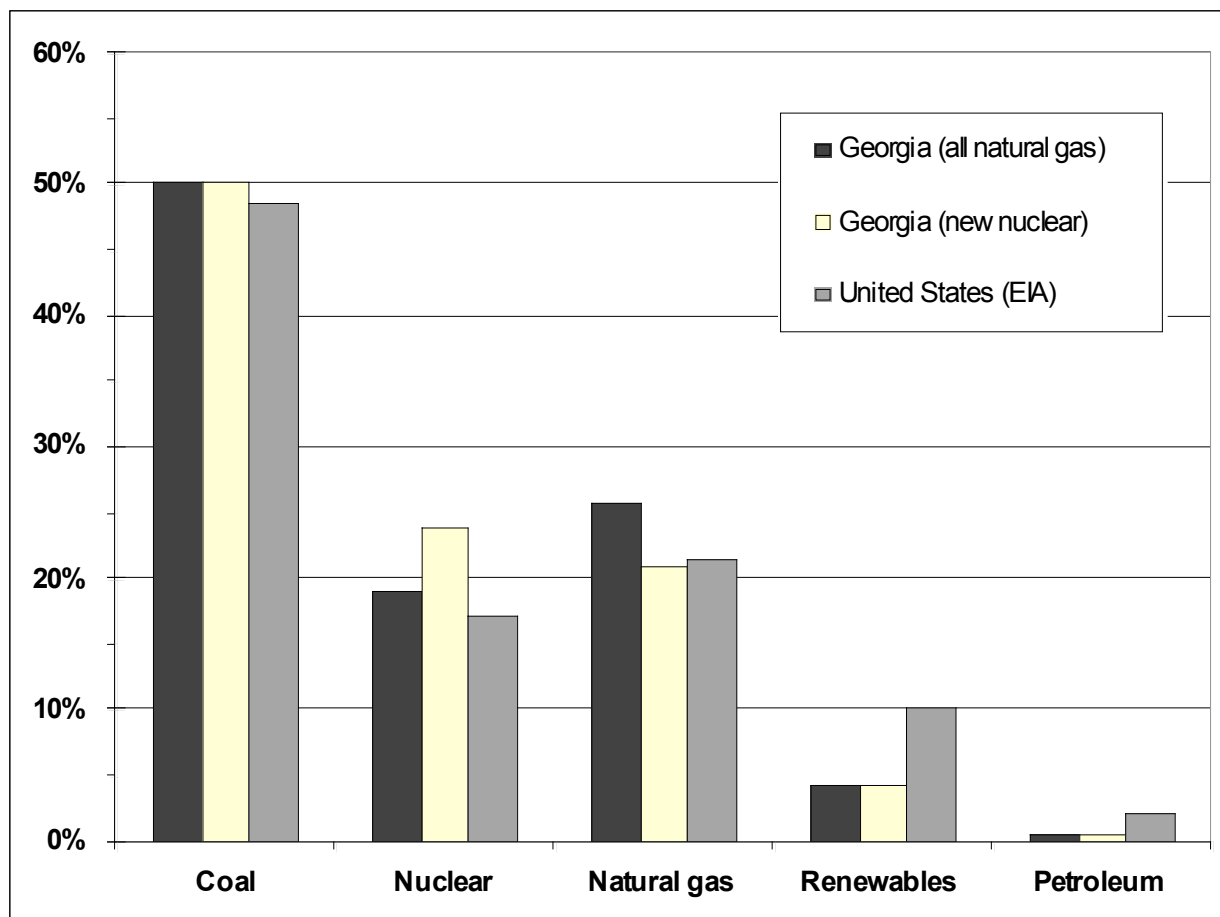
1 accomplish this, we first projected the level of Georgia's future electricity demand  
2 assuming a continuation of its average rate of growth between 1990 and 2005 (i.e. 1.92%  
3 per year). The amount of generation from all sources was frozen at its year 2005 levels  
4 except coal and natural gas. To take into account Georgia Power's announced intention  
5 to retire the coal fired Units 1 and 2 at the Jack McDonough power plant, the amount of  
6 coal fired generation was reduced by an amount equal to 517 MW's operating with a 90  
7 percent capacity factor.<sup>16</sup> Finally, the amount of natural gas fired capacity was increased  
8 to account for all of the new and replacement power needed under this scenario.

9 For comparison, we repeated the calculations with the addition of one new 1,000  
10 MW nuclear power plant operating at a 90% capacity factor. The projections in the  
11 EIA's 2007 *Annual Energy Outlook* were used for the U.S. fuel mix in 2015 to compare  
12 with the projected mixes in Georgia.<sup>17</sup> The results are shown in Figure 2.

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<sup>16</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 pp. 1-9. According to the EIA, the average summer and winter capacity of the two coal fired units at the Jack McDonough power plant is 517 MW. [EIA Database 860] A 90% capacity factor overestimates the likely impact of shutting down these coal plants since their largest annual average capacity factor between 2001 and 2005 was 80% and the average capacity factor over these five years was just 72%. [EIA Database 920]

<sup>17</sup> EIA 2007 Figure 5



1  
2 *Figure 2: Projections for the fuel mix based on generation in the U.S. and Georgia in 2015. The*  
3 *“all natural gas” scenario assumes that all incremental increases in demand are met with be*  
4 *natural gas fired capacity. The “new nuclear” scenario assumes that, in addition to new natural*  
5 *gas fired capacity one new 1,000 MW nuclear plant would be online in 2015.<sup>18</sup>*

6  
7 The left most bar in Figure 2 is the case with only new natural gas fired capacity  
8 being added to meet future demands while the center bar corresponds to the case with one  
9 additional nuclear plant being built by 2015. The far right bar shows the EIA’s  
10 projections for the overall U.S. electricity sector. In neither scenario is the fuel mix of  
11 Georgia significantly improved over what it was in 2005 or what is projected for the U.S.  
12 under a business as usual scenario by the EIA. In the case of all natural gas development,  
13 nuclear and coal would still make up nearly 70% of Georgia’s electricity in 2015 while in

<sup>18</sup> Projections based on EIA 2006 [1990 - 2005 Net Generation by State by Type of Producer by Energy Source (EIA-906)] and EIA 2007 Figure 5

1 the case of a new nuclear plant being built, coal and nuclear would make up more than  
2 74% of the State's total generation. While natural gas would grow in importance  
3 significantly in either case, it would make up, at most, about one quarter of total  
4 generation in 2015. Finally, it is important to note that the gap between Georgia and the  
5 U.S. in the use of renewables would increase under either of these scenarios; Georgia  
6 would continue to lag behind the U.S. average for the use of renewable energy

7 As I noted previously, these findings are not meant to support a natural gas only  
8 growth strategy for Georgia's electricity sector. This analysis is, however, meant to  
9 illustrate that the IRP's claims of a need for new nuclear or coal fired power plants in  
10 Georgia based on its ability to improve the diversification of the State's electricity sector  
11 do not appear warranted based on the information available in the public domain.  
12 Georgia is already heavily reliant on coal and nuclear power and would likely remain so  
13 through the 2015 time frame even under a high scenario for the growth of natural gas.  
14 The construction of a new nuclear power plant would only further increase dependence  
15 on coal and nuclear fuels.

16  
17 **Q. ARE THERE ANY PLANS DISCUSSED IN THE IRP THAT WOULD AFFECT**  
18 **THE CONCLUSIONS YOU HAVE DISCUSSED ABOVE?**

19 **A.** (AM) Yes. In projecting the future demand and mix of energy sources in the above  
20 discussion only Georgia Power's announced intention to retire the coal fired Units 1 and  
21 2 at the Jack McDonough power plant is factored in.<sup>19</sup> All other sources of generation  
22 were left fixed at their year 2005 levels. However, the IRP noted explicitly that Georgia  
23 Power plans to uprate the two nuclear reactors located at the Vogtle power plant.<sup>20</sup> In  
24 1993, the NRC approved an uprate at the two Vogtle reactors amounting to 4.5 percent.<sup>21</sup>  
25 If uprates of this magnitude were to be done in the future at Vogtle, it would add more  
26 than 100 MW of additional nuclear capacity to the two plants. Put another way, such  
27 uprates could amount to nearly 20 percent of what is scheduled to be taken off line at  
28 McDonough. If uprates of this magnitude were to occur prior to 2015 it would further

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<sup>19</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 1-9

<sup>20</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 6-2

<sup>21</sup> NRC 2004

1 increase the dependency of Georgia on nuclear power and would proportionately lessen  
2 the use of natural gas illustrated in the above scenarios.

3 In addition, the IRP notes that “[t]he number of renewable energy projects on  
4 Georgia Power’s system is increasing given the higher avoided energy credits from rising  
5 fuel costs.”<sup>22</sup> The IRP goes on to list 22 MW of renewables that are scheduled for  
6 startup in 2008 and a response from their “2010 solicitation” expressing interest in adding  
7 more than 200 MW of additional renewable capacity.<sup>23</sup> Adding in the generation from  
8 these new renewable resources to my analysis above would further lessen the future  
9 reliance on natural gas and would help to increase the diversity of Georgia’s electricity  
10 sector. In fact, increasing the use of renewables would have the most significant benefits  
11 for increased diversification given their current under-representation in Georgia’s energy  
12 mix. The planned expansion of renewables in 2008 is, however, quite modest amounting  
13 to roughly 4 percent of what is scheduled to be taken off line at McDonough.

14 Therefore, my analysis presented above is likely to over represent the potential  
15 future reliance of Georgia on natural gas, and to under represent the company’s plans for  
16 relying more heavily on nuclear power. Thus, my conclusion is that new nuclear or coal  
17 fired capacity would not improve the diversification of the State’s energy mix would be  
18 further strengthened.

19  
20 **Q. ARE THERE ANY ADDITIONAL ASSUMPTIONS THAT YOU HAVE USED**  
21 **THAT WOULD AFFECT THE CONCLUSIONS DISCUSSED ABOVE THAT**  
22 **YOU FEEL SHOULD BE DISCUSSED?**

23 **A.** (AM) Yes. In projecting a possible electricity demand for Georgia in 2015, we used the  
24 historical rate of demand growth between 1990 and 2005 derived from EIA data (i.e. an  
25 annual increase of 1.92%). This is comparable to the national average over the same  
26 time period (an annual increase of 1.94%).<sup>24</sup> However, in the EIA’s 2007 *Annual Energy*  
27 *Outlook*, they use an average growth rate of 1.46% to project future electricity demands

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<sup>22</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 10-2

<sup>23</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 10-2

<sup>24</sup> EIA 2006 [1990 - 2005 Net Generation by State by Type of Producer by Energy Source (EIA-906)]



1 for the United States from 2005 to 2030.<sup>25</sup> A lower rate of future demand growth for  
2 Georgia is also to be expected. This can also be seen from the IRP, given that it notes  
3 Georgia Power expects to achieve approximately 1,000 MW of demand  
4 reduction by 2010 through the implementation of existing and new  
5 demand side management (DSM) programs. This load reduction  
6 represents more than 5% of the Company's current load.<sup>26</sup>  
7

8 If the lower rate of demand growth predicted by the EIA was used in my analysis  
9 for the State of Georgia, and all other assumptions remained the same as described above,  
10 the reliance of the Georgia electric system in 2015 on coal and nuclear power would be  
11 even worse than presented above. For example, in this case, the all natural gas scenario  
12 would result in nuclear and coal making up nearly 73 percent of the State's generation  
13 while natural gas would make up just over 22 percent of total generation. These values  
14 can be compared to my extrapolation of the EIA projections for the U.S. of nearly 71  
15 percent of generation coming from coal and nuclear and nearly 18 percent from natural  
16 gas in 2015. Adding a 1,000 MW nuclear plant to the Georgia grid would drive up the  
17 State's dependence on coal and nuclear in 2015 to nearly 78 percent of total generation.  
18 Therefore, under a lower demand growth scenario the addition of new nuclear or coal  
19 fired capacity would only increase the State's already heavy reliance on these two energy  
20 sources.  
21

#### 22 **IV. Adverse Environmental Impacts**

23  
24 **Q. WHAT ARE THE GENERAL ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF THE**  
25 **VARIOUS GENERATION TECHNOLOGIES PROPOSED IN THE COMPANY'S**  
26 **IRP?**

27 A. (SB) The company propose new nuclear reactors at Plant Vogtle in its base case plan  
28 with pulverized coal supply technologies in an alternate plan scenario in the event the  
29 base case plan shows higher than projected costs in the future or other conditions occur.  
30 Each of the above supply types poses a range of negative environmental impacts

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<sup>25</sup> EIA 2007 Figure 5

<sup>26</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 1-10

1 involving air quality, water quality, water quantity, and land use that would have adverse  
2 impact on the state and the region. Air quality and land use concerns related to  
3 pulverized coal technologies are addressed in other SACE expert testimony while the  
4 environmental concerns related to the proposed nuclear power expansion and the general  
5 water issues of the IRP are addressed below.

6  
7 **Q. WHAT ARE THE ADVERSE ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF NUCLEAR**  
8 **POWER TECHNOLOGIES?**

9 A. (SB) Nuclear power plants are highly water dependent and require tremendous volumes  
10 of water in order to operate. Both Plants Hatch and Vogtle return less than half of what  
11 they withdraw from surface water resources: Hatch had an average annual withdrawal in  
12 2001 of 60 million gallons per day (mgd) and consumed 34 mgd; Vogtle respectively  
13 withdrew 64 mgd and consumed 43 mgd.<sup>27</sup> Water needs for a nuclear power plant are of  
14 a long-term nature, as the nuclear reactor and used or “spent” nuclear fuel requires  
15 constant cooling in order to prevent meltdown. Additionally, nuclear power plants  
16 release radioactive contaminants to the air, soil, and water along with hazardous  
17 chemicals during routine, daily operations. If a severe accident were to occur at a nuclear  
18 power plant, large land areas could be rendered uninhabitable for an extremely long  
19 period of time, not to mention the possibility of injuries and deaths that could occur in  
20 nearby communities. Nuclear power plants also produce highly radioactive used nuclear  
21 fuel that must remain shielded from humans and the environment for hundreds of  
22 thousands of years.

23 **Q. HOW DOES THE CHOICE OF SUPPLY TECHNOLOGY THAT THE**  
24 **COMPANY INCLUDES IN ITS IRP AFFECT STATE OR REGIONAL WATER**  
25 **RESOURCES MANAGEMENT?**

26 A. (SB) Many of Georgia’s power plants are among the largest water users in the state.  
27 Fossil fuel and nuclear power plants require large quantities of water to operate, in  
28 marked contrast to renewable energy supplies such as bio-energy, solar, and wind., Also,

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<sup>27</sup> GAEPD 2002

1 the adoption of energy efficient practices and technologies reduces system-wide energy  
2 needs, thereby reducing the water requirements of the electric system as a whole.<sup>28</sup>

3 According to the United States Geological Survey (USGS) 2003 report  
4 “Estimated Use of Water in the United States in 2000,” nationally the largest water  
5 withdrawals were for thermoelectric power (195,000 million gallons per day, of which  
6 30% was from saline sources) and irrigation (137,000 mgd all from fresh water sources).  
7 In Georgia, total water withdrawals in 2000 were reported at 6500 million gallons of  
8 water per day (mgd). The leading water-use categories reported for Georgia were: 1)  
9 thermoelectric power 3312 mgd (saline and fresh); 2) public supply 1250 mgd (fresh); 3)  
10 irrigation 1140 mgd (fresh); 4) industrial 652 mgd (saline & fresh); and 5) domestic use  
11 110 mgd (USGS, 2003). [Public supply refers to water withdrawn by public and private  
12 water suppliers that furnish water to at least 25 people or have a minimum of 15  
13 connections].<sup>29</sup>

14 With Georgia’s thermoelectric power sector has the largest water withdrawals in  
15 the state, these power plants compete for water for other important needs that are vital to  
16 our state’s economy and quality of life, including agriculture, industrial needs, fishing,  
17 and recreational opportunities. Less water used for the purpose of power generation  
18 translates into greater water availability for other life-dependent or life enhancing uses  
19 throughout our state. The state’s first water management plan has identified the need for  
20 reducing water withdrawals as a major goal due to future constraints.

21 With Georgia’s abundant, yet limited, water resources, we cannot continue  
22 to use water as we have historically. We need to take steps to minimize  
23 water withdrawals and forestall adverse impacts on other water users and  
24 on the systems themselves. Without water conservation and reuse, Georgia  
25 will not be able to meet instream *and* offstream water demands of the  
26 future.<sup>30</sup>

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<sup>28</sup> Barczak 2005

<sup>29</sup> USGS 2003 Table 2, pp. 2-7, 13 and Barczak 2005 p. 1

<sup>30</sup> GAEPD 2006 p. 6

1 **Q. WHY DO SOME POWER PLANTS CONSUME EXCESSIVE AMOUNTS OF**  
2 **WATER?**

3 A. (SB) Power plants must be located next to large bodies of water or have  
4 significant water resources continuously and readily available to create steam to  
5 power the turbines. A large portion of this water is returned to the source, albeit  
6 at a higher temperature, and generally a much smaller fraction is lost or  
7 “consumed.” Water withdrawals and consumption figures depend heavily on  
8 what types of cooling technologies are used. Power plants that use once-through  
9 cooling (i.e. do not have cooling towers), withdraw very large volumes of water  
10 while little water is consumed or lost because there is a negligible amount of  
11 evaporation. In contrast, power plants that use cooling towers do not need to  
12 withdraw as much water, but have a higher rate of water consumption due to the  
13 evaporation from the cooling towers.<sup>31</sup>

14  
15 **Q. WHAT ARE THE PARTICULAR CONCERNS SPECIFIC TO NUCLEAR**  
16 **POWER’S IMPACT ON GEORGIA’S WATER RESOURCES?**

17 A. (SB) When comparing types of energy generation in relation to their water  
18 withdrawal and consumption, regardless of whether cooling towers are used,  
19 nuclear power has shown to have higher rates of withdrawal and consumption  
20 than coal or natural gas. Less water-intensive cooling technologies, such as dry  
21 cooling, that can be used at fossil fuel power plants are generally considered not  
22 economically achievable or viable in terms of safe operating standards for nuclear  
23 plants.

24 Georgia’s nuclear plants use mechanical draft cooling towers, resulting in less  
25 water withdrawn (around 60 million gallons per day) but with a much greater volume of  
26 water consumed or lost (between 34 and 43 million gallons per day).<sup>32</sup> This ultimately  
27 results in returning less than half of the water withdrawn to the original supply source, in  
28 these cases to the Savannah and Altamaha rivers. In addition, all nuclear reactors must

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<sup>31</sup> Barczak 2005, p. 2

<sup>32</sup> Barczak 2005, p. 2

1 have large, continuous water supplies available to cool the nuclear fuel rods in the reactor  
2 core to prevent a catastrophic meltdown accident.

3 Specifically, the two 2430 MW reactors, which have been operating at Plant  
4 Vogtle since 1987 and 1989, withdraw a monthly average of 68,670,000 gallons per day  
5 (Energy Information Administration 2000). Estimated consumption data from the  
6 Georgia Environmental Protection Division in 2001 showed consumption of  
7 approximately 43,000,000 gallons per day, or only about one third of what was  
8 withdrawn by Plant Vogtle from the Savannah River was being returned.<sup>33</sup>

9 According to a 2004 study for the U.S. Department of Energy, *Estimating*  
10 *Freshwater Needs to Meet 2025 Electrical Generating Capacity Forecasts*, nuclear plants  
11 generally have higher water withdrawal rates in gal/kWh than compared to pulverized  
12 coal plants, regardless of whether cooling technologies are used or not.<sup>34</sup> Once-through  
13 cooling technologies for coal and nuclear plants have equivalent consumption rates.  
14 However, when mechanical draft or recirculating cooling technologies are used, nuclear  
15 power has larger water consumption rates. Plant Vogtle currently has the largest water  
16 consumption of all power plants in Georgia.

17  
18 **Q. WHAT ARE THE PREDICTED WATER REQUIREMENTS FOR AND**  
19 **POSSIBLE WATER IMPACTS FROM THE PROPOSED NEW REACTORS?**

20 A. (SB) The proposed two new Westinghouse AP-1000 reactors for Plant Vogtle will  
21 reportedly use approximately 53,602,560 gallons per day (gpd) from the Savannah River  
22 under normal use with a maximum withdrawal of about 83,208,960 gpd.<sup>35</sup> Between 50-  
23 75% will be consumptive use, that is, lost as steam. The remainder will be returned to the  
24 Savannah River at a warmer temperature resulting in thermal impacts to the river. To put  
25 this into perspective, with average per capita daily water use in Georgia at 75 gallons  
26 from surface and ground water, more water will be lost as steam from the two existing  
27 and two proposed reactors at Plant Vogtle than is used currently by all residents (2005  
28 census) of Atlanta (470,688), Augusta (190,782) and Savannah (128,453) combined.<sup>36</sup>

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<sup>33</sup> Barczak 2007, p. 2

<sup>34</sup> U.S. DOE 2004, p. 12

<sup>35</sup> SNOG 2006, p. 2.3.2-4

<sup>36</sup> Barczak 2007, pp. 2-3

1 Proposed new energy supply sources, such as expanding nuclear power  
2 generation at nuclear Plant Vogtle by building up to two new reactors, could reduce water  
3 availability in the Savannah River as climate change impacts, such as reduced summer  
4 river flow, develop.

5 Also, there are existing water quality concerns that additional nuclear reactors at  
6 Plant Vogtle along the Savannah River could exacerbate. With saltwater intrusion of the  
7 Floridan Aquifer already occurring both Beaufort and Jasper counties in South Carolina  
8 and the Savannah area will become more dependent in the future on the Savannah River  
9 for drinking water as will other areas near the Savannah River that are expanding due to  
10 population growth and development.

11 Concerns have been raised by officials in Georgia and South Carolina about the  
12 Savannah River's ability to meet assimilative capacity demand that directly impacts water  
13 quality. According to statements made by Georgia Governor Sonny Perdue's  
14 Administration, estimates show that the Savannah River may be close to approaching its  
15 maximum assimilative capacity.<sup>37</sup> Demands for additional assimilative capacity are  
16 expected as population and employment growth continue, which may therefore require  
17 that more aggressive steps will be needed to reduce the amount of water withdrawn and  
18 to more thoroughly treat the water being discharged back to the river.

19 Plant Vogtle already contributes tritium to the Savannah River.<sup>38</sup> The current flow  
20 of the Savannah River dilutes the radioactive tritium added to the river by Plant Vogtle,  
21 the Barnwell nuclear waste dump, and the Savannah River Site (SRS) enough to meet the  
22 EPA's maximum contaminant level for tritium. Although currently the EPA maximum  
23 contamination level for tritium is 20,000 pCi/L, in March of 2006 the California Office of  
24 Environmental Health Hazard Assessment established a Public Health Goal of 400 pCi/L  
25 for tritium in drinking water.<sup>39</sup> To compare this new standard for California to the  
26 situation facing the Savannah River presently, the Beaufort Jasper Water and Sewer  
27 Authority in South Carolina reported the average level of tritium for 2005 was 547

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<sup>37</sup> Augusta Chronicle 2005

<sup>38</sup> SRNL 2005, Chapter 5. The total tritium transport in the Savannah River for 2005 was 4,480 Ci, compared with the previous year's 3,630 Ci. Both Plant Vogtle and SRS contributed to these release values. Accounting for Plant Vogtle's contribution, SRS's calculated releases of tritium to the river in 2005 totaled approximately 2,620 Ci.

<sup>39</sup> CA EPA 2006

1 pCi/L.<sup>40</sup> Additional reactors at Plant Vogtle could contribute to more tritium in the  
2 Savannah River.

3  
4 **Q. WHAT PROBLEMS DOES RADIOACTIVE CONTAMINATION OF WATER**  
5 **SUPPLIES POSE FOR GEORGIA POWER RATEPAYERS AND THE PUBLIC?**

6 **A.** (SB) Historically, Georgia has been negatively impacted by radioactive contamination of  
7 its water by commercial and military activities. An example of the kind of economic  
8 damage that can occur happened over Christmas 1991. A large radioactive spill from a  
9 nuclear reactor at the Department of Energy's Savannah River Site (SRS) into the  
10 Savannah River resulted in the closure of the industrial water supply in Savannah and  
11 surrounding areas for several days. Harvesting in two local shellfish beds was  
12 suspended; the Beaufort, South Carolina water intake system was closed; and two  
13 Savannah food-processing industries shutdown, Fuji Oil and Savannah Sugar Refinery.  
14 Although Savannah is more than 90 miles downriver from SRS (and Plant Vogtle), the  
15 tritium (a radioactive form of hydrogen) levels measured in Savannah were double the  
16 maximum drinking water limits allowed by the EPA and remained above drinking water  
17 standards for days.<sup>41</sup> DOE failed to notify Savannah in a timely manner to prevent  
18 economic losses to local industrial water users. Prompted by the spill and decades of past  
19 releases at the site, it was decided that a tritium monitoring and advanced notification  
20 system for Savannah was needed. This system was put in place however federal and state  
21 budget allocations for the state radiation monitoring program in Georgia are continually  
22 in peril.

23 Savannah and other downstream communities deserve a guaranteed, safe water  
24 supply. There are already threats to safe water supplies exist now, as releases of tritium  
25 and other radioactive contaminants already occur from existing plants, and they would  
26 only intensify under nuclear expansion scenarios in the Savannah River area either instate  
27 or in neighboring South Carolina. If the state monitoring and notification program is lost  
28 or further reduced or eroded, then residents and businesses are at higher potential risk,  
29 jeopardizing the health and prosperity of Georgians.

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<sup>40</sup> BJWSA 2005

<sup>41</sup> The drinking water standard is set as an annual average. Local authorities and others use this as an action level when it was exceeded.

1 **Q. ARE THERE OTHER PROCEEDINGS/DELIBERATIONS THAT THE**  
2 **COMMISSION SHOULD BE AWARE OF THAT INCREASES THE**  
3 **UNCERTAINTY OF THE LICENSING OF THE ADDITIONAL VOGTLE**  
4 **REACTORS?**

5 A. (SB) Yes. The possible expansion of Vogtle is currently under initial review by the U.S.  
6 Nuclear Regulatory Commission (NRC) as it studies Southern Nuclear Operating  
7 Company's early site permit application submitted in August 2006. Of the initial three  
8 other permits filed with the NRC, only one, the Clinton site in Illinois, has been issued a  
9 permit and it took 3 ½ years. The other two have been under review since fall of 2003.<sup>42</sup>  
10 For Vogtle's permitting process, the NRC has issued additional Requests for Additional  
11 Information (RAI) and stated there would be additional schedule impacts.<sup>43</sup>

12 Additionally, several citizen groups including Southern Alliance for Clean Energy  
13 filed a petition in December 2006 to intervene on behalf of their members with the NRC.  
14 The Atomic Safety and Licensing Board, an appointed, three-judge panel, concluded on  
15 March 12, 2007 that threats to the Savannah River and surrounding environment need to  
16 be further examined by Southern Company.<sup>44</sup>

17 Also, a combined construction and operating license (COL), is required from the  
18 NRC before construction of new reactors can begin. Southern Company has stated it  
19 intends to file a COL in Spring 2008. Currently, no utility has filed a COL and given that  
20 this is a new licensing procedure, there is no regulatory experience with this process,  
21 indicating uncertainty about the schedule to bring new reactors online at Plant Vogtle.

22 Lastly, NRC commissioners recently testified before Congress that the NRC is  
23 experiencing severe staff shortages at a moment where an unprecedented number of new  
24 reactor applications may be filed in the near term. The NRC commissioners also testified  
25 that the manufacturing capacity globally for nuclear plant parts is limited. This adds to  
26 the uncertainty of the regulatory approval process happening in a timely manner along  
27 with the ability to actually build the facilities. These delays could impact the cost  
28 effectiveness of new nuclear generation.<sup>45</sup>

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<sup>42</sup> NRC 2007

<sup>43</sup> NRC 2007b

<sup>44</sup> ASLB 2007

<sup>45</sup> MarketWatch 2007



1 **Q. WHAT OTHER WATER CONCERNS SHOULD BE CONSIDERED IN LONG**  
2 **RANGE POWER PLANNING?**

3 A. (SB) Limited water availability in times of drought should be considered with current and  
4 future energy production. Most power production in Georgia relies on continuously and  
5 readily available water supplies. If that trend continues, and coincides with drought  
6 conditions, Georgians and Georgia Power ratepayers could be vulnerable.

7 Climate change models generally indicate either no to moderate increase in  
8 precipitation during winter months. They also indicate that seasonal shifts in rainfall  
9 coupled with higher temperatures may result in significantly drier months from late  
10 spring through early fall. Thus, modeling predictions for summer and early fall months  
11 may constitute what we would currently classify as drought conditions. Recent work that  
12 utilizes models (GFDL CM2.1) developed by Princeton’s Geophysical Fluid Dynamics  
13 Laboratory pose the future possibility of long-term mega-droughts that could embrace the  
14 southwestern U.S. and the subtropics including Georgia). While the severity, duration,  
15 and frequency of future droughts are uncertain, the possibilities should not be ignored  
16 when planning for long-term water allocation.<sup>46</sup>

17 Consumptive water use exacerbates the severity of droughts and further reduces  
18 the assimilative capacity of the Savannah River. Lakes Hartwell, Thurman, and Russell,  
19 upriver from Augusta were created, in part, to mitigate drought years by releasing stored  
20 water to maintain minimal flow levels. The Savannah River Drought Contingency Plan  
21 Update calls for maintaining a minimum flow rate of 3600 cubic feet per second (cfs)  
22 during level 3 drought years. Therefore the average total daily use of water by the four  
23 reactors (two existing and two proposed) at Plant Vogtle will be approximately 4% of the  
24 Savannah River during a level 3 drought with a maximum daily use withdrawal of about  
25 10%. Consumptive losses represent as much as 3 to 7.5% of the Savannah River below  
26 Lake Thurmond during a level 3 drought.<sup>47</sup> Increasing consumptive use of water in the  
27 Savannah River Basin during low flow periods could contribute to other environmental  
28 risks. Here, we call attention to salt water moving upriver as river flows decrease. One  
29 risk is that salt water may enter the Savannah Wildlife Refuge and impact the

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<sup>46</sup> Barczak 2007, p. 3

<sup>47</sup> Barczak 2007, p. 3

1 productivity and wildlife value of this important refuge. An additional risk is how the  
2 salt water wedge moving upriver will impact the productivity of the Savannah River  
3 estuary.

4 **Q. WHAT OTHER EFFECTS COULD DROUGHT AND HEAT WAVE HAVE ON**  
5 **NUCLEAR PLANT OPERATIONS?**

6 **A.** (SB) Additionally, the predicted effects of global warming on this region, such as  
7 summer heat waves or droughts, could negatively impact the ability for the existing or  
8 proposed reactors at Vogtle to generate electricity under those conditions. This  
9 deficiency was demonstrated by the 2006 summer heat wave, when nuclear power plants  
10 in France, Germany, and across Europe, and in the U.S. at the Cook nuclear plant in  
11 Michigan, had to shut down because the water temperatures were too high to allow for  
12 safe operation. Some companies in Europe also had to secure exemptions from  
13 regulations in order to discharge overheated water into the environment and others were  
14 forced to buy electricity on the spot market.<sup>48</sup>

15  
16 **Q. WITH RESPECT TO WIND POWER IN PARTICULAR, WHAT CONCERNS**  
17 **DO YOU HAVE REGARDING THE IRP’S TREATMENT OF THIS POTENTIAL**  
18 **RESOURCE?**

19 **A.** (AM) The IRP “[t]echnology screening” dropped any consideration of wind power in  
20 Georgia from detailed consideration because they claim “[a]vailable wind resources in  
21 the southeastern U.S. are not adequate to support significant utility scale use of this  
22 technology.”<sup>49</sup> However, elsewhere in the IRP, Georgia Power notes that  
23 Southern Company and Georgia Tech’s Strategic Energy Institute are  
24 collaborating on a study of the feasibility of locating wind turbines off the  
25 coast of Savannah, Georgia. The goal of the project is to determine if  
26 offshore wind power is an efficient and cost-effective renewable energy  
27 option for power generation. Design and conceptual engineering for the  
28 project will be performed using technical expertise from both Georgia  
29 Tech and Southern Company. The study will evaluate various technology

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<sup>48</sup> Christian Science Monitor 2006 and Bloomberg News 2006 and Lochbaum 2006

<sup>49</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 15-15

1 options for wind turbines, platforms/foundations, submarine cabling, and  
2 grid interconnection. Detailed analyses of a site location and  
3 environmental regulations and jurisdictions, including permitting  
4 requirements, will also be determined. A final report will be available in  
5 early 2007.<sup>50</sup>

6 Given that this effort will have its final report completed within this year, the  
7 Company should have maintained offshore wind as a potentially viable supply option in  
8 the IRP for analysis in the event that the Company's own study shows that it is, in fact,  
9 "an efficient and cost-effective renewable energy option for power generation." In my  
10 evaluation wind power in many areas, including many offshore areas, is more economical  
11 today than nuclear power.

12 Further, the wind resource should be evaluated in combination with other  
13 resources. For instance, at prices of natural gas over about \$6.50 per million Btu, it is  
14 economical to use combined cycle power plants as back up for wind power. This  
15 improves the overall reliability of the system and reduces the cost of wind integration into  
16 the grid. Similarly, coordination of wind, natural gas combined cycle, and hydro  
17 resources could have multiple beneficial economic impacts on Georgia Power ratepayers  
18 and on the environment. The IRP makes no mention of considering renewable resources  
19 (wind and hydro) together and optimizing the two by combining power planning with  
20 using some combined cycle power plants in a standby mode. This would reduce demand  
21 pressure on natural gas and exert a downward influence on natural gas prices, if it is  
22 made part of an overall electricity sector development strategy. Such a trend would have  
23 beneficial impacts on other sectors of the economy. As noted above, the addition of  
24 renewable resources would have a very positive effect on the fuel diversity of Georgia's  
25 electric power sector and would also help to lower the State's exposure to fuel price  
26 uncertainty as well as the serious risks associated with building a new nuclear power  
27 plant (see below).

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<sup>50</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 10-8

1 **Q. ARE THERE OTHER CONCERNS RELATED TO GEORGIA POWER**  
2 **RELYING ON AN INCREASINGLY HIGH DEPENDENCE ON NUCLEAR**  
3 **POWER IN THE FUTURE AS PROPOSED IN THE IRP?**

4 A. (AM) An additional concern for relying heavily on nuclear power is raised by the  
5 potential for accidents at current or future reactors. As the partial meltdown at Three  
6 Mile Island in 1979 and the explosion at Chernobyl in 1986 demonstrated, an accident in  
7 any country can affect the acceptance of nuclear plants around the world. These two  
8 accidents served to heighten the public awareness of the risks inherent in nuclear power  
9 and forced the U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission to, at least temporarily, tighten its  
10 regulations and oversight. Already Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Italy, the  
11 Netherlands, New Zealand, and Sweden have all made official commitments to prohibit  
12 or phase out nuclear power.<sup>51</sup>

13 Despite the growing concerns over global warming, the opposition to nuclear  
14 power continues. In October 2005, the International Atomic Energy Agency, a body  
15 explicitly charged with promoting the spread of civilian nuclear technologies, released a  
16 report on public opinion in 18 countries. In their survey, the IAEA found that, overall,  
17 nearly three out of every five people interviewed opposed the construction of new nuclear  
18 plants. In only one country, South Korea, was a majority in favor of building new  
19 reactors.<sup>52</sup>

20 The economic vulnerability of future regulatory requirements in relation to  
21 protection of the public from terrorist attacks also increases with increasing reliance on  
22 nuclear power plants. Finally, the fact that there may be new tritium requirements for  
23 drinking water in the future in light of the California's public health goal of 400 pCi/liter  
24 and the widespread concern about tritium releases from nuclear power plants that has  
25 been evident in the past two years, the addition of nuclear power plants may significantly  
26 increase Georgia ratepayers' liabilities for remediation of alternative water supplies.  
27 Further, even the controversy over increasing contamination with tritiated water, which  
28 crosses the placenta, could further reduce public acceptance of nuclear power. The added

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<sup>51</sup> IEA 2001b p. 155, 228, and 246 and MIT 2003 p. 21

<sup>52</sup> The countries included in the survey were: Argentina, Australia, Cameroon, Canada, France, Germany, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Japan, Jordan, Mexico, Morocco, Russia, Saudi Arabia, South Korea, United Kingdom, and the United States. [IAEA 2005f p. 18-20]

1 costs of reducing tritium discharges to near zero and eliminating the risk of leaks need to  
2 be factored into Georgia Power’s analysis of nuclear power.

3  
4 **Q. HAS THERE BEEN ANY CONCERN RAISED ABOUT GEORGIA POWER’S**  
5 **PROPOSED EXPANSION OF PLANT VOGTLE?**

6 **A.** (SB) Yes. Exhibit\_\_ AM,SB-2 lists various non-governmental organizations that are  
7 calling for a stop to nuclear expansion in Georgia.

8  
9 **Q. HOW IS THE HISTORIC OPPOSITION TO NUCLEAR POWER RELEVANT**  
10 **TO THE GEORGIA PSC IN THIS DOCKET?**

11 **A.** (AM) The history of opposition to nuclear power in the U.S. and abroad is important to  
12 consider because, even if new plants can be built without significant disruption, it is  
13 unlikely that public opposition could be avoided in the wake of a serious accident or  
14 successful large scale terrorist attack on a nuclear power facility as noted above. If  
15 nuclear power in Georgia is in the process of being expanded and accounts for a  
16 significant amount of the Company’s capacity in terms of either absolute generation or a  
17 percentage of overall electricity usage (as it would under the proposed actions in the  
18 IRP), then future public pressure to shutdown existing plants would leave open far fewer  
19 energy options (particularly in terms of reducing greenhouse emissions). The options  
20 that would be available to achieve a rapid phase-out of nuclear power under those  
21 circumstances would likely come at a higher price for ratepayers considering both the  
22 sunken capital in the completed nuclear plants as well as the cost of ad hoc measures that  
23 would be needed to rapidly replace the off-lined baseload nuclear capacity. On the other  
24 hand, however, if Georgia Power was already pursuing plans to diversify its fuel mix  
25 with a focus on indigenous and renewable resources when a future accident or terrorist  
26 attack occurred, there would likely be far more options available and those options could  
27 be accelerated with significantly less serious disruptions to Georgia’s economy.

28 Georgia Power explicitly notes that “[t]he best IRP is one that provides a high  
29 level of customer value while incorporating a broad range of potential changes.”<sup>53</sup>

30 Among the “additional objectives” in the IRP noted by the company are “Flexibility -

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<sup>53</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 2-4

1 Can the Plan be altered if the future is different than expected?” and “Risk - Does the  
2 Plan represent a reasonable balance between risk and cost?”.<sup>54</sup> The public pressures that  
3 are possible in the wake of a serious accident or successful terrorist attack anywhere  
4 make the option of pursuing a new 1000 MW nuclear reactor, let alone two 1000 MW  
5 reactors, a very inflexible and risky option for Georgia ratepayers.  
6

7 **Q. IS IT YOUR TESTIMONY THAT IF GEORGIA POWER WERE TO**  
8 **UNDERTAKE THE CONSTRUCTION OF A NEW NUCLEAR POWER**  
9 **REACTOR AND A MAJOR ACCIDENT AT A NUCLEAR POWER REACTOR**  
10 **OCCURRED SOMEWHERE AROUND THE GLOBE, THEN THIS COULD**  
11 **HARM GEORGIA POWER RATEPAYERS?**

12 **A.** (AM) Yes, this is a possibility. We recognize that predicting the public’s reaction to a  
13 major nuclear accident is in no way certain. However, taking the history of public  
14 opinion as a guide, the risks of serious disruption to an energy system that would be as  
15 heavily reliant on nuclear power as Georgia’s is following a major accident or successful  
16 terrorist attack should not be ignored. As summarized by Dr. Russell Peterson, one of the  
17 commissioners appointed by President Carter to investigate the accident at Three Mile  
18 Island, in 1979

19 As a final comment, I wish to emphasize my conviction, strongly reinforced by  
20 this investigation, that the complexity of a nuclear power plant -- coupled with the  
21 normal shortcomings of human beings so well illustrated in the TMI accident --  
22 will lead to a much more serious accident somewhere, sometime. The  
23 unprecedented worldwide fear and concern caused by the TMI-2 “near-miss”  
24 foretell the probable reaction to an accident where a major release of radioactivity  
25 occurs over a wide area. It appears essential to provide humanity with alternate  
26 choices of energy supply.<sup>55</sup>  
27

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<sup>54</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 2-4

<sup>55</sup> Kemeny Commission 1979 p. 87

1 **Q. DO YOU AGREE WITH THE IRP’S CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE**  
 2 **ECONOMIC COMPETITIVENESS OF NUCLEAR POWER COMPARED TO**  
 3 **OTHER SOURCES OF NEW BASELOAD GENERATION?**

4 **A.** (AM) No. The IRP claims that “[w]hile it is impossible to estimate accurately future  
 5 project costs, current industry projections show nuclear energy to be the lowest cost  
 6 option for generation in 2015.”<sup>56</sup> It also notes that “[t]he 2007 IRP Mix Study selected  
 7 nuclear as the most cost effective resource in the 2015 and 2016 timeframe.”<sup>57</sup>

8 However, from the public data that I have reviewed, it appears very unlikely that  
 9 new nuclear power generation would be economically competitive with other baseload  
 10 options available. Two of the most important recent studies on the economics of nuclear  
 11 power in the U.S. are a 2003 study from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and a  
 12 2004 study conducted at the University of Chicago. These studies put the likely cost of  
 13 electricity from new nuclear power plants well above the cost of electricity from natural  
 14 gas or pulverized coal fired plants over the time period considered in the Georgia Power  
 15 IRP (see Tables 1 and 2).

16  
 17 *Table 1: Levelized cost of electricity from new nuclear power, pulverized coal, and natural gas*  
 18 *fired power plants as estimated by the MIT and University of Chicago studies.*<sup>58</sup>

Generation Type	MIT Report (2003)	University of Chicago Report (2004)
Pulverized Coal <sup>(a)</sup>	4.2 cents per kWh	3.3 to 4.1 cents per kWh
Natural Gas (CCGT) <sup>(b)</sup>	3.8 to 5.6 cents per kWh	3.5 to 4.5 cents per kWh
Nuclear Power <sup>(c)</sup>	6.7 cents per kWh	6.2 cents per kWh

19 (a) Levelized cost of coal in the MIT study is \$1.30 per MMBtu while the average price of coal over the  
 20 lifetime of the plants in the U Chicago study is \$1.02 to \$1.23 per MMBtu.

21 (b) Levelized cost of natural gas in the MIT study is \$3.77 to \$6.72 per MMBtu. The average price of  
 22 natural gas over the lifetime of the plants in the U Chicago study is \$3.39 to \$4.46 per MMBtu. The spot  
 23 market price for natural gas has, at times, been well above the “high” fuel price used in these studies.

24 However, long-term gas prices can be expected to remain within the range assumed by the MIT study.  
 25 For example, the 2007 EIA *Annual Energy Outlook* projects an average fuel costs to electricity suppliers  
 26 between 2005 and 2030 of \$6.13 per MMBtu for natural gas (in 2005 dollars).

<sup>56</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 6-5

<sup>57</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 1-8

<sup>58</sup> MIT 2003 p. 40 and 42-43 and U Chicago 2004 p. 5-24 to 5-25 and 9-5 to 9-6

(c) Overnight capital cost of a nuclear plant in the MIT study is \$2,000 per kW. While the U Chicago analysis considered a range of capital costs from \$1,200 to \$1,800 per kW, the lower end of this range was so far out of what could be reasonably expected from experience in the U.S. and around the world that we did not consider it to be a credible basis for analysis. The middle of the U Chicago range, \$1,500 per kW, was used as the basis for our economic analysis.

Table 2: Comparison of the assumptions for overnight capital cost, lead time for construction, and effective interest rate used in the MIT and University of Chicago studies.<sup>59</sup>

Generation Type	MIT Study (2003)			University of Chicago Study (2004)		
	Overnight Capital Cost (\$ per kW)	Lead Time (years)	Effective Interest Rate	Overnight Capital Cost (\$ per kW)	Lead Time (years)	Effective Interest Rate
Natural Gas	500	2	9.6%	500 to 700	3	9.5%
Coal	1,300	4	9.6%	1,182 to 1,430	4	9.5%
Nuclear	2,000	5	11.5%	1,200 to 1,800	7	12.5%

From our analysis of the likely overnight capital cost, lead time for construction, and interest rate premium charged by financial institutions due to the higher risk of nuclear construction, we have concluded that it is likely that the cost of electricity from future nuclear power plants will fall within the range of six to seven cents per kWh; there is a significant chance that it may be higher than that (see below), even apart from issues such as waste management and disposal.

As summarized by the authors of the 2003 MIT report,

*Unfavorable economics.* Most operating nuclear plants are economical to operate when costs going forward are considered, i.e. when sunk capital and construction costs are ignored. However, new plants appear to be more expensive than alternate sources of base load generation, notably coal and natural gas fired electricity generation, when both capital and operating costs are taken into account.<sup>60</sup>

This conclusion was echoed by the authors of the University of Chicago study,

In summary, with the expectation of a 7-year construction period, no individual financial policy can be counted on unambiguously to bring the

<sup>59</sup> MIT 2003 p. 43, 132, and 135 and U Chicago 2004 p. 3-16, 5-17, 5-21, 5-23 to 5-24, and 9-5 to 9-6

<sup>60</sup> MIT 2003 p. 21



1 LCOE [levelized cost of electricity] of first new nuclear plants within the  
2 range of LCOE competitive with fossil generation.<sup>61</sup>

3 Moreover, the range of options for power supply are broader than presented under  
4 the traditional three-sector analysis of baseload, intermediate load, and peaking power  
5 plants. As noted above, intermittent renewable sources like wind should be planned in  
6 conjunction with combined cycle standby capacity, and hydropower resources. When  
7 combined with targeted efficiency measures that change the shape of the load curve to  
8 suit the supply mix, the proportion of traditional baseload power plants needed in the mix  
9 of generation can be reduced. This is particularly the case if intermediate scale solar PV  
10 in large parking lots and large commercial rooftops (~several hundred kW to a few MW)  
11 is combined with the mix of wind, hydro, combined cycle natural gas standby. The  
12 picture for baseload plant requirements would further change if advanced battery storage  
13 is considered in conjunction with the above. Finally, intermediate scale solar PV also  
14 reduces transmission cost. Indeed, this option should be fully integrated into  
15 transmission and distribution planning.

16  
17 **Q. IS THERE FURTHER EVIDENCE TO SUPPORT THE ECONOMIC FINDINGS**  
18 **IN THE MIT AND UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO STUDIES?**

19 **A.** (AM) Yes. As further support for the conclusions reached by these studies, a 2003  
20 Congressional Budget Office report, using information provided by the Nuclear  
21 Regulatory Commission, the Department of Energy, and “industry sources,” assumed that  
22 a new nuclear plant with a capacity of 1,100 MW could be built starting in 2011 at a cost  
23 of approximately \$1,900 to \$2,700 per kW, with a best estimate of \$2,300 per kW.<sup>62</sup>  
24 This is about 13 percent above the overnight capital cost estimated by the MIT study and  
25 more than 53 percent above the middle of the range assumed by the U Chicago study,  
26 thus making their estimates potentially optimistic regarding the expense of electricity  
27 from new nuclear reactors. Significantly, the Congressional Budget Office concluded  
28 that

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<sup>61</sup> U Chicago 2004 p. 9-10

<sup>62</sup> CBO 2003 p. 11

1 [b]ecause the cost of power from the first of the next generation of  
2 new nuclear power plants would likely be significantly above  
3 prevailing market rates, we would expect that the plant operators  
4 would default on the borrowing that financed its capital costs.<sup>63</sup>

5 Thus, the decision by Georgia Power to pursue new nuclear construction exposes  
6 the ratepayers of Georgia to the significant financial risks associated with their utility  
7 potentially having to default on its financing due to electricity costs “significantly above  
8 prevailing market rates” as the CBO put it.

9  
10 **Q. HOW WOULD CONSIDERATION OF OTHER TYPES OF COAL FIRED**  
11 **POWER PLANTS AFFECT YOUR CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE**  
12 **ECONOMICS OF NUCLEAR POWER?**

13 **A.** (AM) If newer coal fired technologies such as Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle  
14 (IGCC) are included in the mix of options to consider, nuclear power is still not likely to  
15 be cost competitive (see Table 3).

16  
17 *Table 3: Levelized cost of electricity from new pulverized coal and integrated gasification*  
18 *combined cycle plants.*<sup>64</sup>

Generation Type	Studies Reviewed by IEER (2006)	Studies Reviewed by MIT (2007)
Pulverized Coal	3.2 to 4.3 cents per kWh	4.2 to 5.2 cents per kWh
Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle (IGCC)	3.2 to 4.8 cents per kWh	4.1 to 5.0 cents per kWh

19  
20 These cost ranges for electricity from IGCC plants are comparable to what the  
21 2007 EIA *Annual Energy Outlook* predicts for 2015.<sup>65</sup> In addition, it is important to note  
22 that the EIA itself predicts that both advanced coal fired plants and new natural gas fired  
23 plants would produce electricity cheaper than new nuclear power plants in 2015 and that  
24 new nuclear plants would still be a more expensive option in 2030.<sup>66</sup>

<sup>63</sup> CBO 2003 p. 12

<sup>64</sup> MIT 2007 p. 127-129 and Smith 2006 p. 89

<sup>65</sup> EIA 2007 Figure 56

<sup>66</sup> EIA 2007 Figure 56

1           Finally, it is important to note that even if carbon capture and storage (i.e. carbon  
2 sequestration) was added to the coal gasification plants in order to reduce their emissions  
3 of greenhouse gases, the cost of electricity would still likely remain competitive with new  
4 nuclear power. For example, the 2007 review by researchers at MIT found an estimated  
5 range of 5.4 to 6.6 cents per kWh for IGCC plants with carbon capture and storage. This  
6 compares well with the six to seven cents per kWh that new nuclear power is likely to  
7 cost.

8           Thus, even at the high range for new IGCC plants without sequestration or the  
9 high end of the range of likely long-term natural gas prices (about 6 dollars per million  
10 Btu), nuclear power is likely to be about 0.5 to 1.0 cent per kWh more expensive than  
11 fossil fuel fired capacity, and perhaps more if pulverized coal was the alternative. To  
12 appreciate the scale of this added cost, I note that, for one 1,000 MW reactor operating at  
13 a capacity factor of 85 percent, the higher cost of electricity from this plant would add an  
14 estimated \$37.2 to \$74.5 million to the electricity bill of Georgia ratepayers.

15  
16 **Q.    ARE THERE ANY REASONS TO CONCLUDE THAT ESTIMATES FOR THE**  
17 **CAPITAL COST OF NUCLEAR REACTORS SUPPLIED BY THE INDUSTRY**  
18 **SHOULD POTENTIALLY BE VIEWED WITH SOME DEGREE OF**  
19 **SKEPTICISM?**

20 **A.    (AM)** The history of cost overruns at nuclear plants in the United States is well known,  
21 including those at the Vogtle nuclear power plant in Georgia.<sup>67</sup> Significantly, in a review  
22 of historical experience with nuclear plant construction, the DOE's Energy Information  
23 Administration noted explicitly that

24                   ... although the utilities did increase their lead-time and cost  
25                   estimates as work on the plants proceeded, they still tended to  
26                   underestimate real overnight costs (i.e., quantities of land, labor,  
27                   material, and equipment) and lead-times *even when the plants*  
28                   *were 90 percent complete.*<sup>68</sup>

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<sup>67</sup> See for example Forbes 1985, EIA 1986, and NAS/NRC 1992

<sup>68</sup> EIA 1986 p. xv (emphasis added)

1 In this review, the EIA found that, for those plants that began construction  
2 between 1966 and 1969, the utilities were underestimating the final cost of the nuclear  
3 plants by an average of 63 percent prior to construction beginning and were still  
4 underestimating their final cost by 22 percent when the plants were three-quarters  
5 complete. Surprisingly, for those plants that began construction between 1974 and 1977,  
6 the nuclear industry actually grew slightly worse at estimating the final plant cost despite  
7 its increase in experience. Specifically, the utilities underestimated the costs of these  
8 plants by 72 percent prior to construction and, even when past plants were three-fourths  
9 complete, they were still underestimating the final construction cost by roughly 23  
10 percent.<sup>69</sup>

11 A particular concern in the current case is that the IRP Mix Study uses  
12 Westinghouse's AP-1000 as the base case option for new nuclear capacity.<sup>70</sup> An AP-  
13 1000 has never been built anywhere in the world, not to mention anywhere in the United  
14 States, so no real world experience is available from which to draw a direct comparison.  
15 This adds to the uncertainty in cost estimates. As noted by analysts at Standard & Poor's  
16 in their 2006 assessment of nuclear power generally, "given that construction would  
17 entail using new designs and technology, cost overruns are highly probable."<sup>71</sup>

18 In recent regulatory actions in North Carolina, where Duke Power has proposed to  
19 build new coal plants at the existing Cliffside power plant, the doubts about nuclear  
20 power's cost-effectiveness and viability were voiced. Jim Rogers, CEO of Duke Power,  
21 which has expressed serious interest in pursuing nuclear power stated in his testimony:  
22

23 Here's my judgment. We put 1800 [dollars] in because it's what  
24 Westinghouse has told us the number is. We are in negotiations with  
25 Westinghouse. My personal – and we modeled – what if it was 2200 and  
26 under 2200 Cliffside and Gas would be the least cost alternative in every  
27 scenario almost. And the reality is, my personal belief about nuclear, I  
28 don't think it comes on in 2016. I'm not a true believer. And secondly, I  
29 don't believe – I believe it comes closer to 2500 or 2600. And if you look

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<sup>69</sup> EIA 1986 page xvi

<sup>70</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 1-15

<sup>71</sup> Kennedy et al. 2006

1 at the testimony of Judah Rose, it's pretty close to 2500. So my personal  
2 judgment is, is that nuclear comes in at a much higher price, and it comes  
3 – and we are actually able to build it, it's going to be delayed beyond  
4 2016. That would be my bet if I had to make the bet today.<sup>72</sup>  
5

6 **Q. DOES THE IRP ADEQUATELY ADDRESS THE RISKS ASSOCIATED WITH**  
7 **GLOBAL CLIMATE CHANGE?**

8 **A.** (AM, SB) No. Climate change is, by far, the largest single environmental risk associated  
9 with the current energy system. Despite the importance and high profile of this issue, the  
10 public IRP filings lacks substantive discussion of climate change or the proposed impact  
11 its decisions will have on the emissions of greenhouse gases, either positively or  
12 negatively. This lack of discussion is particularly troubling given that the “additional  
13 objectives” of the IRP include “Environmental - Does the Plan consider environmental  
14 impacts?”<sup>73</sup>

15 Beyond the main IRP documents, the environmental compliance document  
16 contains only a single explicit reference to climate change, and does not provide any  
17 substantive discussion of what regulations may be put in place by 2015 regarding  
18 greenhouse gas emissions that could potentially affect the decision as to whether or not to  
19 consider building new coal fired plants with carbon sequestration as an alternative to new  
20 nuclear power.<sup>74</sup>

21 Finally, despite having higher greenhouse gas emissions per unit of generation  
22 than any other source, the IRP notes without discussion that

23 If the Company finds that baseload nuclear is not cost-effective as  
24 it is preparing its updated Mix Study in anticipation of a nuclear  
25 Certification filing, then the Company will develop a baseload coal  
26 proposal along with the Mix Study.<sup>75</sup>

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<sup>72</sup> NCUC 2007

<sup>73</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 2-4

<sup>74</sup> Georgia EC 2007 p. 5

<sup>75</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 1-8

1           This strategy puts the ratepayers in double jeopardy. The first proposal is for a  
2 nuclear plant that is likely to be costly. And the back up is a polluting CO<sub>2</sub> emitting plant  
3 that is likely to face stiff taxes or equivalent costs via carbon trading.  
4

5 **Q.   WHAT CONCLUSIONS HAVE YOU DRAWN REGARDING NUCLEAR**  
6 **POWER’S POTENTIAL ROLE IN ADDRESSING CLIMATE CHANGE?**

7 **A.**   (AM) While it is true that, compared to the other major energy sources utilized to  
8 generate base load electricity such as coal, oil, and natural gas, nuclear power plants emit  
9 far lower levels of greenhouse gases even when mining, enrichment, and fuel fabrication  
10 are taken into consideration, nuclear energy is not a viable solution to global warming.  
11 New nuclear power plants are expected to be very expensive, requiring billions of dollars  
12 in U.S. taxpayer subsidies such as those specified in the Energy Policy Act of 2005. If  
13 they are even built, they are not expected to be online before 2013-2014 at the very  
14 earliest as nuclear power plants require much longer lead times than other technologies,  
15 resulting in a marked delay in contributing to reducing greenhouse gas emissions  
16 compared to other available options. Next-generation reactors are even further from  
17 becoming a reality. In order to make a significant contribution to the reduction of carbon  
18 dioxide emissions globally, between one and three thousand nuclear power plants would  
19 need to be built around the world by 2050.<sup>76</sup> This would impose an unrealistic timeframe  
20 for construction with a new plant having to come online between every five days to two  
21 weeks through mid-century. The large number of plants required would greatly  
22 exacerbate the concerns over nuclear weapons proliferation and reactor safety, and  
23 accelerate the generation of waste. Even at the low end of the range, 1000 reactors online  
24 by 2050, the global uranium enrichment capacity would have to increase by roughly two  
25 and a half times, a new repository the size of Yucca Mountain would be needed  
26 somewhere in the world every six years between now and mid-century, and there would  
27 be an unacceptably high risk of at least one Three Mile Island level accident occurring  
28 over the lifetime of the plants. As such the expense and unique vulnerabilities associated  
29 with nuclear power make it a very risky, unsustainable, and highly uncertain option for  
30 reducing greenhouse gas emissions. In short, as summarized by the authors of a 2003

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<sup>76</sup> Smith 2006 p. 26-28

1 report on the future of nuclear power conducted at the Massachusetts Institute of  
2 Technology.

3 The potential impact on the public from safety or waste management failure and  
4 the link to nuclear explosives technology are unique to nuclear energy among  
5 energy supply options. *These characteristics and the fact that nuclear is more*  
6 *costly, make it impossible today to make a credible case for the immediate*  
7 *expanded use of nuclear power.*<sup>77</sup>

8 While the conditions are somewhat different today than when the MIT study was  
9 published, the underlying reasoning of the study is sound. Its high natural gas price assumption  
10 is considerably higher than typical historical LNG costs and a reasonable one for long-term  
11 upper limit costs. Moreover, wind power is more economical than nuclear. And, while natural  
12 gas prices have gone up, other technologies, including intermediate scale solar PV, have become  
13 more economical. None of these carry the financial, safety, security or waste management risks  
14 of nuclear power. Finally, IGCC with sequestration is also closer to realization today than it was  
15 when the MIT study was written.

16  
17 **Q. WHAT PROBLEMS DOES HIGH LEVEL NUCLEAR WASTE POSE FOR**  
18 **GEORGIA POWER RATEPAYERS AND THE PUBLIC?**

19 A. (SB & AM) Yucca Mountain is being presented by the U.S. Department of Energy as a  
20 solution to the problem of high-level nuclear waste. However, the Nuclear Waste Policy  
21 Act limits the waste destined for Yucca Mountain to a maximum of 70,000 metric tons of  
22 heavy metal (MTHM). The bulk of this allotment, about 63,000 MTHM, would be for  
23 spent fuel assemblies from commercial nuclear power plants, with the remaining space  
24 used for military high-level wastes from nuclear weapons production. The development  
25 of the nation's first high-level nuclear waste repository has already taken many decades  
26 and still faces many daunting hurdles before it could even obtain a license to begin  
27 construction. An April 2006 report from the Government Accountability Office (GAO)  
28 reaffirms the mounting challenges facing the Yucca Mountain project and reiterates the  
29 long history of quality assurance problems at the site that have led to repeated delays and  
30 increases in cost. These revelations included the release of emails that revealed the lack

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<sup>77</sup> MIT 2003 p. 22 (emphasis added)

1 of confidence project managers and contractors had on the geological stability of the  
2 Yucca Mountain site and that the release of information on how reports Department of  
3 Energy reports on the safety and security of Yucca Mountain were falsified.<sup>78</sup>

4 Adding to the uncertainty about the repository's future is the fact that a key  
5 element of the regulations governing the Yucca Mountain site was struck down by a  
6 federal court and was re-issued by the Environmental Protection Agency in draft form in  
7 August 2005.<sup>79</sup> As of this date, no final standard has yet been adopted by the EPA.

8 As acknowledged in January 2006 by Dr. Ernest Moniz and Dr. John Deutch,  
9 both MIT professors, both former Undersecretaries in the Department of Energy, and  
10 both co-chairs of the 2003 MIT study on the future of nuclear power, "it is unclear  
11 whether Yucca Mountain will ever receive a license from the Nuclear Regulatory  
12 Commission."<sup>80</sup> No other country currently plans to have a repository in operation before  
13 2020 at the very earliest, and all of these programs have encountered some level of  
14 difficulty.<sup>81</sup>

15  
16 **Q. BEYOND DELAYS AND POOR MANAGEMENT, WHAT OTHER PROBLEMS**  
17 **DOES THE U.S. HIGH LEVEL WASTE REPOSITORY PROGRAM FACE?**

18 A. (AM) Even if delays and poor management had not plagued the U.S. repository program,  
19 a number of serious concerns would remain. First, the land upon which the Nevada Test  
20 Site and Yucca Mountain are located is claimed by the Western Shoshone Nation that  
21 opposes the placement of the repository. The lack of informed consent from those with a  
22 deep cultural and historical connection to the land should alone be sufficient to prevent  
23 any further consideration of the site. Second, Yucca Mountain is a highly complex site  
24 that is geologically unique in many important ways from any other locations being  
25 considered around the world. Yucca Mountain is the only site proposed for construction  
26 in an oxidizing environment, which significantly increases the rate of waste corrosion and  
27 contaminant transport compared to sites with a reducing environment. Third, the DOE  
28 itself projects that Yucca Mountain would not be able to meet the most basic requirement

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<sup>78</sup> GAO 2006

<sup>79</sup> For a further discussion of the proposed EPA Yucca Mountain standard see [Makhijani and Smith 2005b].

<sup>80</sup> Washington Post 2006c

<sup>81</sup> MIT 2003 p. 158 and Holt 2005 p. CRS-1



1 of a repository; namely that it should maintain the peak dose to an acceptably low level.  
2 While IEER has long shared the scientific consensus that mined repository disposal is the  
3 least worst option available for the existing spent fuel and high-level waste, it is our  
4 conclusion that Yucca Mountain cannot be regarded as an appropriate site for the  
5 development of such a repository. Moreover, development of a repository for existing  
6 waste and that from existing nuclear power plants should not be seen as a license for  
7 producing more waste from new power plants, since there is really no satisfactory  
8 solution to the problem of long-term waste management and since other options for  
9 meeting society's requirements for the services that energy provides are available.

10  
11 **Q. HOW DO THE CONTINUING UNCERTAINTIES OF HIGH-LEVEL WASTE**  
12 **DISPOSAL FURTHER IMPACT GEORGIA RATEPAYERS?**

13 A. (SB & AM) Despite the ongoing problems encountered by the Yucca Mountain project,  
14 from 1983 to 2004, Georgia's electricity consumers have paid approximately \$873  
15 million into the federal Nuclear Waste Fund to finance nuclear waste management. This  
16 continuing uncertainty could impact the ratepayer in terms of unknown or unpredictable  
17 costs in dealing with nuclear waste management in the future. Furthermore, even if the  
18 Yucca Mountain project was to eventually open and begin accepting commercial high-  
19 level radioactive waste from nuclear power plants, it is not large enough to handle the  
20 waste from existing plants let alone new nuclear power plants. Table A-7, in the final  
21 Department of Energy Environmental Impact Statement on the Yucca Mountain Project,  
22 shows that by 2011 all currently operating nuclear power plants will have generated a  
23 total waste amount of 63,000 (MTHM).<sup>82</sup> Thus, the current fleet of nuclear reactors will  
24 have generated as much commercial nuclear waste as Yucca Mountain is allowed by law  
25 to hold before the new nuclear plant proposed by Georgia Power could be brought online.  
26 Southern Company had been involved in a consortium, Private Fuel Storage, L.L.C.  
27 (PFS), to develop an offsite storage facility to handle commercial high-level nuclear  
28 waste on the Skull Valley Goshute Native American reservation in Utah 45 miles SW of  
29 Salt Lake City. However, in a December 7, 2005 letter to U.S. Senator Orrin Hatch of

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<sup>82</sup> DOE 2002

1 Utah, Southern Company stated that it would no longer support PFS and that “Southern  
2 Company is committed to Yucca Mountain as the nation’s spent fuel repository.”<sup>83</sup>  
3

4 **Q. WHAT ADDITIONAL CONCERNS EXIST WITH THE COMPANY’S**  
5 **PROPOSAL REGARDING HIGH-LEVEL RADIOACTIVE WASTE?**

6 **A.** (SB) The projection of only 10 years of available wet storage for highly radioactive spent  
7 fuel for the AP-1000 design is problematic even if a design change can be made to add an  
8 additional 7 years of wet storage for a total of 17 years of wet storage. Plant Vogtle’s  
9 Unit 1& 2 have operated since 1987 and 1989 respectively and according to the Georgia  
10 Environmental Protection Division (EPD) are expected to be able to provide wet storage  
11 for the full 40-year length of its operating license. The Company’s filed testimony did  
12 not mention how they intend to store spent fuel onsite upon reaching capacity of the spent  
13 fuel pools. This uncertainty could impact ratepayers in terms of unknown or  
14 unpredictable costs in dealing with nuclear waste management (e.g. costs associated with  
15 onsite dry cask storage in a manner that would be safe from terrorist attacks).  
16

17 **Q. WHAT PROBLEMS ARE LIKELY TO ARISE UNDER AN INITIATIVE TO**  
18 **REPROCESS SPENT FUEL AS AN ALTERNATIVE TO A MINED**  
19 **REPOSITORY?**

20 **A.** (AM) Alternatives to disposal in a mined repository are unlikely to overcome the  
21 challenges posed by nuclear waste. Proposals to reprocess spent fuel that have recently  
22 been put forward, most notably in President Bush’s Global Nuclear Energy Partnership  
23 initiative, would not solve the waste problem and instead would greatly increase the  
24 vulnerabilities of a decision to build a new nuclear plant in that reprocessing schemes are  
25 expensive and create a number of serious environmental risks.

26 First we note that the 2003 interdisciplinary MIT study on the future of nuclear  
27 power estimated that reprocessing the spent fuel and using the separated plutonium in  
28 mixed-oxide fuel (MOX) would be more than four times as expensive as making fresh  
29 fuel from uranium and disposing of it directly in a geologic repository. A previous  
30 estimate from the National Research Council of the U.S. National Academy of Sciences

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<sup>83</sup> Southern Company 2005

1 found that, even if the plutonium was assumed to be provided to the utilities free of  
2 charge (such as would be the case for plutonium turned over from the surplus military  
3 stockpile), then MOX fuel would still be more than one and a half times as expensive as  
4 fuel from fresh uranium.<sup>84</sup> The MIT study estimates a fuel cost of \$2,040 per kgIHM of  
5 fresh LEU fuel compared to a cost of \$8,890 per kgIHM of MOX fuel.

6 Other than the high cost of reprocessing itself, the excess cost of plutonium fuel is  
7 due to the fact that fuel fabrication costs are much higher for MOX than low-enriched  
8 uranium fuel. This higher cost is due to the stricter health and safety requirements as  
9 well as the cost of adding better materials accounting systems to safeguard the weapons  
10 usable plutonium. IEER estimates that reprocessing and the use of MOX fuel in light  
11 water reactors in France has imposed an additional cost of about 2 cents for every kWh  
12 generated from that fuel. As evidence of the lack of suitability of reprocessing  
13 technology, over 200 metric tons of separated plutonium has piled up around the world,  
14 without any real prospect of being used as a fuel. This adds to costs and security  
15 vulnerabilities. New reprocessing technologies will present new challenges as to  
16 technology, cost, and proliferation control.

17 Second, routine discharges and accidents at existing commercial and military  
18 reprocessing facilities have caused environmental damage by contaminating large areas  
19 in the United States, Russia, the English Channel, and the Irish sea. The 1957 explosion  
20 of a waste tank at the Chelyabinsk-65 military reprocessing plant in the Soviet Union  
21 contaminated an area the size of the state of Connecticut and led to the evacuation of  
22 more than 10,000 people.<sup>85</sup> A similar explosion at the French reprocessing plant at La  
23 Hague and the British reprocessing plant at Sellafield is possible, though some of the  
24 technical details of the process are different. The high-level waste tanks at the Savannah  
25 River Site, located in South Carolina across from Augusta, Georgia and along the  
26 Savannah River, already has the most radioactivity in waste of any DOE site.<sup>86</sup>  
27 Westinghouse, the contractor currently operating SRS, filed an expression of interest with  
28 the DOE to potentially pursue the development of new reprocessing technologies and as a  
29 result any future reprocessing of commercial fuel that may occur at the Savannah River

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<sup>84</sup> MIT 2003 p. 146 and 148 and NAS 1995 p. 302

<sup>85</sup> Hu, Makhijani, & Yih 1992 p. 80-94

<sup>86</sup> DOE 1997b p. 2-23

1 Site would potentially bring additional risks to the people of Georgia who live along the  
2 Savannah River and who rely on it for drinking water or as a source of fish.<sup>87</sup>

3 Third, reprocessing generates a large amount of radioactive waste that still  
4 requires geologic disposal in a mined repository. Vitrified high-level waste and spent  
5 MOX fuel both require a repository similar to that required for unprocessed spent fuel.  
6 The unfissioned uranium separated by reprocessing would eventually have to be disposed  
7 of in a repository similar to the Waste Isolation Pilot Plant in New Mexico due both to its  
8 own radiological and chemical properties and its contamination with plutonium and other  
9 transuranic elements. In addition, the amounts of plutonium bearing wastes generated  
10 during the decommissioning of the reprocessing plants is also expected to be quite large,  
11 and to add significantly to the volume of waste destined for repository disposal.<sup>88</sup>

12 Finally, current commercial reprocessing technology, PUREX, generates a large amount  
13 of liquid radioactive waste. Discharges from La Hague and Sellafield into the English  
14 Channel and Irish Sea (respectively) have polluted the seas and the ocean off Western  
15 Europe, drawing a demand from most members of the Oslo-Paris accords (OSPAR) to  
16 demand a permanent stop to the discharges. That demand has yet to be fulfilled. Large  
17 volumes of intermediate level waste contaminated with plutonium are also generated.

18 Fourth, and most importantly, reprocessing results in the separation of plutonium  
19 that can be used to make nuclear weapons. As noted above, over 200 metric tons of  
20 surplus separated, weapons-usable plutonium already sits unused at various commercial  
21 reprocessing plants. Future reprocessing technologies like UREX+ or pyroprocessing, if  
22 successfully developed and eventually commercialized, still pose proliferation risks,  
23 though they are advertised as being proliferation resistant. For instance, the impure  
24 plutonium that comes from pyroprocessing could still be useful to in making crude  
25 nuclear weapons.<sup>89</sup> Moreover, in being more compact and less easily detectable than  
26 PUREX plants, pyroprocessing plants would aggravate proliferation risks by making  
27 detection of illegal plants more difficult.

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<sup>87</sup> GNEP 2006

<sup>88</sup> Bunn et al. 2003 p. 3, 39-40, and 62, MIT 2003 p. 59, Zerriffi and Makhijani 2000 p. 103-105, 144-145, and 170-174, Makhijani and Smith 2004, and Makhijani and Smith 2005,

<sup>89</sup> Kang and von Hippel 2005 p. 171-174 and 177 and CISAC and PSGS 2005 p. 55-56

1 **Q. WHAT PROBLEMS DOES LOW-LEVEL NUCLEAR WASTE POSE FOR**  
2 **GEORGIA POWER RATEPAYERS AND THE PUBLIC?**

3 **A.** (SB) Plant Vogtle historically has sent low-level nuclear waste (LLW) to Barnwell, South  
4 Carolina. However, according to the U.S. NRC, disposal at Barnwell will be limited to  
5 members of the Atlantic Interstate Low-Level Radioactive Waste Compact after 2008,  
6 which consists of only three states: SC, NJ, and CT. Since the Company’s testimony did  
7 not state their plans on where they will send their nuclear waste after 2008 or the  
8 projected costs associated with the change in disposal locations, the Commission should  
9 gather more background on this issue. It is possible that the Company is now shipping  
10 some Class A LLW to EnergySolutions (formerly Envirocare) in Utah. It is unclear on  
11 what Plant Vogtle will do with its Class B and C LLW waste besides storing it on site.  
12 According to the Georgia Environmental Protection Division (EPD), EPD does not  
13 regulate LLW storage at “production facilities licensed by the NRC” and apparently there  
14 are no requirements for the Company to report to the State on their disposal activities.  
15 Georgia falls within the Southeast Compact Commission for Low-Level Radioactive  
16 Waste, which includes VA, TN, MS, AL, GA, and FL. According to the Southeast  
17 Compact Commission:

18 The majority of the Class A waste in the Southeast Compact region, by  
19 curies and by volume, will be accepted for disposal at Envirocare of Utah.  
20 After July 1, 2008, disposal will not be available for certain Class A  
21 wastes, including Class A sealed sources and medical wastes, and all Class  
22 B and Class C wastes from the Southeast Compact region. Generators of  
23 low-level radioactive waste in the Southeast Compact region will likely  
24 need to store Class B, Class C, and certain Class A waste for an uncertain  
25 period of time.<sup>90</sup>

26  
27 This uncertainty could impact ratepayers in terms of unknown or unpredictable costs in  
28 dealing with nuclear waste management. According to the Tennessee Valley Authority’s  
29 (TVA) 2001 Annual Report, disposal costs for low-level radioactive waste that results

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<sup>90</sup> SE Compact

1 from the normal operation of nuclear plants have increased in recent years.<sup>91</sup>

2 Further, the EPA will soon begin to consider the impact of the BEIR VII report of  
3 the National Academy of Sciences on radiation protection standards. This report  
4 increased prior estimates of the cancer risk of radiation notably to women and also  
5 published risks of incidence by age and sex. These increased risks may well be reflected  
6 in tighter radiation protection standards for low-level waste disposal and increase the  
7 reluctance of communities to accept such waste. Both of these factors will tend to  
8 increase low level waste disposal cost; neither has been taken into account by Georgia  
9 Power.

10  
11 **Q. WHAT CONSIDERATIONS NEED TO BE MADE FOR PLANT  
12 DECOMMISSIONING?**

13 **A.** (SB) The dangers and liabilities associated with nuclear power do not end once a plant is  
14 shut down. Decommissioning poses a major economic and environmental hurdle and the  
15 nuclear industry has little experience overall with the process. Of the 125 nuclear power  
16 plants licensed to operate since 1959, only three have been completely decommissioned.  
17 The 1997 NRC minimum decommissioning funding requirements are \$1.3 billion for  
18 Vogtle. An October 2003 analysis by the U.S. Government Accounting Office (GAO)  
19 reported serious deficiencies in the accumulation of adequate decommissioning funds by  
20 33 owners at 42 nuclear power plants across the United States along with an ineffective  
21 effort by the NRC to ensure proper funding. Oglethorpe Power, which owns  
22 approximately 30% of Plant Vogtle Units 1 & 2, was found to be 51-100% below the  
23 benchmark of sufficiency for trust fund balances and/or contribution rates for  
24 decommissioning.<sup>92</sup> The Company's assertion that the decommission cost estimate is  
25 subject to trade secret is unwarranted because this is a public concern that warrants full  
26 tracking and scrutiny by ratepayers, policy makers beyond the PSC, and the affected  
27 public.

28  

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<sup>91</sup> TVA 2001

<sup>92</sup> GAO 2003

1 **Q. WHAT UNIQUE SAFETY AND SECURITY PROBLEMS DO NUCLEAR**  
2 **PLANTS POSE FOR GEORGIA POWER RATEPAYERS AND THE PUBLIC?**

3 **A.** (AM) As noted, among the “additional objectives” in the IRP noted explicitly by Georgia  
4 Power are “Environmental - Does the Plan consider environmental impacts?” and “Risk -  
5 Does the Plan represent a reasonable balance between risk and cost?”<sup>93</sup> However, the  
6 IRP is seriously deficient in addressing the environmental, health, and security risks that  
7 would accompany any effort to build a new nuclear plant in Georgia. In addressing the  
8 issue of whether the IRP represents “a reasonable balance between reduced risk and  
9 cost,” Georgia Power replies

10 Yes. There is a risk that the load growth will be more or less than  
11 expected, and that the demand-side programs may not be well received or  
12 provide the projected load reductions. There also is risk that there will be  
13 more interest in DSM than currently experienced, decreasing the need for  
14 new capacity acquisitions. The Financial Information section in Technical  
15 Appendix Volume 1A provides additional information regarding the  
16 business and financial risks associated with the IRP.<sup>94</sup>

17  
18 However, “business and financial risks” are not the only risks associated with the  
19 IRP’s proposal to build a new light-water nuclear reactor in Georgia. Specifically, this  
20 overly narrow definition of risk ignores the potential risks for a catastrophic accident or a  
21 well coordinated terrorist attack such as those of September 11, 2001, to result in the  
22 release of a large amount of radiation and to contaminate a vast area of the State. Perhaps  
23 the only other type of accident within the energy system that could begin to approach the  
24 immediate environmental impacts of a serious accident at a nuclear plant are the failure  
25 of a large hydroelectric dam or the rupture of a supertanker carrying oil through a fragile  
26 ecosystem such as what happened with the Exxon Valdez in March 1989. However, the  
27 impacts on human health and the environment, the difficulty and cost involved in cleanup  
28 and decontamination efforts, and the very long time scales over which the impacts of the  
29 contamination will persist all make the large-scale release of radiation from a nuclear

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<sup>93</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 2-4

<sup>94</sup> Georgia IRP 2007 p. 8-5

1 plant a truly unique concern. These risks should be addressed explicitly by any proposal  
2 to construct a new nuclear power plant and the PSC needs to be aware of these risks as  
3 such an accident or successful terrorist attack would have significant negative  
4 implications for ratepayers and the public.  
5

6 **Q. WHAT ARE SOME OF THE POTENTIAL IMPACTS FROM AN ACCIDENT**  
7 **OR SUCCESSFUL LARGE-SCALE TERRORIST ATTACK AT AN**  
8 **OPERATING NUCLEAR POWER PLANT?**

9 **A.** (AM) The last study published by the U.S government, entitled Calculation of Reactor  
10 Accident Consequences for U.S. Nuclear Power Plants (CRAC-2) conducted at Sandia  
11 National Laboratories, found that a worst case accident at many power plants could cause  
12 tens of thousands of deaths from prompt radiation effects and long-term fatal cancers and  
13 cause hundred of billions of dollars in damage. While an accident under typical weather  
14 conditions would have much lower consequences, the damage at some plants could still  
15 exceed the Price-Anderson Act's current liability limit of \$10.9 billion.<sup>95</sup> In addition, it is  
16 important to keep in mind the lesson learned from the release of toxic methyl isocyanate  
17 gas at the Union Carbide plant in Bhopal, India, which killed nearly 4,000 people and  
18 injured 200,000; namely that sometimes a worst case accident can, in fact, occur.<sup>96</sup>

19 Even if a reactor's secondary containment was not breached, however, and there  
20 were not dangerously large offsite releases of radiation, a serious accident would still cost  
21 a utility a great deal due both to the loss of the reactor and the need to buy replacement  
22 power until new generating capacity could be built. As summarized by Peter Bradford, a  
23 former commissioner of the Nuclear Regulatory Commission,

24 The abiding lesson that Three Mile Island taught Wall Street was that a  
25 group of N.R.C.-licensed reactor operators, as good as any others, could  
26 turn a \$2 billion asset into a \$1 billion cleanup job in about 90 minutes.<sup>97</sup>

27 This is a significant financial risk associated with nuclear power that is not  
28 currently addressed by the IRP.

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<sup>95</sup> U.S. Congress 2005 p. 186-189

<sup>96</sup> Perrow 1999 p. 355-360

<sup>97</sup> New York Times 2005d



1 To date, the worst reactor accident of any kind was the April 26, 1986 steam  
2 explosion at the graphite moderated, water-cooled Chernobyl nuclear power plant. An  
3 estimated 220,000 people were forced to relocate following the accident and large areas  
4 of agricultural land had to be abandoned. While the estimates are mired in controversy,  
5 thousands of people across Europe and the former Soviet Union are ultimately expected  
6 to die as a result of this disaster. So far, the most serious accident to have occurred at a  
7 commercial light-water reactor was the March 1979 partial meltdown at Three Mile  
8 Island. While this accident is not officially believed to have resulted in the release of  
9 large quantities of non-noble gas radionuclides to the environment, as Richard Feynman  
10 famously noted in relation to the O-ring failures that led to the destruction of the Space  
11 Shuttle Challenger, “[w]hen playing Russian roulette, the fact that the first shot got off  
12 safely is of little comfort for the next.”<sup>98</sup> This cautionary remark must be taken to heart  
13 especially in a context where a large number of new reactors would be built for  
14 addressing global warming concerns.

15  
16 **Q. WHAT GENERAL ISSUES MUST BE CONSIDERED REGARDING THE RISK**  
17 **OF AN ACCIDENT OCCURRING AT A NUCLEAR POWER PLANT WITH**  
18 **RESPECT TO THE AGE OF THE FACILITY?**

19 **A.** (AM) Risk involves considering both the consequences of an event as well as the  
20 likelihood of that event occurring. Therefore, examining the probability of accidents  
21 occurring is a vital step in evaluating the risk posed by Georgia Power’s proposed plan to  
22 build a new reactor.

23 Overall, the rate of accidents at nuclear plants can be expected to follow what  
24 David Lochbaum, nuclear safety engineer with the Union of Concerned Scientists, has  
25 called the “bathtub curve.”<sup>99</sup> Specifically, the accident rate is expected to be higher  
26 during the initial shakedown phase when the plant is new. As the equipment is broken in  
27 and the operators gain experience, the failure rate is expected to fall until it reaches a  
28 relatively steady rate where it remains for a majority of the plant’s operation. Eventually  
29 the equipment in the plant begins to age and wear out while the operator’s accumulation

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<sup>98</sup> Feynman 1988 p. 223

<sup>99</sup> Lochbaum 2000

1 of experience has the potential to lead to over confidence. During this wear out stage, the  
2 accident rate will begin to rise and grow over time until the plant is finally shut down.  
3 The average failure rate over the whole lifetime of the plant is the parameter of most  
4 interest in determining the risk, and will not be accurately reflected by ignoring the  
5 higher values during either the initial shakedown or eventual wear-out phases.

6 All seven of the nuclear accidents that have so far occurred at civilian and military  
7 research and power reactors have happened within one to seven years of the reactors first  
8 achieving criticality. Overall, the average length of time that these reactors had been  
9 operating before suffering their respective accidents was less than three and a half  
10 years.<sup>100</sup> As the current fleet of reactors has aged, the number of incidents caused by  
11 equipment wearing out has grown. So far, the most important example of the degradation  
12 of safety due to aging has been the corrosion of the reactor vessel head at the Davis-Besse  
13 plant near Toledo, Ohio. During inspections in March 2002, the operator of the plant  
14 discovered that boric acid leaking from inside the core had corroded the carbon steel top  
15 of the reactor vessel and created a pit the size of a pineapple. As a result, the only  
16 material left to contain the superheated cooling water, exerting more than 2,180 pounds  
17 per square inch of pressure, was a stainless steel liner just 0.125 inches thick. If this  
18 lining had ruptured, it could have damaged the nearby control rod and would have led to  
19 a potentially serious loss of coolant accident.<sup>101</sup>

20 Both the NRC's "Lessons Learned" Task Force and the U.S. Government  
21 Accountability Office concluded that the corrosion of the vessel head could have been  
22 prevented if the NRC and the reactor operators had acted properly. At least twice, the  
23 operators of the Davis-Besse plant put off careful examination of the vessel despite  
24 identification of possible boric acid leaks. Following these revelations, NRC Chairman  
25 Richard Meserve concluded that "[i]n short, the inspections at Davis-Besse have revealed  
26 that the head corrosion problem was a direct result of a degraded safety culture" and that

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<sup>100</sup> Makhijani and Saleska 1999 p. 152-153, Fuller 1975 p. 103-115, 128, and 194-206, Kemeny Commission 1979 p. 110-161, Jedicke 1989, Medvedev 1990 p. 12-36, Wise 1999 p. 4-5, Makhijani, Hu, and Yih 2000 p. 417-419, Stacy 2000 p. 138-149, EIA 2002, and IEER 2005

<sup>101</sup> NRC 2002, UCS 2003, GAO 2004, and OIG 2002

1 “a recurrent theme over the past decade is the need for improvement of safety culture at  
2 plants that are encountering serious difficulties.”<sup>102</sup>

3  
4 **Q. WHAT GENERAL CONCLUSIONS HAVE YOU DRAWN REGARDING**  
5 **PREDICTIONS FOR THE SAFETY OF NUCLEAR POWER PLANTS?**

6 **A.** (AM) That the impacts from a major accident at a commercial light-water reactor could  
7 be very severe is not in debate – this has been officially acknowledged since the 1950s.  
8 However, the likelihood that such accidents might occur remains more uncertain.  
9 Estimates for the likelihood of an accident occurring have significant uncertainties that  
10 greatly complicate projections about the safety of an expanded use of nuclear power.  
11 Specifically, the probabilistic risk assessments (PRA) used to model the likelihood of  
12 accidents have numerous methodological weaknesses that make them an uncertain basis  
13 upon which to make decisions that could have such wide-ranging and long-lasting  
14 impacts.

15  
16 **Q. WHAT SPECIFIC AREAS OF UNCERTAINTY MUST BE CONSIDERED IN**  
17 **ANALYZING THE RESULTS OF PROBABILISTIC RISK ASSESSMENTS FOR**  
18 **NUCLEAR POWER PLANTS?**

19 **A.** (AM) First, the questions of completeness and how to incorporate design defects are  
20 particularly difficult to handle within the PRA methodology in that they essentially  
21 require the analyst to know what they don't know about what could go wrong. If  
22 important accident scenarios could be foreseen they would already be included in the  
23 analysis, and if design defects were identified they could be addressed. The omission of  
24 design defects is particularly important because, in the PRA methodology, all accident  
25 scenarios are assumed to flow linearly from one failure to the next. In other words, it is  
26 assumed that the system as designed and built functions properly, and that it is only when  
27 equipment breaks or an operator makes a mistake that an accident can occur. However,  
28 in a real system, equipment may function as designed, but simply not be appropriate to  
29 the task, such as a pump that activated as planned, but was of insufficient power to force  
30 water to where it was needed.

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<sup>102</sup> Meserve 2002

1 As summarized by Edward Hagen, a development specialist at Oak Ridge  
2 National Laboratory and editor of the Control and Instrumentation section of the journal  
3 *Nuclear Safety*,

4 Mistakes made in the past are not likely to be repeated, but in each new  
5 design other mistakes will creep in. The need for vigilance is eternal.

6 ...

7 No reactor system has ever failed because of a deficiency that could be  
8 seen on a designer's flow sheet or an analyst's model. Such deficiencies  
9 have been revealed only via operating experiences.<sup>103</sup>

10  
11 **Q. ARE THERE OTHER AREAS OF UNCERTAINTY THAT MUST BE**  
12 **CONSIDERED IN ANALYZING THE RESULTS OF PROBABILISTIC RISK**  
13 **ASSESSMENTS FOR NUCLEAR POWER PLANTS?**

14 **A.** (AM) Yes. Additional concerns arise due to the fact that nuclear power demands an  
15 extremely high level of competence at all times from all levels of the organization -- from  
16 the regulators and managers all the way through to the operators and maintenance crews.  
17 If the human element of the system falters, then there is the possibility for a severe  
18 accident to occur. As summarized by Edward Hagen,

19 There is not now and never will be a "typical" or "average" human  
20 being whose performance and reactions to any operating condition,  
21 let alone an abnormal operating condition, can be catalogued,  
22 qualitatively defined, or quantitatively determined. There are no  
23 human robots.<sup>104</sup>

24 This difficulty in integrating human error into PRAs is particularly important  
25 given the contribution of these mistakes to the overall failure rate of many systems.  
26 There are a number of factors that can unpredictably affect human performance which  
27 add to the uncertainty in PRAs. The stress of accident situations when the consequences  
28 are potentially so high is certainly one such factor as is the potential impacts of drug or  
29 alcohol abuse. However, even simple fatigue can have a dramatic impact on human

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<sup>103</sup> Hagen 1980 p. 189-191

<sup>104</sup> Hagen 1980 p. 191

1 reliability. As summarized by the Presidential Commission appointed to investigate the  
2 Three Mile Island accident

3 We are convinced that if the only problems were equipment  
4 problems, this Presidential Commission would never have been  
5 created. The equipment was sufficiently good that, except for  
6 human failures, the major accident at Three Mile Island would  
7 have been a minor incident. But, wherever we looked, we found  
8 problems with the human beings who operate the plant, with the  
9 management that runs the key organization, and with the agency  
10 that is charged with assuring the safety of nuclear power plants.<sup>105</sup>  
11

12 **Q. WHAT OTHER AREAS OF UNCERTAINTY CAN AFFECT THE RESULTS OF**  
13 **PROBABILISTIC RISK ASSESSMENTS?**

14 **A.** (AM) The increased use of computers and digital systems in new reactor designs create  
15 important safety tradeoffs with improvements possible during normal operation, but the  
16 potential for unexpected problems to arise during accidents. The National Research  
17 Council has noted that there remains an ongoing “controversy within the software  
18 engineering community as to whether an accurate failure probability can be assessed for  
19 software or even whether software fails randomly.”<sup>106</sup> In addition, the National Research  
20 Council concluded that

21 At this time, there does not seem to be an agreed-upon, effective  
22 methodology for designers, owner-operators, maintainers, and  
23 regulators to assess the overall impact of computer-based, human-  
24 machine interfaces on human performance in nuclear power  
25 plants.<sup>107</sup>

26 Finally, the increased reliance on software can have an important impact on the  
27 completeness of PRAs as well. As summarized by the National Research Council,  
28 “[a]nalog systems are believed to fail in more predictable and obvious ways than do the

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<sup>105</sup> Kemeny Commission 1979 p. 8

<sup>106</sup> NAS/NRC 1997 p. 7

<sup>107</sup> NAS/NRC 1997 p. 7

1 more hidden and insidious failure mechanisms in software.”<sup>108</sup> The possibility for such  
2 hidden failure modes is increased in some plants by the much greater complexity of the  
3 software systems that have been developed.

4 Reactor operators have already reported a number of problems with digital  
5 systems.<sup>109</sup> A particularly striking example occurred recently in France. On March 3,  
6 2006, an operator at the Civaux nuclear plant placed a notebook on his keyboard  
7 accidentally causing a group of control rods to move out of the reactor. As a result, the  
8 reactor exceeded its maximum rated power for approximately one minute and twenty  
9 seconds before the operator recognized the problem and reinserted the control rods.<sup>110</sup>

10  
11 **Q. OVERALL WHAT IMPACT DO THE UNCERTAINTIES HAVE ON THE**  
12 **USEFULNESS OF PROBABILISTIC RISK ASSESSMENTS AS A MEANS OF**  
13 **PROJECTING THE SAFETY OF FUTURE NUCLEAR POWER PLANTS?**

14 **A.** (AM) In light of the uncertainties inherent in the PRA methodology and the influence that  
15 may be exerted by the choices made in conducting the analysis, William Ruckelshaus, the  
16 head of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency under both Presidents Nixon and  
17 Reagan, cautioned that

18 We should remember that risk assessment data can be like the  
19 captured spy: if you torture it long enough, it will tell you anything  
20 you want to know.<sup>111</sup>

21 The uncertainties in the PRA methodology are a particular concern for estimates  
22 of the safety of new reactor designs such as the Westinghouse AP-1000 proposed for  
23 consideration by Georgia Power since this type of reactor does not exist anywhere but on  
24 paper. Many important and unforeseen accident scenarios and design flaws have been  
25 discovered during the nearly 3,000 reactor years of operating experience that has been  
26 gained at current reactors. While it is true that new reactor designs are more advanced  
27 than those currently in existence, information is not yet available to determine whether or  
28 to what degree these advancements were, in fact, improvements. These uncertainties

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<sup>108</sup> NAS/NRC 1997 p. 44

<sup>109</sup> NAS/NRC 1997 p. 40-41

<sup>110</sup> Le Monde 2006

<sup>111</sup> Ruckelshaus 1984 p. 157-158

1 expose the people of Georgia to economic risks as well as potentially serious health and  
2 environmental risks in the event of an accident or successful terrorist attack. Placing too  
3 much faith in theoretical estimates for the safety of new designs without a suitable  
4 consideration of the uncertainties involved could be a potentially catastrophic mistake.  
5

6 **Q. WHAT ADDITIONAL CONCERNS REGARDING NUCLEAR PLANT SAFETY**  
7 **ARISE AS A RESULT OF POTENTIAL TERRORIST ACTIONS?**

8 **A.** (SB & AM) In addition to accidents, a successful terrorist attack on the scale of those  
9 carried out on September 11, 2001, could also lead to a major release of radiation from a  
10 nuclear plant. While the likelihood of this kind of attack occurring is likely to be small,  
11 more reactors mean more targets, and we should not forget that the probability of the  
12 World Trade Center towers collapsing due to the impact of civilian aircraft was also  
13 considered to be small before they fell. Significantly, FBI director Robert S. Mueller  
14 testified before the Select Committee on Intelligence in the U.S. Senate in February 2005  
15 that

16 Another area we consider vulnerable and target rich is the energy  
17 sector, particularly nuclear power plants. Al-Qa'ida planner Khalid  
18 Sheikh Mohammed had nuclear power plants as part of his target  
19 set and we have no reason to believe that al-Qa'ida has  
20 reconsidered.<sup>112</sup>

21  
22 Already at least once since September 11, 2001 the Federal Aviation  
23 Administration has issued an order temporarily banning all general aviation flying within  
24 10 nautical miles (11.5 miles) of 86 nuclear power and nuclear weapons production sites  
25 due to the threat of terrorist actions and the GAO has continued to raise concerns  
26 regarding the process for revising the NRC's design basis threat for nuclear plants.<sup>113</sup>  
27

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<sup>112</sup> Mueller 2005

<sup>113</sup> FAA 2001, GAO 2006b, and GAO 2006c

1 **Q. WHAT ARE THE CONNECTIONS BETWEEN NUCLEAR POWER AND**  
2 **NUCLEAR WEAPONS PROLIFERATION THAT SHOULD BE CONSIDERED**  
3 **BY THE COMMISSION?**

4 **A.** (AM) As summarized nearly sixty years ago by the U.S. Committee on Atomic Energy,  
5 “[t]he development of atomic energy for peaceful purposes and the development of  
6 atomic energy for bombs are in much of their course interchangeable and  
7 interdependent.”<sup>114</sup> This overlap between the nuclear fuel cycle and the infrastructure  
8 required to produce nuclear weapons makes nuclear power uniquely dangerous among all  
9 sources of electricity.

10  
11 **Q. HOW WOULD A DECISION BY GEORGIA POWER TO PURSUE NEW**  
12 **NUCLEAR POWER PLANTS IMPACT THE ISSUE OF NUCLEAR WEAPONS**  
13 **PROLIFERATION AND HOW COULD THAT IMPACT THE GEORGIA**  
14 **RATEPAYERS?**

15 **A.** (AM) The difficulties in addressing nonproliferation would be increased if new nuclear  
16 plants were built in the United States since new uranium enrichment capacity would  
17 almost certainly have to be built. The only enrichment plant in current operation in the  
18 U.S. is the highly energy inefficient gas diffusion plant in Paducah, Kentucky. This  
19 facility is already more than 50 years old. If new nuclear power plants were to be built  
20 anywhere in the U.S., this enrichment facility would very likely be replaced by smaller  
21 more energy efficient gas centrifuge plants. There are currently two new enrichment  
22 plants proposed for construction in the United States. One, the American Centrifuge  
23 Plant in Piketon, Ohio, is still seeking a license from the Nuclear Regulatory  
24 Commission, while the other, the National Enrichment Facility in Hobbs, New Mexico,  
25 received a license from the NRC in June 2006. The license for the National Enrichment  
26 Facility is currently being challenged by interveners in federal court. I have served as  
27 one of the experts before the NRC’s Atomic Safety and Licensing Board in the National  
28 Enrichment Facility case. Both enrichment plants combined, however, would replace

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<sup>114</sup> The Committee on Atomic Energy was commissioned in 1946 by then Under-Secretary of State Dean Acheson. The committee was chaired by David Lilienthal, then the Chairman of the Tennessee Valley Authority and later the first Chairman of the Atomic Energy Commission. The committee also included the presidents of the New Jersey Bell Telephone Company, Monsanto, and General Electric, as well as Robert Oppenheimer who had headed the bomb design work at Los Alamos Laboratory during the Manhattan Project. [Acheson and Lilienthal 1946 p. 4]



1 less than 60 percent of the Paducah plant's capacity. The continued development of new  
2 enrichment plants in the U.S undermines efforts to prevent other countries, such as Iran  
3 or North Korea, from developing these same capabilities.

4 The instability and global security concerns created by the potential proliferation  
5 of nuclear weapons (particularly when the countries involved are in resource rich areas)  
6 can have a significant impact on the world economy, as the war on Iraq and ongoing  
7 confrontation with Iran have demonstrated. Finally, in addition to the tragic human  
8 consequences, the global economic consequences that would follow a nuclear attack on a  
9 city like New York, Atlanta, or Tokyo are very difficult to predict, but would almost  
10 certainly be catastrophic. For example, the U.N. High-level Panel on Threats, Challenges  
11 and Change concluded that the total economic impact following the detonation of even a  
12 simple nuclear weapon in a major city would be "at least one trillion dollars."<sup>115</sup>  
13

14 **Q. ARE THERE PROPOSALS FOR MANAGING THE RISKS OF NUCLEAR**  
15 **WEAPONS PROLIFERATION THAT ARE LIKELY TO BE ABLE TO**  
16 **ADEQUATELY ADDRESS THESE CONCERNS?**

17 **A.** (AM) The proposals that have been put forward to try and reduce the proliferation risks  
18 posed by a revival of nuclear power are unlikely to be sustainable over the long term in  
19 light of the continued refusal of the nuclear weapons states to disarm and their continued  
20 focus on nuclear weapons as a corner stone of their national security posture.<sup>116</sup> In effect,  
21 the current nonproliferation efforts seek to permanently institutionalize a discriminatory  
22 system of nuclear weapons "haves" and "have-nots." Even efforts to enhance the power  
23 of inspections by the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) have been  
24 undermined by the preferential treatment given to the acknowledged nuclear weapons  
25 states. For example, despite the favorable conditions in the agreements, neither Russia  
26 nor the United States have ratified their Additional Protocols with the IAEA further  
27 undermining efforts to achieve universal adherence.<sup>117</sup>

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<sup>115</sup> High-level Panel 2004 p. 40

<sup>116</sup> DOD 2001, NATO 2001 p. 160, Smith 2003, Deller, Makhijani, and Burroughs 2003, Makhijani and Deller 2003. NTI 2004, New York Times 2004, and Chirac 2006

<sup>117</sup> IAEA 2005b p. 13-14 and IAEA 2005c



1 built-in protections to avoid or mitigate the effects of a large commercial aircraft impact,  
2 making them even more resistant to an attack.”<sup>118</sup>

3 - The Commission should examine the limitations present in the Price Anderson  
4 Act that currently limit the liability assessed to nuclear power utilities in cases of major  
5 accidents and ultimately places the financial burden on tax payers and rate payers.

6 - The Commission should examine the potential water impacts that will result from  
7 the choices and location of new energy supply technologies in the state, including energy  
8 efficiency measures.

9 - The Commission should order the companies to discontinue their pursuit of new  
10 nuclear plants due to their inherent threat to the public.

11 - The Commission should order the companies to explicitly consider how a mix of  
12 wind, solar PV on an intermediate scale, standby of existing combined cycle plants, and  
13 existing hydropower power plants could be operated so as to provide reliable electricity  
14 supply at modest cost. Explicit optimization strategies should be considered for the mix.

15 - Lastly, the Commission should order the companies to coordinate different stages  
16 of IRP development so that a diverse range of public and ratepayer interests, including  
17 intervening parties and state agencies such as the Georgia Environmental Facilities  
18 Authority and the Environmental Protection Division, that have important input into the  
19 IRP process can help ensure that the IRPs filed with the Commission more closely reflect  
20 public and ratepayer preferences, needs and concerns.

21  
22 **Q. PLEASE PROVIDE THE FULL REFERENCES FOR FOOTNOTES FROM**  
23 **YOUR TESTIMONY.**

24 **A. (SB & AM)**  
25

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<sup>118</sup> NRC 2007c

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2 **Q. DOES THIS COMPLETE YOUR TESTIMONY?**

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4 **A.** (SB & AM) Yes.