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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

%	Percent
%HA	Percent Highly Annoyed
AFOSH	Air Force Occupational Safety and Health
AGL	Above Ground Level
ANG	Air National Guard
ANSI	American National Standards Institute
CDNL	C-Weighted Day-Night Average Sound Level
CFR	Code of Federal Regulations
CHABA	Committee on Hearing, Bioacoustics, and Biomechanics
CNEL	Community Noise Equivalent Level
CSEL	C-Weighted Sound Exposure Level
dB	Decibel
dB(A)	A-Weighted Decibels
dBA	A-Weighted Decibels
dB(C)	C-Weighted Decibel
DLR	German Aerospace Center (<i>Deutsches Zentrum für Luft und Raumfahrt e.V.</i>)
DNL	Day-Night Average Sound Level
DoD	Department of Defense
FAA	Federal Aviation Administration
FICAN	Federal Interagency Committee on Aviation Noise
FICON	Federal Interagency Committee on Noise
HA	Highly Annoyed
HYENA	Hypertension and Exposure to Noise near Airports
Hz	Hertz
ISO	International Organization for Standardization
L	Sound Level
L _{dn}	Day-Night Average Sound Level
L _{dnmr}	Onset-Rate Adjusted Monthly Day-Night Average Sound Level
L _{eq}	Equivalent Sound Level
L _{eq(16)}	Equivalent Sound Level over 16 hours
L _{eq(24)}	Equivalent Sound Level over 24 hours
L _{eq(30min)}	Equivalent Sound Level over 30 minutes
L _{eq(8)}	Equivalent Sound Level over 8 hours
L _{eq(h)}	Hourly Equivalent Sound Level
L _{max}	Maximum Sound Level
L _{pk}	Peak Sound Level
mmHg	millimeters of mercury
MTR	Military Training Route
NA	Number of Events At or Above a Selected Threshold
NAL	Number of Events Above combined with the Threshold Level
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NDI	Noise Depreciation Index
NIOSH	National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health
NIPTS	Noise-induced Permanent Threshold Shift
OR	Odds Ratio
OSHA	Occupational Safety and Health Administration
POI	Point of Interest
psf	Pound per Square Foot
PTS	Permanent Threshold Shift
PTSD	Post-traumatic Stress Disorder
RANCH	Road Traffic and Aircraft Noise Exposure and Children’s Cognition and Health

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SEL	Sound Exposure Level
SIL	Speech Interference Level
SUA	Special Use Airspace
TA	Time Above
TAL	Time Above combined with the Threshold Level
TTS	Temporary Threshold Shift
U.S.	United States
UKDFES	United Kingdom Department for Education and Skills
USC	United States Code
USEPA	United States Environmental Protection Agency
USFWS	United States Fish and Wildlife Service
WHO	World Health Organization

B NOISE MODELING, METHODOLOGY, AND EFFECTS

Section B.1 of this appendix discusses sound and noise and their potential effects on the human and natural environment. The largest section, Section B.2, reviews the potential effects of noise, focusing on effects on humans but also addressing effects on property values, terrain, structures, and animals. Section B.3 contains the list of references cited.

B.1 NOISE AND SONIC BOOM

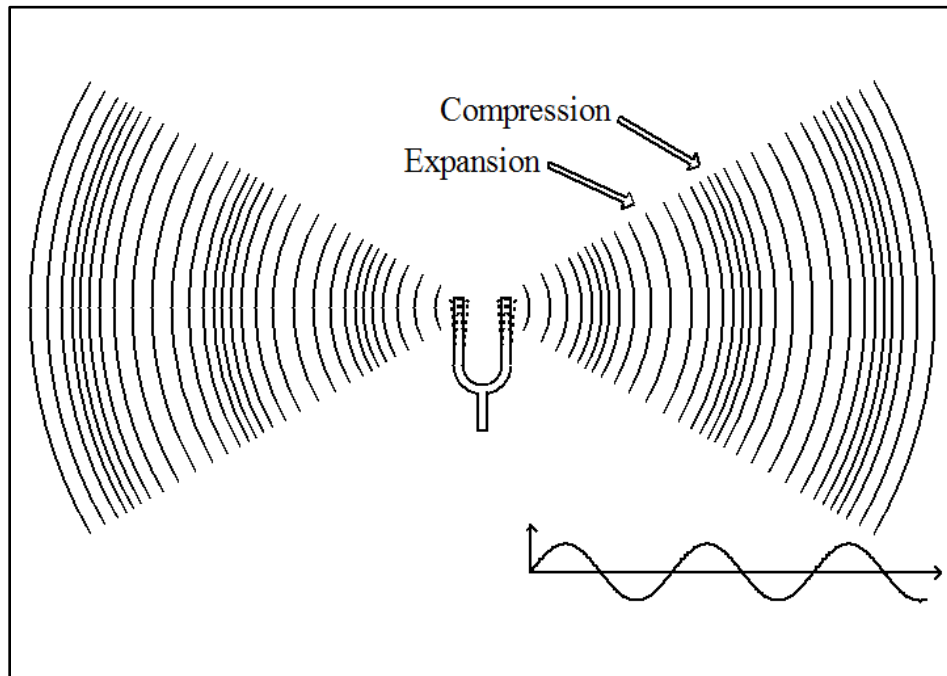
Section B.1.1 provides an overview of the basics of sound and noise. Section B.1.2 defines and describes the different metrics used to describe noise.

B.1.1 Basics of Sound

The following four subsections describe sound waves, sound levels and types of sounds, sonic boom and workplace noise.

B.1.1.1 Sound Waves and Decibels

Sound consists of minute vibrations in the air that travel through the air and are sensed by the human ear. Figure B-1 is a sketch of sound waves from a tuning fork. The waves move outward as a series of crests where the air is compressed and troughs where the air is expanded. The height of the crests and the depth of the troughs are the amplitude or sound pressure of the wave. The pressure determines its energy or intensity. The number of crests or troughs that pass a given point each second is called the frequency of the sound wave.



Source: Wyle Laboratories.

Figure B-1. Sound Waves from a Vibrating Tuning Fork

The measurement and human perception of sound involves three basic physical characteristics: intensity, frequency, and duration.

- *Intensity* is a measure of the acoustic energy of the sound and is related to sound pressure. The greater the sound pressure, the more energy carried by the sound and the louder the perception of that sound.
- *Frequency* determines how the pitch of the sound is perceived. Low frequency sounds are characterized as rumbles or roars, while high frequency sounds are typified by sirens or screeches.
- *Duration* or the length of time the sound can be detected.

As shown in Figure B-1, the sound from a tuning fork spreads out uniformly as it travels from the source. The spreading causes the sound's intensity to decrease with increasing distance from the source. For a source such as an aircraft in flight, the sound level will decrease by about 6 decibels (dB) for every doubling of the distance. For a busy highway, the sound level will decrease by 3 to 4.5 dB for every doubling of distance.

As sound travels from the source, it also gets absorbed by the air. The amount of absorption depends on the frequency composition of the sound, the temperature, and the humidity conditions. Sound with high frequency content gets absorbed by the air more than sound with low frequency content. More sound is absorbed in colder and drier conditions than in hot and wet conditions. Sound is also affected by wind and temperature gradients, terrain (elevation and ground cover), and structures.

The loudest sounds that can be comfortably heard by the human ear have intensities a trillion times higher than those of sounds barely heard. Because of this vast range, it is unwieldy to use a linear scale to represent the intensity of sound. As a result, a logarithmic unit known as the decibel (abbreviated dB) is used to represent the intensity of a sound. Such a representation is called a sound level. A sound level of 0 dB is approximately the threshold of human hearing and is barely audible under extremely quiet listening conditions. Normal speech has a sound level of approximately 60 dB. Sound levels above 120 dB begin to be felt inside the human ear as discomfort. Sound levels between 130 and 140 dB are felt as pain (Berglund and Lindvall 1995).

Because of the logarithmic nature of the decibel unit, sound levels cannot simply be added or subtracted and are somewhat cumbersome to handle mathematically. However, some simple rules are useful in dealing with sound levels. First, if a sound's intensity is doubled, the sound level increases by 3 dB, regardless of the initial sound level. For example:

$$60 \text{ dB} + 60 \text{ dB} = 63 \text{ dB, and}$$

$$80 \text{ dB} + 80 \text{ dB} = 83 \text{ dB.}$$

Second, the total sound level produced by two sounds of different levels is usually only slightly more than the higher of the two. For example:

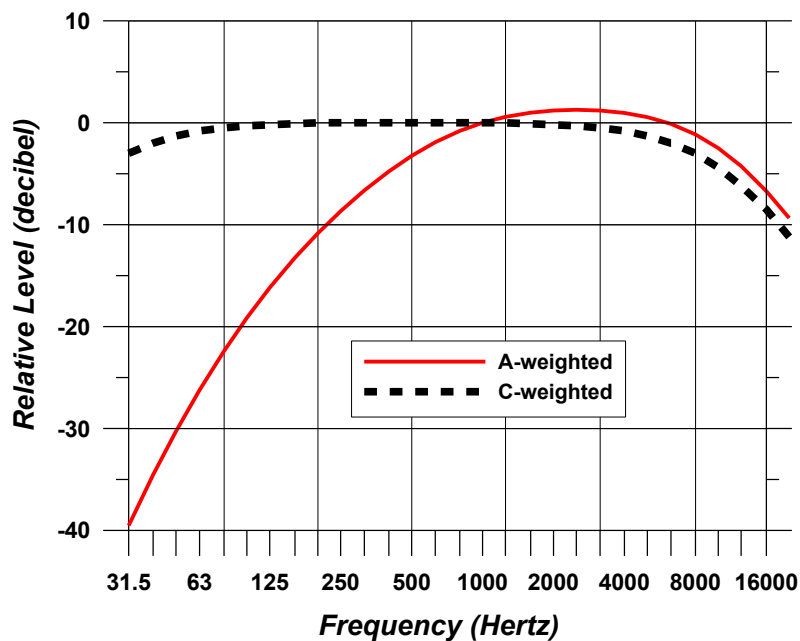
$$60.0 \text{ dB} + 70.0 \text{ dB} = 70.4 \text{ dB.}$$

Because the addition of sound levels is different than that of ordinary numbers, this process is often referred to as "decibel addition."

The minimum change in the sound level of individual events that an average human ear can detect is about 3 dB. On average, a person perceives a change in sound level of about 10 dB as a doubling (or halving) of the sound's loudness. This relation holds true for loud and quiet sounds. A decrease in sound level of 10 dB actually represents a 90 percent (%) decrease in sound intensity but only a 50% decrease in perceived loudness because the human ear does not respond linearly.

Sound frequency is measured in terms of cycles per second or hertz (Hz). The normal ear of a young person can detect sounds that range in frequency from about 20 Hz to 20,000 Hz. As we get older, we lose the ability to hear high frequency sounds. Not all sounds in this wide range of frequencies are heard equally. Human hearing is most sensitive to frequencies in the 1,000 to 4,000 Hz range. The notes on a piano range from just over 27 Hz to 4,186 Hz, with middle C equal to 261.6 Hz. Most sounds (including a single note on a piano) are not simple pure tones like the tuning fork in Figure B-1, but contain a mix, or spectrum, of many frequencies.

Sounds with different spectra are perceived differently even if the sound levels are the same. Weighting curves have been developed to correspond to the sensitivity and perception of different types of sound. A-weighting and C-weighting are the two most common weightings. These two curves, shown in Figure B-2, are adequate to quantify most environmental noises. A-weighting puts emphasis on the 1,000 to 4,000 Hz range.



Source: ANSI S1.4A -1985 "Specification of Sound Level Meters."

Figure B-2. Frequency Characteristics of A- and C-Weighting

Very loud or impulsive sounds, such as explosions or sonic booms, can sometimes be felt, and can cause secondary effects, such as shaking of a structure or rattling of windows. These types of sounds can add to annoyance, and are best measured by C-weighted sound levels, denoted dBC. C-weighting is nearly flat throughout the audible frequency range, and includes low frequencies that may not be heard but cause shaking or rattling. C-weighting approximates the human ear's sensitivity to higher intensity sounds.

B.1.1.2 Sound Levels and Types of Sounds

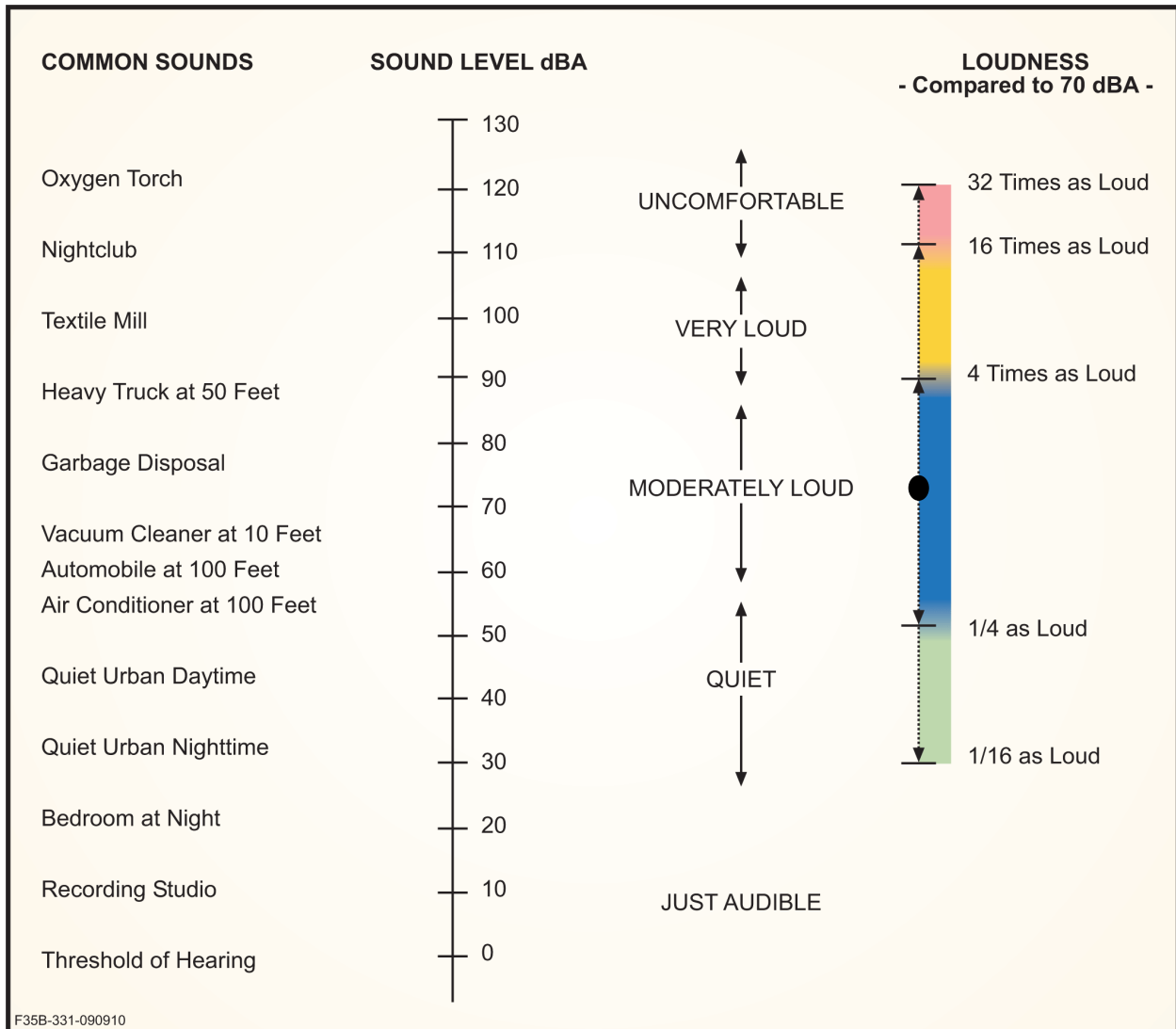
Most environmental sounds are measured using A-weighting. They are called A-weighted sound levels, and sometimes use the unit dBA or dB(A) rather than dB. When the use of A-weighting is understood, the term “A-weighted” is often omitted and the unit dB is used. Unless otherwise stated, dB units refer to A-weighted sound levels.

Sound becomes noise when it is unwelcome and interferes with normal activities, such as sleep or conversation. Noise is unwanted sound. Noise can become an issue when its level exceeds the ambient or background sound level. Ambient noise in urban areas typically varies from 60 to 70 dB, but can be as high as 80 dB in the center of a large city. Quiet suburban neighborhoods experience ambient noise levels around 45-50 dB (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency [USEPA] 1978).

Figure B-3 is a chart of A-weighted sound levels from common sources. Some sources, like the air conditioner and vacuum cleaner, are continuous sounds whose levels are constant for some time. Some sources, like the automobile and heavy truck, are the maximum sound during an intermittent event like a vehicle pass-by. Some sources like “urban daytime” and “urban nighttime” are averages over extended periods. A variety of noise metrics have been developed to describe noise over different time periods. These are discussed in detail in Section B.2.

Aircraft noise consists of two major types of sound events: flight (including takeoffs, landings, and flyovers), and stationary, such as engine maintenance run-ups. The former are intermittent and the latter primarily continuous. Noise from aircraft overflights typically occurs beneath main approach and departure paths, in local air traffic patterns around the airfield, and in areas near aircraft parking ramps and staging areas. As aircraft climb, the noise received on the ground drops to lower levels, eventually fading into the background or ambient levels.

Impulsive noises are generally short, loud events. Their single-event duration is usually less than 1 second. Examples of impulsive noises are small-arms gunfire, hammering, pile driving, metal impacts during rail-yard shunting operations, and riveting. Examples of high-energy impulsive sounds are quarry/mining explosions, sonic booms, demolition, and industrial processes that use high explosives, military ordnance (e.g., armor, artillery and mortar fire, and bombs), explosive ignition of rockets and missiles, and any other explosive source where the equivalent mass of dynamite exceeds 25 grams (American National Standards Institute [ANSI] 1996).



Sources: Harris 1979; Federal Interagency Committee on Aviation Noise (FICAN) 1997.

Figure B-3. Typical A-weighted Sound Levels of Common Sounds

B.1.1.3 Sonic Booms

When an aircraft moves through the air, it pushes the air out of its way. At subsonic speeds, the displaced air forms a pressure wave that disperses rapidly. At supersonic speeds, the aircraft is moving too quickly for the wave to disperse, so it remains as a coherent wave. This wave is a sonic boom. When heard at the ground, a sonic boom consists of two shock waves (one associated with the forward part of the aircraft, the other with the rear part) of approximately equal strength and (for fighter aircraft) separated by 100 to 200 milliseconds. When plotted, this pair of shock waves and the expanding flow between them has the appearance of a capital letter “N,” so a sonic boom pressure wave is usually called an “N-wave.” An N-wave has a characteristic “bang-bang” sound that can be startling. Figure B-4 shows the generation and evolution of a sonic boom N-wave under the aircraft. Figure B-5 shows the sonic boom pattern for an aircraft in steady supersonic flight. The boom forms a cone that is said to sweep out a “carpet” under the flight track.

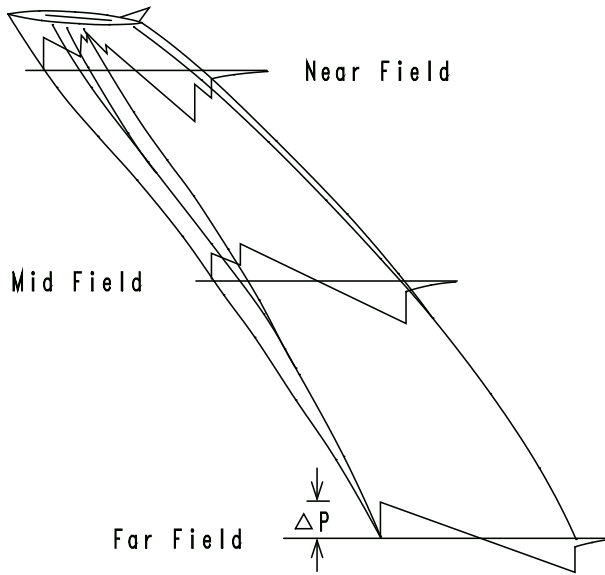


Figure B-4. Sonic Boom Generation and Evolution to N-Wave

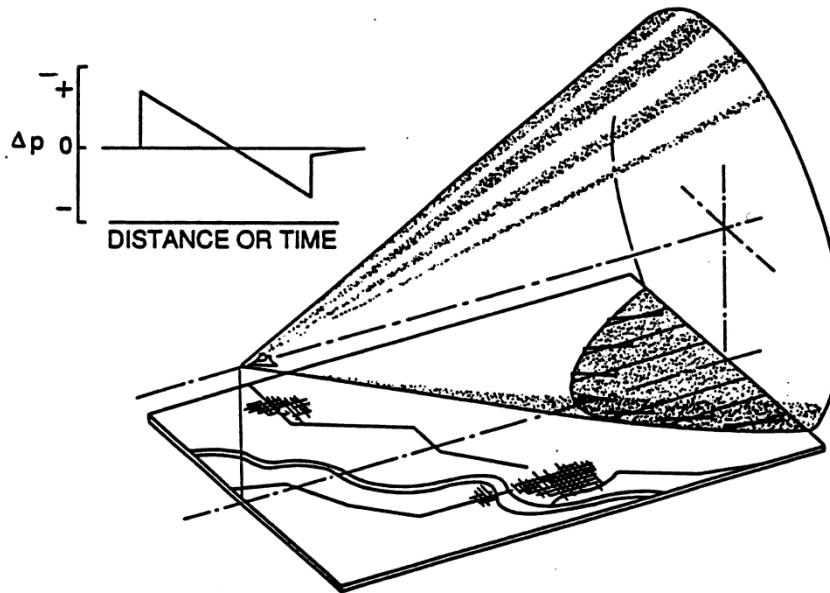


Figure B-5. Sonic Boom Carpet in Steady Flight

The complete ground pattern of a sonic boom depends on the size, shape, speed, and trajectory of the aircraft. Even for a nominally steady mission, the aircraft must accelerate to supersonic speed at the start, decelerate back to subsonic speed at the end, and usually change altitude. Figure B-6 illustrates the complexity of a nominal full mission.

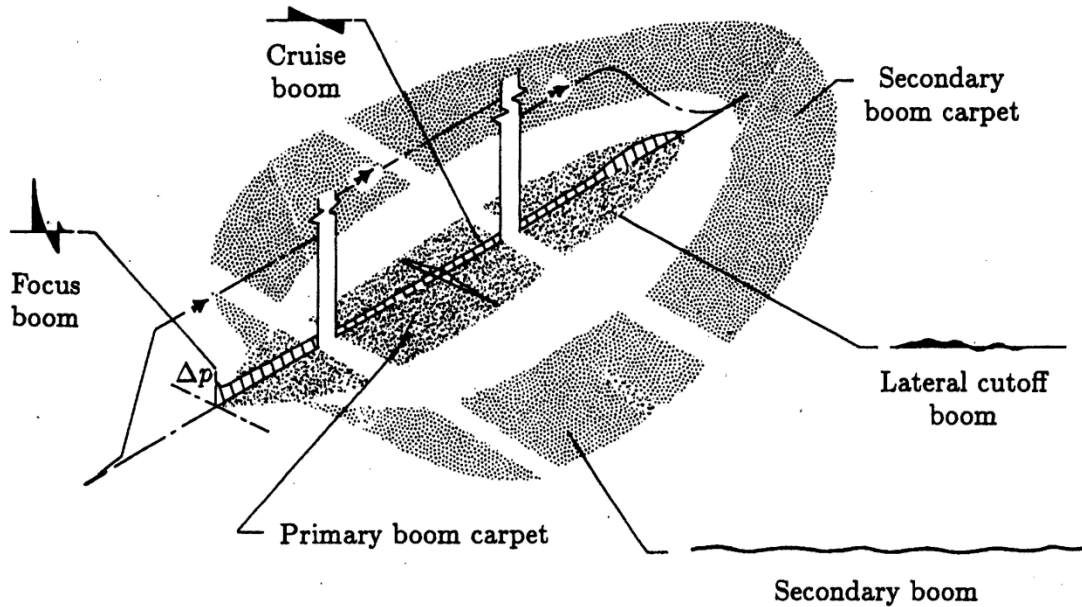


Figure B-6. Complex Sonic Boom Pattern for Full Mission

B.1.1.4 Workplace Noise

In 1972, the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) published a criteria document with a recommended exposure limit of 85 dB as an 8-hour time-weighted average. This exposure limit was reevaluated in 1998 when NIOSH made recommendations that went beyond conserving hearing by focusing on the prevention of occupational hearing loss (NIOSH 1998). Following the reevaluation using a new risk assessment technique, NIOSH published another criteria document in 1998 which reaffirmed the 85 dB recommended exposure limit (NIOSH 1998). Active-duty and reserve components of the United States (U.S.) Air Force (including the Air National Guard [ANG]), as well as civilian employees and contracted personnel working on Air Force bases and Air Guard stations must comply with Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) regulations (29 Code of Federal Regulations [CFR] § 1910.95 Occupational Noise Exposure), Department of Defense (DoD) Instruction 6055.12, Hearing Conservation Program; Air Force Occupational Safety and Health (AFOSH) Standard 48-20 (June 2006), and Occupational Noise and Hearing Conservation Program (including material derived from the International Organization for Standardization [ISO] 1999.2 Acoustics-Determination of Occupational Noise Exposure and Estimation of Noise Induced Impairment). Per AFOSH Standard 48-20, the Hearing Conservation Program is designed to protect workers from the harmful effects of hazardous noise by identifying all areas where workers are exposed to hazardous noise. The following are main components of the program:

1. Identify noise hazardous areas or sources and ensure these areas are clearly marked.

2. Use engineering controls as the primary means of eliminating personnel exposure to potentially hazardous noise. All practical design approaches to reduce noise levels to below hazardous levels by engineering principles shall be explored. Priorities for noise control resources shall be assigned based on the applicable risk assessment code. Where engineering controls are undertaken, the design objective shall be to reduce steady-state levels to below 85 dBA, regardless of personnel exposure time, and to reduce impulse noise levels to below 140 dB peak sound pressure level.
3. Ensure workers with an occupational exposure to hazardous noise complete an initial/reference audiogram within 30 days from the date of the workers' initial exposure to hazardous noise.
4. Ensure new equipment being considered for purchase has the lowest sound emission levels that are technologically and economically possible and compatible with performance and environmental requirements. 42 United States Code (USC) § 4914, *Public Health and Welfare, Noise Control, Development of Low-Noise Emission Products*, applies.
5. Education and training regarding potentially noise hazardous areas and sources, use and care of hearing protective devices, the effects of noise on hearing, and the Hearing Conservation Program.

B.1.2 Noise Metrics

Noise metrics quantify sounds so they can be compared with each other, and with their effects, in a standard way. The simplest metric is the A-weighted level, which is appropriate by itself for constant noise such as an air conditioner. Aircraft noise varies with time. During an aircraft overflight, noise starts at the background level, rises to a maximum level as the aircraft flies close to the observer, then returns to the background as the aircraft recedes into the distance. This is sketched in Figure B-7, which also indicates two metrics (Maximum Sound Level [L_{max}] and Sound Exposure Level [SEL]) that are described in Sections B.2.1 and B.2.3 below. Over time there can be a number of events, not all the same.

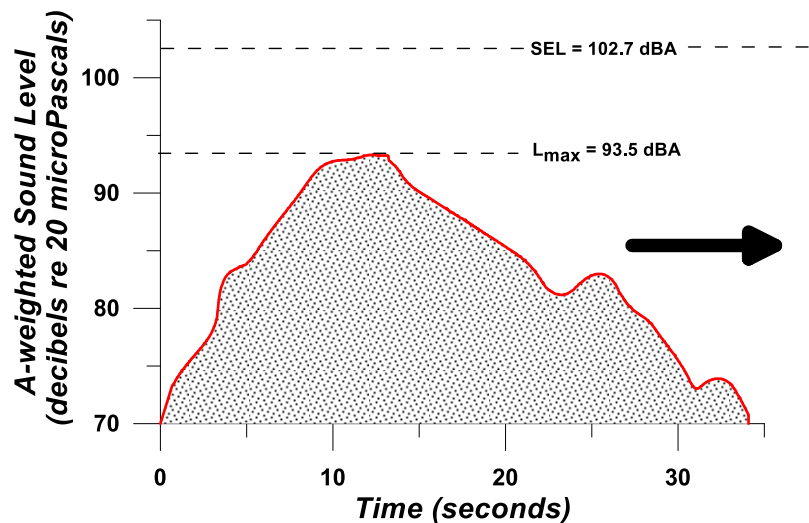


Figure B-7. Example Time History of Aircraft Noise Flyover

There are a number of metrics that can be used to describe a range of situations, from a particular individual event to the cumulative effect of all noise events over a long time. This section describes the metrics relevant to environmental noise analysis.

B.1.2.1 Single Events

Maximum Sound Level (L_{max})

The highest A-weighted sound level measured during a single event in which the sound changes with time is called the maximum A-weighted sound level or Maximum Sound Level and is abbreviated L_{max} . The L_{max} is depicted for a sample event in Figure B-7.

L_{max} is the maximum level that occurs over a fraction of a second. For aircraft noise, the “fraction of a second” is one-eighth of a second, denoted as “fast” response on a sound level measuring meter (ANSI 1988). Slowly varying or steady sounds are generally measured over 1 second, denoted “slow” response. L_{max} is important in judging if a noise event will interfere with conversation, TV or radio listening, or other common activities. Although it provides some measure of the event, it does not fully describe the noise, because it does not account for how long the sound is heard.

Table B-1 reflects L_{max} values for typical military aircraft operating within military airspace associated with this assessment shown with typical flight conditions associated with departure and arrival operations for comparison purposes. On takeoff when reaching 1,000 feet AGL, the F-15C generates an L_{max} of 104 dB and during arrival an L_{max} of 97 dB at the same altitude.

Table B-1. Representative Instantaneous Maximum Sound Levels (L_{max})¹

<i>Aircraft (engine type)</i>	<i>Power Setting</i>	<i>Power Unit²</i>	<i>L_{max} (in dBA) At Varying Altitudes (500 feet)</i>	<i>L_{max} (in dBA) At Varying Altitudes (1,000 feet)</i>	<i>L_{max} (in dBA) At Varying Altitudes (2,000 feet)</i>	<i>L_{max} (in dBA) At Varying Altitudes (5,000 feet)</i>	<i>L_{max} (in dBA) At Varying Altitudes (10,000 feet)</i>
Takeoff/Departure Operations							
F-15C (PW220)	90%	NC	111	104	97	85	75
F-16 (PW229)	93%	NC	114	106	98	86	76
F-22	100%	ETR	120	112	105	93	83
F-35A ³	100%	ETR	119	111	103	91	81
Landing/Arrival Operations⁴							
F-15C (PW220)	75%	NC	104	97	89	77	66
F-16 (PW229)	83.5%	NC	93	86	78	66	56
F-22	43%	ETR	111	104	96	84	73
F-35A ³	40%	ETR	100	93	85	73	62

Source: NOISEMAP OPX file using standard weather conditions of 59 degrees Fahrenheit and 70% relative humidity. F-15EX data not available at this time.

1. Power settings indicated may not be comparable across aircraft, that all numbers are rounded, and power settings are typical but not constant for departure/arrival operations.
2. RPM—Revolutions Per Minute; ETR—Engine Thrust Request; NC—Engine Core RPM; and NF—Engine Fan RPM.
3. Based on 2013 Edwards measurements.
4. All Landing/Arrival aircraft modeled with “parallel-interpolation” power setting for gear down configuration (except if noted).

Sound Exposure Level (SEL)

SEL combines both the intensity of a sound and its duration. For an aircraft flyover, SEL includes the maximum and all lower noise levels produced as part of the overflight, together with how long each part

lasts. It represents the total sound energy in the event. Figure B-7 indicates the SEL for an example event, representing it as if all the sound energy were contained within 1 second. Because aircraft noise events last more than a few seconds, the SEL value is larger than L_{max} . It does not directly represent the sound level heard at any given time, but rather the entire event. SEL provides a much better measure of aircraft flyover noise exposure than L_{max} alone.

Table B-2 shows SEL values corresponding to the aircraft and power settings reflected in Table B-1. At 1,000 feet above ground level (AGL), the F-15C generates an SEL of 115 dB on takeoff and an SEL of 94 dB on arrival.

Table B-2. Representative Sound Exposure Levels (SEL)¹

<i>Aircraft (engine type)</i>	<i>Power Setting</i>	<i>Power Unit²</i>	<i>SEL (in dBA) At Varying Altitudes (500 feet)</i>	<i>SEL (in dBA) At Varying Altitudes (1,000 feet)</i>	<i>SEL (in dBA) At Varying Altitudes (2,000 feet)</i>	<i>SEL (in dBA) At Varying Altitudes (5,000 feet)</i>	<i>SEL (in dBA) At Varying Altitudes (10,000 feet)</i>
Takeoff/Departure Operations³							
F-15C (PW220)	90%	NC	120	115	109	100	91
F-16 (PW229)	93%	NC	119	114	107	98	89
F-22	100%	ETR	127	121	115	106	98
F-35A	100%	ETR	125	119	113	103	95
Landing/Arrival Operation⁴							
F-15C (PW220)	75%	NC	99	94	88	79	71
F-16 (PW229)	83.5%	NC	97	92	86	77	68
F-22	43%	ETR	115	109	103	94	85
F-35A ⁵	40%	ETR	107	102	95	86	76

Source: NOISEMAP OPX file using standard weather conditions of 59 degrees Fahrenheit and 70% relative humidity. F-15EX data not available at this time.

1. Power settings indicated may not be comparable across aircraft, that all numbers are rounded, and power settings are typical but not constant for departure/arrival operations.
2. ETR—Engine Thrust Request; NC—Engine Core RPM; and NF—Engine Fan RPM.
3. Takeoff/Departure modeled at 160 knots airspeed for SEL purposes.
4. All Landing/Arrival aircraft modeled at 160 knots airspeed for SEL purposes.
5. Based on 2013 Edwards measurements.

C-weighted SEL can be computed for impulsive sounds, and the results denoted CSEL or LCE. SEL for A-weighted sound is sometimes denoted ASEL. Within this study, SEL is used for A-weighted sounds and CSEL for C-weighted.

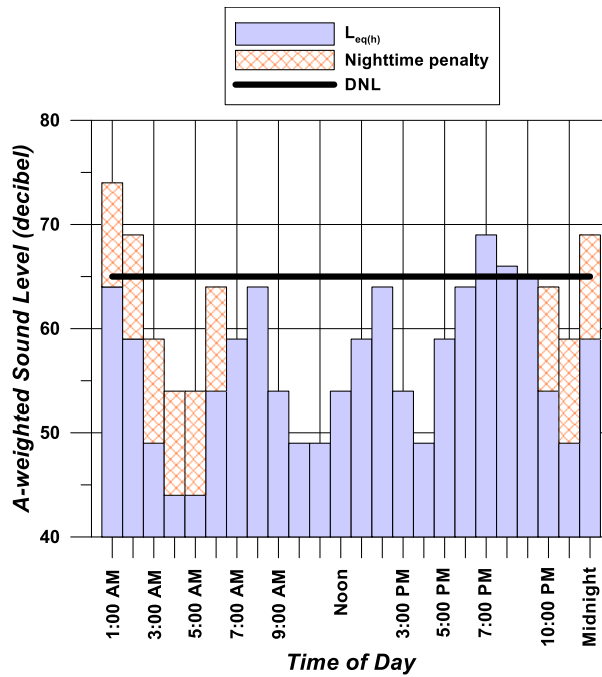
B.1.2.2 Cumulative Events

Equivalent Sound Level (L_{eq})

L_{eq} is a “cumulative” metric that combines a series of noise events over a period of time. L_{eq} is the sound level that represents the decibel average SEL of all sounds in the time period. Just as SEL has proven to be a good measure of a single event, L_{eq} has proven to be a good measure of series of events during a given time period.

The time period of an L_{eq} measurement is usually related to some activity, and is given along with the value. The time period is often shown in parenthesis (e.g., $L_{eq(24)}$ for 24 hours). The $L_{eq(8hr)}$ from 7 a.m. to 3 p.m. provides the noise exposure of a school day for this analysis.

Figure B-8 gives an example of $L_{eq(24)}$ using notional hourly average noise levels ($L_{eq(h)}$) for each hour of the day as an example. The $L_{eq(24)}$ for this example is 61 dB.



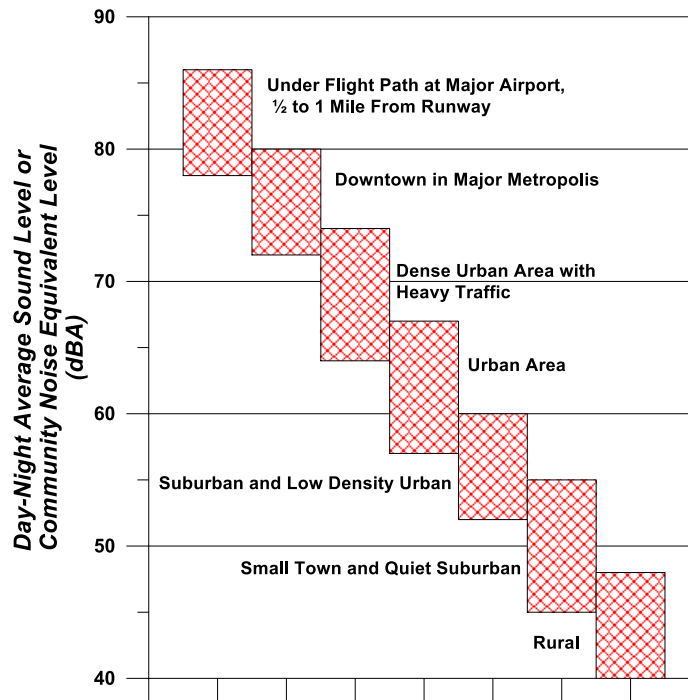
Source: Wyle Laboratories.

Figure B-8. Example of $L_{eq(24)}$, DNL Computed from Hourly Equivalent Sound Levels

Day-Night Average Sound Level (DNL or L_{dn})

DNL is a cumulative metric that accounts for all noise events in a 24-hour period. However, unlike $L_{eq(24)}$, DNL contains a nighttime noise penalty. To account for our increased sensitivity to noise at night, DNL applies a 10 dB penalty to events during the nighttime period, defined as 10:00 p.m. to 7:00 a.m. The notations DNL and L_{dn} are both used for Day-Night Average Sound Level and are equivalent.

For airports and military airfields outside of California, DNL represents the average sound level for annual average daily aircraft events. Figure B-8 gives an example of DNL using notional hourly average noise levels ($L_{eq(h)}$) for each hour of the day as an example. Note the $L_{eq(h)}$ for the hours between 10 p.m. and 7 a.m. have a 10 dB penalty assigned. The DNL for this example is 65 dB. Figure B-9 shows the ranges of DNL that occur in various types of communities. Under a flight path at a major airport the DNL may exceed 80 dB, while rural areas may experience DNL less than 45 dB.



Source: DOD 1978.

Figure B-9. Typical DNL Ranges in Various Types of Communities

The decibel summation nature of these metrics causes the noise levels of the loudest events to dominate the 24-hour average. As a simple example, consider a case in which only one aircraft overflight occurs during the daytime over a 24-hour period, creating a sound level of 100 dB for 30 seconds. During the remaining 23 hours, 59 minutes, and 30 seconds of the day, the ambient sound level is 50 dB. The DNL for this 24-hour period is 65.9 dB. Assume, as a second example that 10 such 30-second overflights occur during daytime hours during the next 24-hour period, with the same ambient sound level of 50 dB during the remaining 23 hours and 55 minutes of the day. The DNL for this 24-hour period is 75.5 dB. Clearly, the averaging of noise over a 24-hour period does not ignore the louder single events and tends to emphasize both the sound levels and number of those events.

A feature of the DNL metric is that a given DNL value could result from a very few noisy events or a large number of quieter events. For example, 1 overflight at 90 dB creates the same DNL as 10 overflights at 80 dB.

DNL does not represent a level heard at any given time, but represent long-term exposure. Scientific studies have found good correlation between the percentages of groups of people highly annoyed and the level of average noise exposure measured in DNL (Schultz 1978; USEPA 1978).

Onset-Rate Adjusted Monthly Day-Night Average Sound Level (L_{dnmr})

Military aircraft utilizing Special Use Airspace (SUA) such as Military Training Routes (MTRs), Military Operations Areas, and Restricted Areas/Ranges generate a noise environment that is somewhat different from that around airfields. Rather than regularly occurring operations like at airfields, activity in SUAs is highly sporadic. It is often seasonal, ranging from 10 per hour to less than 1 per week. Individual

military overflight events also differ from typical community noise events in that noise from a low-altitude, high-air-speed flyover can have a rather sudden onset, with rates of up to 150 dB per second.

The cumulative daily noise metric devised to account for the “surprise” effect of the sudden onset of aircraft noise events on humans and the sporadic nature of SUA activity is the Onset-Rate Adjusted Monthly Day-Night Average Sound Level (L_{dnmr}). Onset rates between 15 and 150 dB per second require an adjustment of 0 to 11 dB to the event’s SEL, while onset rates below 15 dB per second require no adjustment to the event’s SEL (Stusnick et al. 1992). The term ‘monthly’ in L_{dnmr} refers to the noise assessment being conducted for the month with the most operations or sorties—the so-called busiest month.

B.1.2.3 Supplemental Metrics

Number of Events Above (NA) a Threshold Level (L)

The Number of Events Above (NA) metric gives the total number of events that exceed a noise level threshold (L) during a specified period of time. Combined with the selected threshold, the metric is denoted NAL. The threshold can be either SEL or L_{max} , and it is important that this selection is shown in the nomenclature. When labeling a contour line or point of interest (POI), NAL is followed by the number of events in parentheses. For example, where 10 events exceed an SEL of 90 dB over a given period of time, the nomenclature would be NA90SEL(10). Similarly, for L_{max} it would be NA90 L_{max} (10). The period of time can be an average 24-hour day, daytime, nighttime, school day, or any other time period appropriate to the nature and application of the analysis.

NA is a supplemental metric. Although NA is relatively new when compared to the longer history of DNL research, it does provide valuable information to help to describe noise to the community in an easy-to-understand manner. A threshold level and metric are selected that best meet the need for each situation. An L_{max} threshold is normally selected to analyze speech interference, while an SEL threshold is normally selected for analysis of sleep disturbance. Consistent with DNWG guidance an interior threshold of 50 dB L_{max} (interior NA50 dB) provides the threshold used in this analysis for speech interference events in classrooms and residences. Because the noise modeling software does not calculate interior L_{max} directly, the analysis instead computes the equivalent exterior NA65 and NA75 dB that coincide windows open condition (typically 15 dB sound attenuation) and windows open condition (typically 25 dB sound attenuation) to determine the aircraft flight operations estimated to exceed the NA50 interior threshold of interest (DNWG 2013).

The NA metric is the only supplemental metric that combines single-event noise levels with the number of aircraft operations. In essence, it answers the question of how many aircraft (or range of aircraft) fly over a given location or area at or above a selected threshold noise level.

Time Above (TA) a Specified Level (L)

The Time Above (TA) metric is the total time, in minutes, that the A-weighted noise level is at or above a threshold. Combined with the threshold level (L), it is denoted TAL. TA can be calculated over a full 24-hour annual average day, the 15-hour daytime and 9-hour nighttime periods, a school day, or any other time period of interest, provided there is operational data for that time. TA is a supplemental metric, used to help understand noise exposure. TA can be shown as contours on a map similar to the way DNL contours are drawn. TA helps describe the noise exposure of an individual event or many events

occurring over a given time period. When computed for a full day, the TA can be compared alongside the DNL in order to determine the sound levels and total duration of events that contribute to the DNL. TA analysis is usually conducted along with NA analysis so the results show not only how many events occur, but also the total duration of those events above the threshold. It is useful for describing the noise environment in schools, particularly when assessing classroom or other noise sensitive areas for various scenarios.

This analysis computes interior TA50 dB inside of classrooms to represent the duration of time during a typical school that interior noise levels would exceed 50 dB, the threshold at which speech interfering events occurs. Consistent with the NA methodology, the software computes the exterior TA65 that is converted to interior TA50 assuming a 15 dB reduction for a classroom with windows open (DNWG 2013).

B.2 NOISE AND SONIC BOOM EFFECTS

Noise is of concern because of potential adverse effects. The following subsections describe how noise can affect communities and the environment, and how those effects are quantified. The specific topics discussed are:

- Annoyance,
- Land Use Compatibility,
- Speech interference,
- Sleep disturbance,
- Noise-induced hearing impairment,
- Non-auditory health effects,
- Performance effects,
- Noise effects on children,
- Property values,
- Noise-induced vibration effects on structures and humans,
- Noise effects on terrain,
- Noise effects on historical and archaeological sites,
- Effects on domestic animals and wildlife, and
- Sonic Boom.

B.2.1 Annoyance

With the introduction of jet aircraft in the 1950s, it became clear that aircraft noise annoyed people and was a significant problem around airports. Early studies, such as those of Rosenblith et al. (1953) and Stevens et al. (1953) showed that effects depended on the quality of the sound, its level, and the number of flights. Over the next 20 years considerable research was performed refining this understanding and setting guidelines for noise exposure. In the early 1970s, the USEPA published its “Levels Document” (USEPA 1974) that reviewed the factors that affected communities. DNL (still known as L_{dn} at the time) was identified as an appropriate noise metric, and threshold criteria were recommended.

Threshold criteria for annoyance were identified from social surveys, where people exposed to noise were asked how noise affects them. Surveys provide direct real-world data on how noise affects actual residents.

Surveys in the early years had a range of designs and formats, and needed some interpretation to find common ground. In 1978, Schultz showed that the common ground was the number of people “highly annoyed,” defined as the upper 28% range of whatever response scale a survey used (Schultz 1978). With that definition, he was able to show a remarkable consistency among the majority of the surveys for which data were available. Figure B-10 shows the result of his study relating DNL to individual annoyance measured by percent highly annoyed (%HA).

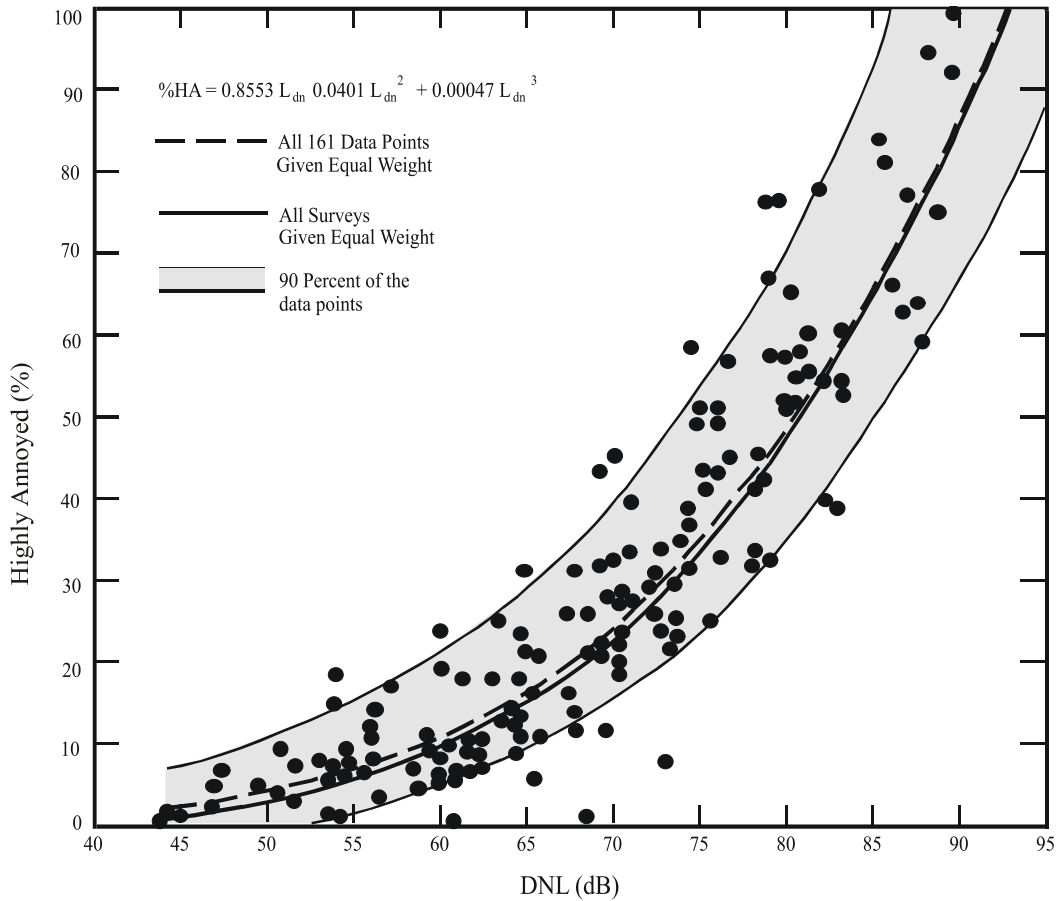


Figure B-10. Schultz Curve Relating Noise Annoyance to DNL (Schultz 1978)

Schultz’s original synthesis included 161 data points. Figure B-11 compares revised fits of the Schultz data set with an expanded set of 400 data points collected through 1989 (Finegold et al. 1994). The new form is the preferred form in the U.S., endorsed by the Federal Interagency Committee on Aviation Noise (FICAN) (1997). Other forms have been proposed, such as that of Fidell and Silvati (2004), but have not gained widespread acceptance.

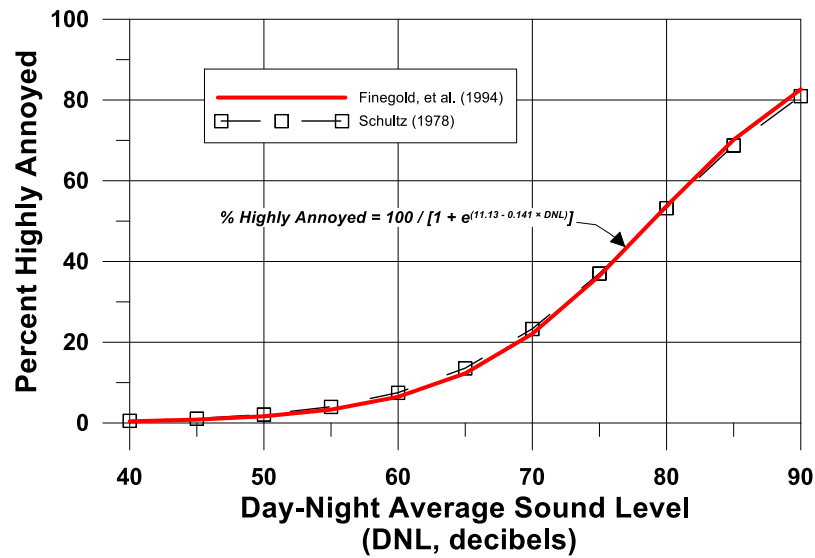


Figure B-11. Response of Communities to Noise; Comparison of Original Schultz (1978) with Finegold et al. (1994)

When the goodness of fit of the Schultz curve is examined, the correlation between groups of people is high, in the range of 85-90%. The correlation between individuals is lower, 50% or less. This is not surprising, given the personal differences between individuals. The surveys underlying the Schultz curve include results that show that annoyance to noise is also affected by non-acoustical factors. Newman and Beattie (1985) divided the non-acoustic factors into the emotional and physical variables shown in Table B-3.

Table B-3. Non-Acoustic Variables Influencing Aircraft Noise Annoyance

<i>Emotional Variables</i>	<i>Physical Variables</i>
Feeling about the necessity or preventability of the noise;	Type of neighborhood;
Judgement of the importance and value of the activity that is producing the noise;	Time of day;
Activity at the time an individual hears the noise;	Season;
Attitude about the environment;	Predictability of the noise;
General sensitivity to noise;	Control over the noise source; and
Belief about the effect of noise on health; and	Length of time individual is exposed to a noise.
Feeling of fear associated with the noise.	

Schreckenber and Schuemer (2010) recently examined the importance of some of these factors on short-term annoyance. Attitudinal factors were identified as having an effect on annoyance. In formal regression analysis, however, sound level (L_{eq}) was found to be more important than attitude.

A recent study by Plotkin et al. (2011) examined updating DNL to account for these factors. It was concluded that the data requirements for a general analysis were much greater than most existing studies. It was noted that the most significant issue with DNL is that it is not readily understood by the public, and that supplemental metrics such as TA and NA were valuable in addressing attitude when communicating noise analysis to communities (DoD 2009a).

A factor that is partially non-acoustical is the source of the noise. Miedema and Vos (1998) presented synthesis curves for the relationship between DNL and percentage “Annoyed” and percentage “Highly

Annoyed” for three transportation noise sources. Different curves were found for aircraft, road traffic, and railway noise. Table B-4 summarizes their results. Comparing the updated Schultz curve suggests that the percentage of people highly annoyed by aircraft noise may be higher than previously thought.

Table B-4. Percent Highly Annoyed for Different Transportation Noise Sources

<i>DNL (dB)</i>	<i>Percent Highly Annoyed (%HA) Miedema and Vos Air</i>	<i>Percent Highly Annoyed (%HA) Miedema and Vos Road</i>	<i>Percent Highly Annoyed (%HA) Miedema and Vos Rail</i>	<i>Percent Highly Annoyed (%HA) Schultz Combined</i>
55	12	7	4	3
60	19	12	7	6
65	28	18	11	12
70	37	29	16	22
75	48	40	22	36

Source: Miedema and Vos 1998.

As noted by the World Health Organization (WHO), however, even though aircraft noise seems to produce a stronger annoyance response than road traffic, caution should be exercised when interpreting synthesized data from different studies (WHO 1999).

Consistent with WHO’s recommendations, the Federal Interagency Committee on Noise (FICON) (1992) considered the Schultz curve to be the best source of dose information to predict community response to noise, but recommended further research to investigate the differences in perception of noise from different sources.

In 2021, FAA completed a multi-year research effort to develop an updated and nationally representative civil aircraft dose-response curve, quantifying the relationship between aircraft noise exposure and community annoyance based upon Neighborhood Environmental Survey that collected information from a statistically representative number of adult residents living around 20 U.S. airports (FAA 2021). The resulting dose response curve from the survey data relating aircraft noise to the percentage of individuals reported as being highly annoyed found that the annoyance may be greater than found in prior studies. Table B-5 summarizes the calculated National Dose-response Curve presented in the FAA study at selected DNL with 65 dB corresponding to approximately 66 percent of people highly annoyed.

Table B-5. Predicted Percent Highly Annoyed from the National Dose-response Curve

<i>DNL (dB)</i>	<i>Percent Highly Annoyed (%HA) Miedema and Vos Air</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>Lower 95% Confidence Limit</i>	<i>Upper 95% Confidence Limit</i>
50	19.1	19.1	19.1	19.1
55	32.1	32.1	32.1	32.1
60	48.8	48.8	48.8	48.8
65	65.7	65.7	65.7	65.7
70	79.4	79.4	79.4	79.4

Source: FAA 2021.

Sonic boom exposure is assessed cumulatively with C-weighted DNL, denoted CDNL. Correlation between CDNL and annoyance has been established, based on community reaction to impulsive sounds (Committee on Hearing, Bioacoustics and Biomechanics [CHABA] 1981). Values of the C-weighted equivalent to the Schultz curve are different than that of the Schultz curve itself. Table B-6 shows the relation between annoyance, DNL, and CDNL.

Table B-6. Relation Between Annoyance, DNL and CDNL

<i>DNL</i>	<i>% Highly Annoyed</i>	<i>CDNL</i>
45	0.83	42
50	1.66	46
55	3.31	51
60	6.48	56
65	12.29	60
70	22.10	65

Interpretation of CDNL from impulsive noise is accomplished by using the CDNL versus annoyance values in Table B-3. CDNL can be interpreted in terms of an “equivalent annoyance” DNL. For example, CDNL of 52, 61, and 69 dB are equivalent to DNL of 55, 65, and 75 dB, respectively. If both continuous and impulsive noise occurs in the same area, impacts are assessed separately for each.

B.2.2 Land Use Compatibility

As noted above, the inherent variability between individuals makes it impossible to predict accurately how any individual will react to a given noise event. Nevertheless, when a community is considered as a whole, its overall reaction to noise can be represented with a high degree of confidence. As described above, the best noise exposure metric for this correlation is the DNL or L_{dnmr} for military overflights. Impulsive noise can be assessed by relating CDNL to an “equivalent annoyance” DNL, as outlined in Section B.2.1.

In June 1980, an ad hoc Federal Interagency Committee on Urban Noise published guidelines (Federal Interagency Committee on Urban Noise 1980) relating DNL to compatible land uses. This committee was composed of representatives from DoD, Transportation, Housing and Urban Development, USEPA, and the Veterans Administration. Since the issuance of these guidelines, federal agencies have generally adopted these guidelines for their noise analyses.

Following the lead of the committee, the DoD adopted the concept of land use compatibility as the accepted measure of aircraft noise effect. Air Force guidelines are presented in Table B-7, along with the explanatory notes included in the regulation. These guidelines are not mandatory (note the footnote “*” in the table), rather they are recommendations to provide the best means for determining noise impact for communities adjacent to bases. Again, these are recommendations only; it is up to the city/county zoning and planning entities to determine what land uses are compatible and how they will deal with incompatibilities (e.g., what type of development is allowed, instituting residential buyouts, or whether noise attenuation efforts will be done in residential units). In general, residential land uses normally are not compatible with outdoor DNL values above 65 dB, and the extent of land areas and populations exposed to DNL of 65 dB and higher provides the best means for assessing the noise impacts of alternative aircraft actions. In some cases, a change in noise level, rather than an absolute threshold, may be a more appropriate measure of impact.

Table B-7. Air Force Land Use Compatibility Recommendations

<i>Land Uses SLUCM NO.</i>	<i>Land Uses Category</i>	<i>Suggested Land Use Compatibility DNL 65-69</i>	<i>Suggested Land Use Compatibility DNL 70-74</i>	<i>Suggested Land Use Compatibility DNL 75-79</i>	<i>Suggested Land Use Compatibility DNL 80-84</i>	<i>Suggested Land Use Compatibility DNL >85</i>
10	Residential					
11	Household units	N ¹	N ¹	N	N	N
11.11	Single units: detached	N ¹	N ¹	N	N	N
11.12	Single units: semidetached	N ¹	N ¹	N	N	N
11.13	Single units: attached row	N ¹	N ¹	N	N	N
11.21	Two units: side-by-side	N ¹	N ¹	N	N	N
11.22	Two units: one above the other	N ¹	N ¹	N	N	N
11.31	Apartments: walk-up	N ¹	N ¹	N	N	N
11.32	Apartment: elevator	N ¹	N ¹	N	N	N
12	Group quarters	N ¹	N ¹	N	N	N
13	Residential hotels	N ¹	N ¹	N	N	N
14	Mobile home parks or courts	N	N	N	N	N
15	Transient lodgings	N ¹	N ¹	N ¹	N	N
16	Other residential	N ¹	N ¹	N	N	N
20	Manufacturing					
21	Food and kindred products; manufacturing	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
22	Textile mill products; manufacturing	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
23	Apparel and other finished products; products made from fabrics, leather, and similar materials; manufacturing	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
24	Lumber and wood products (except furniture); manufacturing	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
25	Furniture and fixtures; manufacturing	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
26	Paper and allied products; manufacturing	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
27	Printing, publishing, and allied industries	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
28	Chemicals and allied products; manufacturing	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
29	Petroleum refining and related industries	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
30	Manufacturing					
31	Rubber and misc. plastic products; manufacturing	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
32	Stone, clay and glass products; manufacturing	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
33	Primary metal products; manufacturing	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
34	Fabricated metal products; manufacturing	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
35	Professional scientific, and controlling instruments; photographic and optical goods; watches and clocks	Y	25	30	N	N
39	Miscellaneous manufacturing	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N

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<i>Land Uses SLUCM NO.</i>	<i>Land Uses Category</i>	<i>Suggested Land Use Compatibility DNL 65-69</i>	<i>Suggested Land Use Compatibility DNL 70-74</i>	<i>Suggested Land Use Compatibility DNL 75-79</i>	<i>Suggested Land Use Compatibility DNL 80-84</i>	<i>Suggested Land Use Compatibility DNL >85</i>
40	Transportation, Communication and Utilities					
41	Railroad, rapid rail transit, and street railway transportation	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
42	Motor vehicle transportation	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
43	Aircraft transportation	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
44	Marine craft transportation	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
45	Highway and street right-of-way	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
46	Automobile parking	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
47	Communication	Y	25 ⁵	30 ⁵	N	N
48	Utilities	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
49	Other transportation, communication and utilities	Y	25 ⁵	30 ⁵	N	N
50	Trade					
51	Wholesale trade	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
52	Retail trade – building materials, hardware and farm equipment	Y	25	30	Y ⁴	N
53	Retail trade – including shopping centers, discount clubs, home improvement stores, electronics superstores, etc.	Y	25	30	N	N
54	Retail trade – food	Y	25	30	N	N
55	Retail trade – automotive, marine craft, aircraft and accessories	Y	25	30	N	N
56	Retail trade – apparel and accessories	Y	25	30	N	N
57	Retail trade – furniture, home, furnishings and equipment	Y	25	30	N	N
58	Retail trade – eating and drinking establishments	Y	25	30	N	N
59	Other retail trade	Y	25	30	N	N
60	Services					
61	Finance, insurance and real estate services	Y	25	30	N	N
62	Personal services	Y	25	30	N	N
62.4	Cemeteries	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ^{4,11}	Y ^{6,11}
63	Business services	Y	25	30	N	N
63.7	Warehousing and storage	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
64	Repair services	Y	Y ²	Y ³	Y ⁴	N
65	Professional services	Y	25	30	N	N
65.1	Hospitals, other medical facilities	25	30	N	N	N
65.16	Nursing homes	N ¹	N ¹	N	N	N
66	Contract construction services	Y	25	30	N	N
67	Government services	Y ¹	25	30	N	N
68	Educational services	25	30	N	N	N
68.1	Child care services, child development centers, and nurseries	25	30	N	N	N
69	Miscellaneous Services	Y	25	30	N	N

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69.1	Religious activities (including places of worship)	Y	25	30	N	N
70	Cultural, Entertainment and Recreational					
71	Cultural activities	25	30	N	N	N
71.2	Nature exhibits	Y ¹	N	N	N	N
72	Public assembly	Y	N	N	N	N
72.1	Auditoriums, concert halls	25	30	N	N	N
72.11	Outdoor music shells, amphitheaters	N	N	N	N	N
72.2	Outdoor sports arenas, spectator sports	Y ⁷	Y ⁷	N	N	N
73	Amusements	Y	Y	N	N	N
74	Recreational activities (including golf courses, riding stables, water recreation)	Y	25	30	N	N
75	Resorts and group camps	Y	25	N	N	N
76	Parks	Y	25	N	N	N
79	Other cultural, entertainment and recreation	Y	25	N	N	N
80	Resource Production and Extraction					
81	Agriculture (except live- stock)	Y ⁸	Y ⁹	Y ¹⁰	Y ^{10,11}	Y ^{10,11}
81.5- 81.7	Agriculture-Livestock farming including grazing and feedlots	Y ⁸	Y ⁹	N	N	N
82	Agriculture related activities	Y ⁸	Y ⁹	Y ¹⁰	Y ^{10,11}	Y ^{10,11}
83	Forestry activities	Y ⁸	Y ⁹	Y ¹⁰	Y ^{10,11}	Y ^{10,11}
84	Fishing activities	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
85	Mining activities	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
89	Other resource production or extraction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Legend:

SLUCM – Standard Land Use Coding Manual, U.S. Department of Transportation

Y (Yes) – Land use and related structures compatible without restrictions.

N (No) – Land use and related structures are not compatible and should be prohibited.

Y^x – Yes with restrictions. The land use and related structures generally are compatible. However, see note(s) indicated by the superscript.

N^x – No with exceptions. The land use and related structures are generally incompatible. However, see note(s) indicated by the superscript.

25, 30, or 35 – The numbers refer to noise level reduction (NLR) levels. NLR (outdoor to indoor) is achieved through the incorporation of noise attenuation into the design and construction of a structure. Land use and related structures are generally compatible; however, measures to achieve NLR of 25, 30, or 35 must be incorporated into design and construction of structures. However, measures to achieve an overall noise reduction do not necessarily solve noise difficulties outside the structure and additional evaluation is warranted. Also, see notes indicated by superscripts where they appear with one of these numbers.

DNL – Day-Night Average Sound Level.

CNEL – Community Noise Equivalent Level (normally within a very small decibel difference of DNL)

Ldn – Mathematical symbol for DNL.

Notes:

1. General

- a. Although local conditions regarding the need for housing may require residential use in these zones, residential use is discouraged in DNL 65-69 and strongly discouraged in DNL 70-74. The absence of viable alternative development options should be determined and an evaluation should be conducted locally prior to local approvals indicating that a demonstrated community need for the residential use would not be met if development were prohibited in these zones. Existing residential development is considered as pre-existing, non-conforming land uses.
- b. Where the community determines that these uses must be allowed, measures to achieve outdoor to indoor NLR of at least 25 decibels (dB) in DNL 65-69 and 30 dB in DNL 70-74 should be incorporated into building codes and be considered in individual approvals; for transient housing, an NLR of at least 35 dB should be incorporated in DNL 75-79.
- c. Normal permanent construction can be expected to provide an NLR of 20 dB, thus the reduction requirements are often stated as 5, 10, or 15 dB over standard construction and normally assume mechanical ventilation, upgraded sound transmission class ratings in windows and doors, and closed windows year-round. Additional consideration should be given to modifying NLR levels based on peak noise levels or vibrations.

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- d. NLR criteria will not eliminate outdoor noise problems. However, building location, site planning, design, and use of berms and barriers can help mitigate outdoor noise exposure particularly from ground level sources. Measures that reduce noise at a site should be used wherever practical in preference to measures that only protect interior spaces.
2. Measures to achieve NLR of 25 must be incorporated into the design and construction of portions of these buildings where the public is received, office areas, noise sensitive areas, or where the normal noise level is low.
3. Measures to achieve NLR of 30 must be incorporated into the design and construction of portions of these buildings where the public is received, office areas, noise sensitive areas, or where the normal noise level is low.
4. Measures to achieve NLR of 35 must be incorporated into the design and construction of portions of these buildings where the public is received, office areas, noise sensitive areas, or where the normal noise level is low.
5. If project or proposed development is noise sensitive, use indicated NLR; if not, land use is compatible without NLR.
6. Buildings are not permitted.
7. Land use is compatible provided special sound reinforcement systems are installed.
8. Residential buildings require an NLR of 25
9. Residential buildings require an NLR of 30.
10. Residential buildings are not permitted.
11. Land use that involves outdoor activities is not recommended, but if the community allows such activities, hearing protection devices should be worn when noise sources are present. Long-term exposure (multiple hours per day over many years) to high noise levels can cause hearing loss in some unprotected individuals.

B.2.3 Speech Interference

Speech interference from noise is a primary cause of annoyance for communities. Disruption of routine activities such as radio or television listening, telephone use, or conversation leads to frustration and annoyance. The quality of speech communication is important in classrooms and offices. In the workplace, speech interference from noise can cause fatigue and vocal strain in those who attempt to talk over the noise. In schools it can impair learning.

There are two measures of speech comprehension:

1. *Word Intelligibility* – the percent of words spoken and understood. This might be important for students in the lower grades who are learning the English language, and particularly for students who have English as a Second Language.
2. *Sentence Intelligibility* – the percent of sentences spoken and understood. This might be important for high school students and adults who are familiar with the language, and who do not necessarily have to understand each word in order to understand sentences.

U.S. Federal Criteria for Interior Noise

In 1974, the USEPA identified a goal of an indoor $L_{eq(24)}$ of 45 dB to minimize speech interference based on sentence intelligibility and the presence of steady noise (USEPA 1974). Figure B-12 shows the effect of steady indoor background sound levels on sentence intelligibility. For an average adult with normal hearing and fluency in the language, steady background indoor sound levels of less than 45 dB L_{eq} are expected to allow 100% sentence intelligibility.

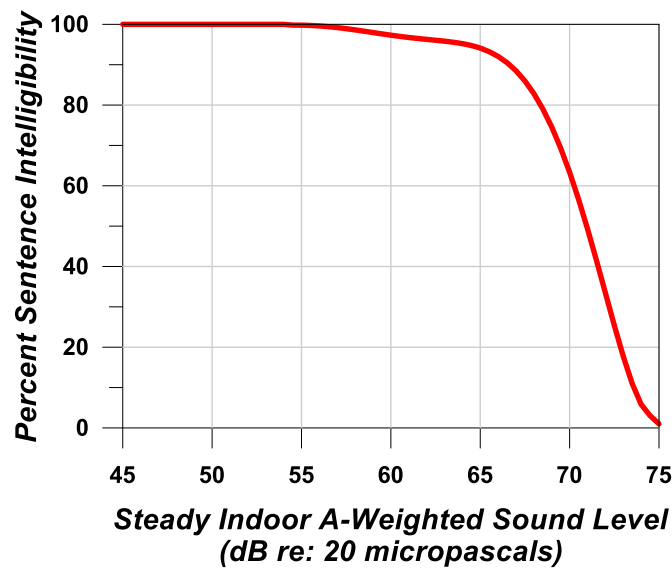


Figure B-12. Speech Intelligibility Curve (digitized from USEPA 1974)

The curve in Figure B-12 shows 99% intelligibility at L_{eq} below 54 dB, and less than 10% above 73 dB. Recalling that L_{eq} is dominated by louder noise events, the USEPA $L_{eq(24)}$ goal of 45 dB generally ensures that sentence intelligibility will be high most of the time.

Classroom Criteria

For teachers to be understood, their regular voice must be clear and uninterrupted. Background noise has to be below the teacher's voice level. Intermittent noise events that momentarily drown out the teacher's voice need to be kept to a minimum. It is therefore important to evaluate the steady background level, the level of voice communication, and the single-event level due to aircraft overflights that might interfere with speech.

Lazarus (1990) found that for listeners with normal hearing and fluency in the language, complete sentence intelligibility can be achieved when the signal-to-noise ratio (i.e., a comparison of the level of the sound to the level of background noise) is in the range of 15 to 18 dB. The initial ANSI classroom noise standard (ANSI 2002) and American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (1995) guidelines concur, recommending at least a 15 dB signal-to-noise ratio in classrooms. If the teacher's voice level is at least 50 dB, the background noise level must not exceed an average of 35 dB. The National Research Council of Canada (Bradley 1993) and WHO (1999) agree with this criterion for background noise.

For eligibility for noise insulation funding, the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA) guidelines state that the design objective for a classroom environment is 45 dB L_{eq} during normal school hours (FAA 1985).

Most aircraft noise is not continuous. It consists of individual events like the one sketched in Figure B-7. Since speech interference in the presence of aircraft noise is caused by individual aircraft flyover events, a time-averaged metric alone, such as L_{eq} , is not necessarily appropriate. In addition to the background level criteria described above, single-event criteria that account for those noisy events are also needed.

A 1984 study by Wyle for the Port Authority of New York and New Jersey recommended using Speech Interference Level (SIL) for classroom noise criteria (Sharp and Plotkin 1984). SIL is based on the maximum sound levels in the frequency range that most affects speech communication (500-2,000 Hz). The study identified an SIL of 45 dB as the goal. This would provide 90% word intelligibility for the short time periods during aircraft overflights. While SIL is technically the best metric for speech interference, it can be approximated by an L_{max} value. A SIL of 45 dB is equivalent to an A-weighted L_{max} of 50 dB for aircraft noise (Wesler 1986).

Lind et al. (1998) also concluded that an L_{max} criterion of 50 dB would result in 90% word intelligibility. Bradley (1985) recommends SEL as a better indicator. His work indicates that 95% word intelligibility would be achieved when indoor SEL did not exceed 60 dB. For typical flyover noise this corresponds to an L_{max} of 50 dB. While WHO (1999) only specifies a background L_{max} criterion, they also note the SIL frequencies and that interference can begin at around 50 dB.

The United Kingdom Department for Education and Skills (UKDfES) established in its classroom acoustics guide a 30-minute time-averaged metric of $L_{eq(30min)}$ for background levels and the metric of $L_{A1,30min}$ for intermittent noises, at thresholds of 30-35 dB and 55 dB, respectively. $L_{A1,30min}$ represents the A-weighted sound level that is exceeded 1% of the time (in this case, during a 30-minute teaching session) and is generally equivalent to the L_{max} metric (UKDfES 2003).

Table B-8 summarizes the criteria discussed. Other than the FAA (1985) 45 dB L_{max} criterion, they are consistent with a limit on indoor background noise of 35-40 dB L_{eq} and a single event limit of 50 dB L_{max} .

It should be noted that these limits were set based on students with normal hearing and no special needs. At-risk students may be adversely affected at lower sound levels.

Table B-8. Indoor Noise Level Criteria Based on Speech Intelligibility

<i>Source</i>	<i>Metric/Level (dB)</i>	<i>Effects and Notes</i>
U.S. FAA (1985)	$L_{eq(\text{during school hours})} = 45 \text{ dB}$	Federal assistance criteria for school sound insulation; supplemental single-event criteria may be used.
Lind et al. (1998), Sharp and Plotkin (1984), Wesler (1986)	$L_{max} = 50 \text{ dB} / \text{SIL } 45$	Single event level permissible in the classroom.
WHO (1999)	$L_{eq} = 35 \text{ dB}$ $L_{max} = 50 \text{ dB}$	Assumes average speech level of 50 dB and recommends signal-to-noise ratio of 15 dB.
U.S. ANSI (2010)	$L_{eq} = 35 \text{ dB}$, based on Room Volume (e.g., cubic feet)	Acceptable background level for continuous and intermittent noise.
U.K. DFES (2003)	$L_{eq(30\text{min})} = 30\text{-}35 \text{ dB}$ $L_{max} = 55 \text{ dB}$	Minimum acceptable in classroom and most other learning environs.

B.2.4 Sleep Disturbance

Sleep disturbance is a major concern for communities exposed to aircraft noise at night. A number of studies have attempted to quantify the effects of noise on sleep. This section provides an overview of the major noise-induced sleep disturbance studies. Emphasis is on studies that have influenced U.S. federal noise policy. The studies have been separated into two groups:

1. Initial studies performed in the 1960s and 1970s, where the research was focused on sleep observations performed under laboratory conditions.
2. Later studies performed in the 1990s up to the present, where the research was focused on field observations.

Initial Studies

The relation between noise and sleep disturbance is complex and not fully understood. The disturbance depends not only on the depth of sleep and the noise level, but also on the non-acoustic factors cited for annoyance. The easiest effect to measure is the number of arousals or awakenings from noise events. Much of the literature has therefore focused on predicting the percentage of the population that will be awakened at various noise levels.

FICON's 1992 review of airport noise issues (FICON 1992) included an overview of relevant research conducted through the 1970s. Literature reviews and analyses were conducted from 1978 through 1989 using existing data (Griefahn 1978; Lukas 1978; Pearsons et al. 1989). Because of large variability in the data, FICON did not endorse the reliability of those results.

FICON did recommend, however, an interim dose-response curve, awaiting future research. That curve predicted the percent of the population expected to be awakened as a function of the exposure to SEL. This curve was based on research conducted for the U.S. Air Force (Finegold 1994). The data included most of the research performed up to that point, and predicted a 10% probability of awakening when exposed to an interior SEL of 58 dB. The data used to derive this curve were primarily from controlled laboratory studies.

Recent Sleep Disturbance Research – Field and Laboratory Studies

It was noted that early sleep laboratory studies did not account for some important factors. These included habituation to the laboratory, previous exposure to noise, and awakenings from noise other than aircraft. In the early 1990s, field studies in people's homes were conducted to validate the earlier laboratory work conducted in the 1960s and 1970s. The field studies of the 1990s found that 80-90% of sleep disturbances were not related to outdoor noise events, but rather to indoor noises and non-noise factors. The results showed that, in real life conditions, there was less of an effect of noise on sleep than had been previously reported from laboratory studies. Laboratory sleep studies tend to show more sleep disturbance than field studies because people who sleep in their own homes are used to their environment and, therefore, do not wake up as easily (FICAN 1997).

Federal Interagency Committee on Aviation Noise

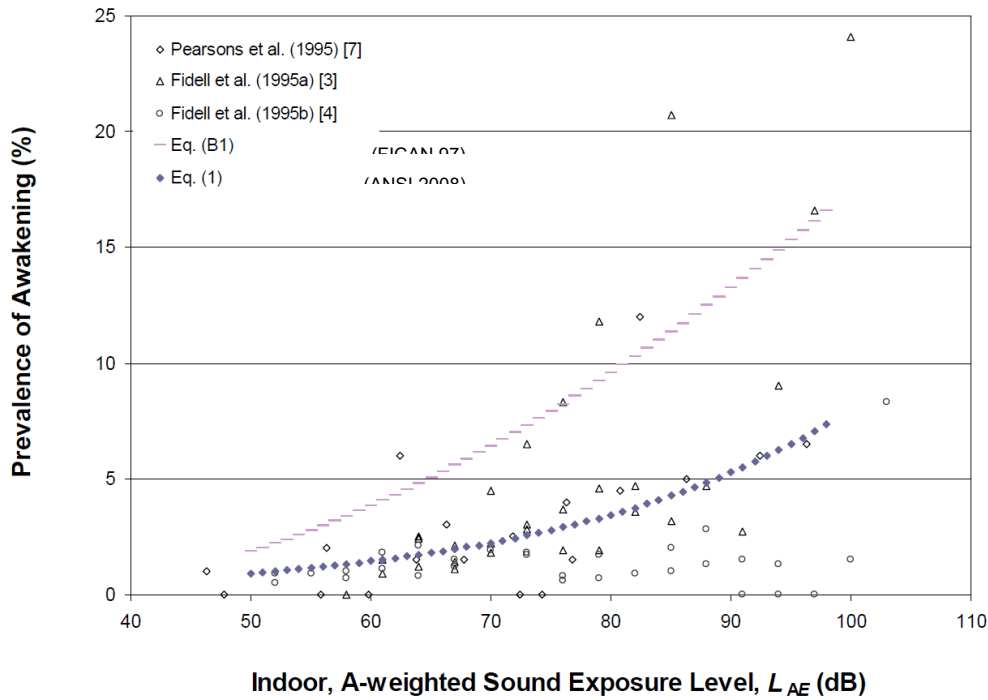
Based on this new information, in 1997 FICAN recommended a dose-response curve to use instead of the earlier 1992 FICON curve (FICAN 1997). Figure B-13 shows FICAN's curve, the red dashed line, which is based on the results of three field studies shown in the figure (Ollerhead et al. 1992; Fidell et al. 1994; Fidell et al. 1995a, 1995b), along with the data from six previous field studies.

The 1997 FICAN curve represents the upper envelope of the latest field data. It predicts the maximum percent awakened for a given residential population. According to this curve, a maximum of 3% of people would be awakened at an indoor SEL of 58 dB. An indoor SEL of 58 dB is equivalent to an outdoor SEL of 83 dB, with the windows closed (73 dB with windows open).

Number of Events and Awakenings

It is reasonable to expect that sleep disturbance is affected by the number of events. The German Aerospace Center (DLR Laboratory) conducted an extensive study focused on the effects of nighttime aircraft noise on sleep and related factors (Basner et al. 2004). The DLR study was one of the largest studies to examine the link between aircraft noise and sleep disturbance. It involved both laboratory and in-home field research phases. The DLR investigators developed a dose-response curve that predicts the number of aircraft events at various values of L_{max} expected to produce one additional awakening over the course of a night. The dose-effect curve was based on the relationships found in the field studies.

An ANSI standards committee (ANSI 2008) took a different approach. The committee used the average of the data shown in Figure B-13 (i.e., the blue dashed line) rather than the upper envelope, to predict average awakening from one event. Probability theory is then used to project the awakening from multiple noise events.



Source: DoD 2009b.

Figure B-13. Sleep Disturbance Dose-Response Relationship

Currently, there are no established criteria for evaluating sleep disturbance from aircraft noise, although recent studies have suggested a benchmark of an outdoor SEL of 90 dB as an appropriate tentative criterion when comparing the effects of different operational alternatives. The corresponding indoor SEL would be approximately 25 dB lower (at 65 dB) with doors and windows closed, and approximately 15 dB lower (at 75 dB) with doors or windows open. According to the ANSI (2008) standard, the probability of awakening from a single aircraft event at this level is between 1 and 2% for people habituated to the noise sleeping in bedrooms with windows closed, and 2-3% with windows open. The probability of the exposed population awakening at least once from multiple aircraft events at noise levels of 90 dB SEL is shown in Table B-9.

Table B-9. Probability of Awakening from NA90SEL

<i>Number of Aircraft Events at 90 dB SEL for Average 9-Hour Night</i>	<i>Minimum Probability of Awakening at Least Once Windows Closed</i>	<i>Minimum Probability of Awakening at Least Once Windows Open</i>
1	1%	2%
3	4%	6%
5	7%	10%
9 (1 per hour)	12%	18%
18 (2 per hour)	22%	33%
27 (3 per hour)	32%	45%

Source: DoD 2009b.

In December 2008, FICAN recommended the use of this new standard. FICAN also recognized that more research is underway by various organizations, and that work may result in changes to FICAN’s position. Until that time, FICAN recommends the use of the ANSI (2008) standard (FICAN 2008).

Update

As of July 2018, the ANSI and ASA have withdrawn the 2008 standard, which formed the basis of much of the DNWG 2009 guidance:

The decision of Working Group S12/WG 15 to withdraw ANSI/ASA S12.9-2008/Part 6 implies that the method for calculating “at least one behavioral awakening per night” contained in the former Standard should no longer be relied upon for environmental impact assessment purposes. The Working Group believes that continued reliance on the 2008 Standard would lead to unreliable and difficult-to-interpret predictions of transportation-noise-induced sleep disturbance. (ANSI/ASA 2018)

The 2008 standard relied on the assumption that the calculation for PA from a single event is independent of the subsequent events so multiple events in the same night can simply be combined using the same formula. Additionally, the studies that supported the 2008 standard assumed varying sensitivity to awakening of individual study participants and employed “sensitivity coefficients” to improve the prediction correlation. However, the sensitivity coefficients for residents of airport neighborhoods were not generalizable from one airport to another making accurate prediction at airfields without such studies and sensitivity coefficients difficult and less reliable.

The explanations given by ANSI and ASA for the withdrawal of the 2008 standard include the following criticism:

- When applied to large populations, a fractional increase in noise level produces an unrealistic increase in number of awakenings,
- Lacks advice concerning situational limits of its applicability allowing misapplication in very large study areas resulting in implausibly large total numbers of awakenings, even at imperceptibly low sound levels,
- Lacks guidance about the reliability of its predictions, which encourages practitioners to apply the predictive equations with the assumption of unlimited accuracy,
- Due to the awakening studies’ setup, predictions of sleep awakening in settings with greater than 20 nighttime events are dubious.

Additionally, ANSI/ASA 2018 described the relatively small number of field observations of behavioral awakenings attributable to transportation sleep disruption, which lack sufficient representation of the reactions of diverse populations necessary for the typical application of the 2008 standard.

The discussion in ANSI/ASA 2018 included consideration of SEL’s value in computing PA and concluded that reliance solely on SEL may not be reliable because awakenings depend only slightly on SEL, particularly at lower levels. A study by Fidell et al. (2013) re-analyzed the same database published in the 2008 ANSI but concluded that PA more closely related to relative SEL rather than absolute, *“Minor differences in prediction of small awakening rates should not be interpreted as evidence of meaningfully different environmental impacts of one project alternative with respect to another.”*

Summary and Methodology Used in this Analysis

Without a reliable and standardized method to compute PA, or updated guidance from DNWG, this study presents the sleep impact analysis utilizing the previous standard (ANSI/ASA 2008 and DNWG 2009) for

environmental impact disclosure purposes. The reader is cautioned that the PA metric provides only a crude estimate because it cannot truly account for all variables that could affect a person's sleep. A comparison of the Current Scenario and Proposed Action awakening percentages showing large changes to PA could provide some insight on whether a particular action would be likely to increase or decrease sleep impacts. However, any additional conclusions may not be supportable.

B.2.5 Noise-Induced Hearing Impairment

Residents in surrounding communities express concerns regarding the effects of aircraft noise on hearing. This section provides a brief overview of hearing loss caused by noise exposure. The goal is to provide a sense of perspective as to how aircraft noise (as experienced on the ground) compares to other activities that are often linked with hearing loss.

Hearing Threshold Shifts

Hearing loss is generally interpreted as a decrease in the ear's sensitivity or acuity to perceive sound (i.e., a shift in the hearing threshold to a higher level). This change can either be a Temporary Threshold Shift (TTS) or a Permanent Threshold Shift (PTS) (Berger et al. 1995).

TTS can result from exposure to loud noise over a given amount of time. An example of TTS might be a person attending a loud music concert. After the concert is over, there can be a threshold shift that may last several hours. While experiencing TTS, the person becomes less sensitive to low-level sounds, particularly at certain frequencies in the speech range (typically near 4,000 Hz). Normal hearing eventually returns, as long as the person has enough time to recover within a relatively quiet environment.

PTS usually results from repeated exposure to high noise levels, where the ears are not given adequate time to recover. A common example of PTS is the result of regularly working in a loud factory. A TTS can eventually become a PTS over time with repeated exposure to high noise levels. Even if the ear is given time to recover from TTS, repeated occurrence of TTS may eventually lead to permanent hearing loss. The point at which a TTS results in a PTS is difficult to identify and varies with a person's sensitivity.

Criteria for Permanent Hearing Loss

It has been well established that continuous exposure to high noise levels will damage human hearing (USEPA 1978). A large amount of data on hearing loss have been collected, largely for workers in manufacturing industries, and analyzed by the scientific/medical community. The OSHA regulation of 1971 places the limit on workplace noise exposure at an average level of 90 dB over an 8-hour work period or 85 dB over a 16-hour period (U.S. Department of Labor 1971). Some hearing loss is still expected at those levels. The most protective criterion, with no measurable hearing loss after 40 years of exposure, is an average sound level of 70 dB over a 24-hour period.

The USEPA established 75 dB $L_{eq(8)}$ and 70 dB $L_{eq(24)}$ as the average noise level standard needed to protect 96% of the population from greater than a 5 dB PTS (USEPA 1978). The National Academy of Sciences CHABA identified 75 dB as the lowest level at which hearing loss may occur (CHABA 1977). WHO concluded that environmental and leisure-time noise below an $L_{eq(24)}$ value of 70 dB "will not cause hearing loss in the large majority of the population, even after a lifetime of exposure" (WHO 1999).

Hearing Loss and Aircraft Noise

The 1982 USEPA Guidelines report (USEPA 1982) addresses noise-induced hearing loss in terms of the “Noise-Induced Permanent Threshold Shift” (NIPTS). This defines the permanent change in hearing caused by exposure to noise. Numerically, the NIPTS is the change in threshold that can be expected from daily exposure to noise over a normal working lifetime of 40 years. A grand average of the NIPTS over time and hearing sensitivity is termed the Average NIPTS, or Ave. NIPTS for short. The Ave. NIPTS that can be expected for noise measured by the $L_{eq(24)}$ metric is given in Table B-10 and assumes exposure to the full outdoor noise throughout the 24 hours. When inside a building, the exposure will be less (Eldred and von Gierke 1993).

Table B-10. Average NIPTS and 10th Percentile NIPTS as a Function of DNL

<i>DNL</i>	<i>Ave. NIPTS dB*</i>	<i>10th Percentile NIPTS dB*</i>
75–76	1.0	4.0
76–77	1.0	4.5
77–78	1.6	5.0
78–79	2.0	5.5
79–80	2.5	6.0
80–81	3.0	7.0
81–82	3.5	8.0
82–83	4.0	9.0
83–84	4.5	10.0
84–85	5.5	11.0
85–86	6.0	12.0
86–87	7.0	13.5
87–88	7.5	15.0
88–89	8.5	16.5
89–90	9.5	18.0

Note: *Rounded to the nearest 0.5 dB.

Source: DoD 2012.

The average NIPTS is estimated as an average over all people exposed to the noise. The actual value of NIPTS for any given person will depend on their physical sensitivity to noise – some will experience more hearing loss than others. The USEPA Guidelines provide information on this variation in sensitivity in the form of the NIPTS exceeded by 10% of the population, which is included in the Table B-10 in the “10th Percentile NIPTS” column (USEPA 1982). For individuals exposed to $L_{eq(24)}$ of 80 dB, the most sensitive of the population would be expected to show degradation to their hearing of 7 dB over time.

To put these numbers in perspective, changes in hearing level of less than 5 dB are generally not considered noticeable or significant. Furthermore, there is no known evidence that a NIPTS of 5 dB is perceptible or has any practical significance for the individual. Lastly, the variability in audiometric testing is generally assumed to be ± 5 dB (USEPA 1974).

The scientific community has concluded that noise exposure from civil airports has little chance of causing permanent hearing loss (Newman and Beattie 1985). For military airbases, DoD policy requires that hearing risk loss be estimated for population exposed to $L_{eq(24)}$ of 80 dB or higher (DoD 2012), including residents of on-base housing. Exposure of workers inside the base boundary is assessed using DoD regulations for occupational noise exposure.

Noise in low-altitude military airspace, especially along MTRs where L_{\max} can exceed 115 dB, is of concern. That is the upper limit used for occupational noise exposure (e.g., U.S. Department of Labor 1971). One laboratory study (Ising et al. 1999) concluded that events with L_{\max} above 114 dB have the potential to cause hearing loss. Another laboratory study of participants exposed to levels between 115 and 130 dB (Nixon et al. 1993), however, showed conflicting results. For an exposure to four events across that range, half the subjects showed no change in hearing, a quarter showed a temporary 5 dB decrease in sensitivity, and a quarter showed a temporary 5 dB increase in sensitivity. For exposure to eight events of 130 dB, subjects showed an increase in sensitivity of up to 10 dB (Nixon et al. 1993).

Summary

Aviation noise levels are not comparable to the occupational noise levels associated with hearing loss of workers in manufacturing industries. There is little chance of hearing loss at levels less than 75 dB DNL. Noise levels equal to or greater than 75 dB DNL can occur near military airbases, and DoD policy specifies that NIPTS be evaluated when exposure exceeds 80 dB $L_{\text{eq}(24)}$ (DoD 2009c). There is some concern about L_{\max} exceeding 115 dB in low-altitude military airspace, but no research results to date have definitely related permanent hearing impairment to aviation noise.

B.2.6 Non-Auditory Health Effects

Studies have been performed to see whether noise can cause health effects other than hearing loss. The premise is that annoyance causes stress. Prolonged stress is known to be a contributor to a number of health disorders. Cantrell (1974) confirmed that noise can provoke stress, but noted that results on cardiovascular health have been contradictory. Some studies have found a connection between aircraft noise and blood pressure (e.g., Michalak et al. 1990; Rosenlund et al. 2001), while others have not (e.g., Pulles et al. 1990).

Kryter and Poza (1980) noted, “It is more likely that noise related general ill-health effects are due to the psychological annoyance from the noise interfering with normal everyday behavior, than it is from the noise eliciting, because of its intensity, reflexive response in the autonomic or other physiological systems of the body.”

The connection from annoyance to stress to health issues requires careful experimental design. Some highly publicized reports on health effects have, in fact, been rooted in poorly done science. Meecham and Shaw (1979) apparently found a relation between noise levels and mortality rates in neighborhoods under the approach path to Los Angeles International Airport. When the same data were analyzed by others (Frerichs et al. 1980) no relationship was found. Jones and Tauscher (1978) found a high rate of birth defects for the same neighborhood. But when the Centers for Disease Control performed a more thorough study near Atlanta’s Hartsfield International Airport, no relationships were found for levels above 65 dB (Edmonds et al. 1979).

A carefully designed study, Hypertension and Exposure to Noise near Airports (HYENA), was conducted around six European airports from 2002 through 2006 (Jarup et al. 2005, 2008). There were 4,861 subjects, aged between 45 and 70. Blood pressure was measured, and questionnaires administered for health, socioeconomic and lifestyle factors, including diet and physical exercise. Hypertension was defined by WHO blood pressure thresholds (WHO 2003). Noise from aircraft and highways was predicted from models.

The HYENA results were presented as an odds ratio (OR). An OR of 1 means there is no added risk, while an OR of 2 would mean risk doubles. An OR of 1.14 was found for nighttime aircraft noise, measured by L_{night} , the L_{eq} for nighttime hours. For daytime aircraft noise, measured by $L_{\text{eq}(16)}$, the OR was 0.93. For road traffic noise, measured by the full day $L_{\text{eq}(24)}$, the OR was 1.1.

Note that OR is a statistical measure of change, not the actual risk. Risk itself and the measured effects were small, and not necessarily distinct from other events. Haralabidis et al. (2008) reported an increase in systolic blood pressure of 6.2 millimeters of mercury (mmHg) for aircraft noise, and an increase of 7.4 mmHg for other indoor noises such as snoring.

It is interesting that aircraft noise was a factor only at night, while traffic noise is a factor for the full day. Aircraft noise results varied among the six countries so that result is pooled across all data. Traffic noise results were consistent across the six countries.

One interesting conclusion from a 2013 study of the HYENA data (Babisch et al. 2013) states there is some indication that noise level is a stronger predictor of hypertension than annoyance. That is not consistent with the idea that annoyance is a link in the connection between noise and stress. Babisch et al. (2012) present interesting insights on the relationship of the results to various modifiers.

Two recent studies examined the correlation of aircraft noise with hospital admissions for cardiovascular disease. Hansell et al. (2013) examined neighborhoods around London's Heathrow airport. Correia et al. (2013) examined neighborhoods around 89 airports in the U.S. Both studies included areas of various noise levels. They found associations that were consistent with the HYENA results. The authors of these studies noted that further research is needed to refine the associations and the causal interpretation with noise or possible alternative explanations.

“Impacts from environmental noise on vulnerable groups (such as those who suffer from post-traumatic stress disorder [PTSD] and autism) have been understudied and are generally underrepresented in study populations, and evidence of differential effects is still highly anecdotal. As a consequence, clear effects are few and this is partly due to the lack of targeted and well-designed studies making clear comparisons between the general population and the potentially susceptible groups and quantifying these differences in terms of noise levels. Setting specific limit values to protect susceptible groups is not yet possible based on the available evidence, although some suggestions have been made in the literature. To further this field, it is necessary in future studies to present and compare subgroup-specific exposure effect relations. Generic use of the term ‘vulnerable groups’ should be avoided as the mechanisms are quite different and maybe more important, they vary in time, place, and across contexts. Groups at risk or susceptible groups, periods or places would, in most cases, be more appropriate terms to use and are less stigmatizing than the term vulnerability” (van Kamp and Davies 2013).

Summary

The current state of scientific knowledge cannot yet support inference of a causal or consistent relationship between aircraft noise exposure and non-auditory health consequences for exposed residents. The large-scale HYENA study, and the recent studies by Hansell et al. (2013) and Correia et al. (2013) offer indications, but it is not yet possible to establish a quantitative cause and effect based on the currently available scientific evidence.

B.2.7 Performance Effects

The effect of noise on the performance of activities or tasks has been the subject of many studies. Some of these studies have found links between continuous high noise levels and performance loss. Noise-induced performance losses are most frequently reported in studies where noise levels are above 85 dB. Little change has been found in low-noise cases. Moderate noise levels appear to act as a stressor for more sensitive individuals performing a difficult psychomotor task.

While the results of research on the general effect of periodic aircraft noise on performance have yet to yield definitive criteria, several general trends have been noted including:

- A periodic intermittent noise is more likely to disrupt performance than a steady-state continuous noise of the same level. Flyover noise, due to its intermittent nature, might be more likely to disrupt performance than a steady-state noise of equal level.
- Noise is more inclined to affect the quality than the quantity of work.
- Noise is more likely to impair the performance of tasks that place extreme demands on workers.

B.2.8 Noise Effects on Children

Recent studies on school children indicate a potential link between aircraft noise and both reading comprehension and learning motivation. The effects may be small but may be of particular concern for children who are already scholastically challenged.

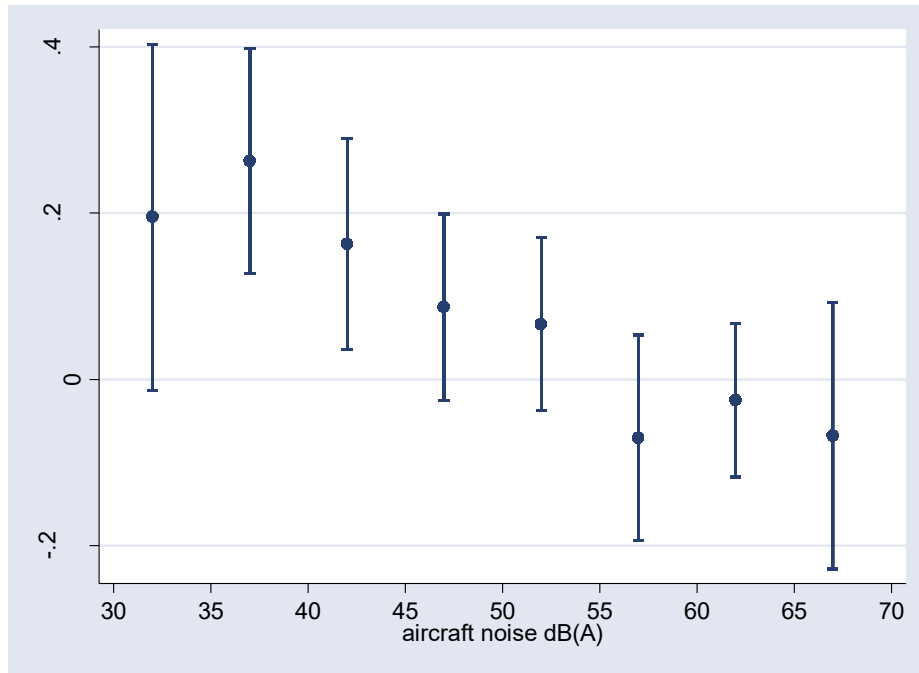
B.2.8.1 Effects on Learning and Cognitive Abilities

Early studies in several countries (Cohen et al. 1973, 1980, 1981; Bronzaft and McCarthy 1975; Green et al. 1982; Evans et al. 1998; Haines et al. 2002; Lercher et al. 2003) showed lower reading scores for children living or attending school in noisy areas than for children away from those areas. In some studies noise exposed children were less likely to solve difficult puzzles or more likely to give up.

More recently, the Road Traffic and Aircraft Noise Exposure and Children's Cognition and Health (RANCH) study (Stansfeld et al. 2005; Clark et al. 2005) compared the effect of aircraft and road traffic noise on over 2,000 children in three countries. This was the first study to derive exposure effect associations for a range of cognitive and health effects, and was the first to compare effects across countries.

The study found a linear relation between chronic aircraft noise exposure and impaired reading comprehension and recognition memory. No associations were found between chronic road traffic noise exposure and cognition. Conceptual recall and information recall surprisingly showed better performance in high road traffic noise areas. Neither aircraft noise nor road traffic noise affected attention or working memory (Stansfeld et al. 2005; Clark et al. 2005).

Figure B-14 shows RANCH's result relating noise to reading comprehension. It shows that reading falls below average (a z-score of 0) at L_{eq} greater than 55 dB. Because the relationship is linear, reducing exposure at any level should lead to improvements in reading comprehension.



Sources: Stansfeld et al. 2005; Clark et al. 2005.

Figure B-14. RANCH Study Reading Scores Varying with L_{eq}

An observation of the RANCH study was that children may be exposed to aircraft noise for many of their childhood years and the consequences of long-term noise exposure were unknown. A follow-up study of the children in the RANCH project is being analyzed to examine the long-term effects on children’s reading comprehension (Clark et al. 2009). Preliminary analysis indicated a trend for reading comprehension to be poorer at 15-16 years of age for children who attended noise exposed primary schools. There was also a trend for reading comprehension to be poorer in aircraft noise exposed secondary schools. Further analysis adjusting for confounding factors is ongoing, and is needed to confirm these initial conclusions.

FICAN funded a pilot study to assess the relationship between aircraft noise reduction and standardized test scores (Eagan et al. 2004; FICAN 2007). The study evaluated whether abrupt aircraft noise reduction within classrooms, from either airport closure or sound insulation, was associated with improvements in test scores. Data were collected in 35 public schools near three airports in Illinois and Texas. The study used several noise metrics. These were, however, all computed indoor levels, which makes it hard to compare with the outdoor levels used in most other studies.

The FICAN study found a significant association between noise reduction and a decrease in failure rates for high school students, but not middle or elementary school students. There were some weaker associations between noise reduction and an increase in failure rates for middle and elementary schools. Overall the study found that the associations observed were similar for children with or without learning difficulties, and between verbal and math/science tests. As a pilot study, it was not expected to obtain final answers, but provided useful indications (FICAN 2007).

While there are many factors that can contribute to learning deficits in school-aged children, there is increasing awareness that chronic exposure to high aircraft noise levels may impair learning. This awareness has led WHO and a North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) working group to conclude

that daycare centers and schools should not be located near major sources of noise, such as highways, airports, and industrial sites (NATO 2000; WHO 1999). The awareness has also led to the classroom noise standard discussed earlier (ANSI 2002).

B.2.8.2 Health Effects

A number of studies, including some of the cognitive studies discussed above, have examined the potential for effects on children's health. Health effects include annoyance, psychological health, coronary risk, stress hormones, sleep disturbance and hearing loss.

Annoyance. Chronic noise exposure causes annoyance in children (Bronzaft and McCarthy 1975; Evans et al. 1995). Annoyance among children tends to be higher than for adults, and there is little habituation (Haines et al. 2001a). The RANCH study found annoyance may play a role in how noise affects reading comprehension (Clark et al. 2005).

Psychological Health. Lercher et al. (2002) found an association between noise and teacher ratings of psychological health, but only for children with biological risk defined by low birth weight and/or premature birth. Haines et al. (2001b) found that children exposed to aircraft noise had higher levels of psychological distress and hyperactivity. Stansfeld et al. (2009) replicated the hyperactivity result, but not distress.

As with studies of adults, the evidence suggests that chronic noise exposure is probably not associated with serious psychological illness, but there may be effects on well-being and quality of life. Further research is needed, particularly on whether hyperactive children are more susceptible to stressors such as aircraft noise.

Coronary Risk. The HYENA study discussed earlier indicated a possible relation between noise and hypertension in older adults. Cohen et al. (1980, 1981) found some increase in blood pressure among school children, but within the normal range and not indicating hypertension. Hygge et al. (2002) found mixed effects. The RANCH study found some effect for children at home and at night, but not at school. Overall the evidence for noise effects on children's blood pressure is mixed, and less certain than for older adults.

Stress Hormones. Some studies investigated hormonal levels between groups of children exposed to aircraft noise compared to those in a control group. Two studies analyzed cortisol and urinary catecholamine levels in school children as measurements of stress response to aircraft noise (Haines et al. 2001a, 2001b). In both instances, there were no differences between the aircraft noise exposed children and the control groups.

Sleep Disturbance. A sub-study of RANCH in a Swedish sample used sleep logs and the monitoring of rest/activity cycles to compare the effect of road traffic noise on child and parent sleep (Öhrström et al. 2006). An exposure-response relationship was found for sleep quality and daytime sleepiness for children. While this suggests effects of noise on children's sleep disturbance, it is difficult to generalize from one study.

Hearing loss. A few studies have examined hearing loss from exposure to aircraft noise. Noise-induced hearing loss for children who attended a school located under a flight path near a Taiwan airport was greater than for children at another school far away (Chen et al. 1997). Another study reported that hearing ability was reduced significantly in individuals who lived near an airport and were frequently

exposed to aircraft noise (Chen and Chen 1993). In that study, noise exposure near the airport was greater than 75 dB DNL and L_{max} were about 87 dB during overflights. Conversely, several other studies reported no difference in hearing ability between children exposed to high levels of airport noise and children located in quieter areas (Andrus et al. 1975; Fisch 1977; Wu et al. 1995). It is not clear from those results whether children are at higher risk than adults, but the levels involved are higher than those desirable for learning and quality of life.

Ludlow and Sixsmith (1999) conducted a cross-sectional pilot study to examine the hypothesis that military jet noise exposure early in life is associated with raised hearing thresholds. The authors concluded that there were no significant differences in audiometric test results between military personnel who as children had lived in or near stations where fast jet operations were based, and a similar group who had no such exposure as children.

B.2.9 Property Values

Noise can affect the value of homes. Economic studies of property values based on selling prices and noise have been conducted to find a direct relation.

The value-noise relation is usually presented as the Noise Depreciation Index (NDI) or Noise Sensitivity Depreciation Index, the percent loss of value per dB (measured by the DNL metric). An early study by Nelson (1978) at three airports found an NDI of 1.8-2.3% per dB. Nelson also noted a decline in NDI over time which he theorized could be due to either a change in population or the increase in commercial value of the property near airports. Crowley (1978) reached a similar conclusion. A larger study by Nelson (1980) looking at 18 airports found an NDI from 0.5 to 0.6% per dB.

In a review of property value studies, Newman and Beattie (1985) found a range of NDI from 0.2 to 2% per dB. They noted that many factors other than noise affected values.

Fidell et al. (1996) studied the influence of aircraft noise on actual sale prices of residential properties in the vicinity of a military base in Virginia and one in Arizona. They found no meaningful effect on home values. Their results may have been due to non-noise factors, especially the wide differences in homes between the two study areas.

Recent studies of noise effects on property values have recognized the need to account for non-noise factors. Nelson (2004) analyzed data from 33 airports, and discussed the need to account for those factors and the need for careful statistics. His analysis showed NDI from 0.3 to 1.5% per dB, with an average of about 0.65% per dB. Nelson (2007) and Andersson et al. (2013) discuss statistical modeling in more detail.

Another recent literature review was conducted by Aliyu et al. (2016) and found similar ranges of impacts. The most common approach used in assessing impacts is the hedonic pricing method where the value of the property is modeled to reflect the contribution of many individual variables (e.g., scenic views, house appearance, and neighborhood demand) which, when taken together, form the total price. The hedonic pricing method requires detailed information on local housing markets and sales prices.

He et al. (2014) used a meta-analysis of more than 60 hedonic price property value studies to model the relationship between city level income and population data and the overall willingness to pay for noise abatement. This approach enables an estimate of noise impacts in locations where detailed housing data is not available. The mean NDI of the hedonic price studies used was 0.75 percent and the median was

0.67 percent. Results of the model are comparable with hedonic price models and the previous studies discussed. Wolfe et al. (2014) use the approach described by He et al. (2014) to compare the impacts related to noise with impacts related to climate and air quality. They show the spatial relationship of noise impacts in areas in the immediate vicinity of the airport and also caution that some hedonic pricing models that are measuring impacts from noise may be capturing impacts associated with air quality as well if this variable is not accounted for.

Similar price impacts were found by Jud and Winkler (2006) and Mense and Kholodilin (2012); however, these studies also showed that the impacts occurred as a result of the announcement of an airport expansion. The anticipation of the noise level rise impacts property values before the noise increases.

Enough data are available to conclude that aircraft noise has a real effect on property values. This effect falls in the range of 0.2 to 2.0% per dB, with the average on the order of 0.5% per dB. The actual value varies from location to location, and is very often small compared to non-noise factors.

B.2.10 Noise-Induced Vibration Effects on Structures and Humans

High noise levels can cause buildings to vibrate. If high enough, building components can be damaged. The most sensitive components of a building are the windows, followed by plaster walls and ceilings. Possibility of damage depends on the peak sound pressures and the resonances of the building. In general, damage is possible only for sounds lasting more than one second above an unweighted sound level of 130 dB (CHABA 1977). That is higher than expected from normal aircraft operations. Even low-altitude flyovers of heavy aircraft do not reach the potential for damage (Sutherland 1990a).

Noise-induced structural vibration may cause annoyance to dwelling occupants because of induced secondary vibrations, or “rattle,” of objects within the dwelling – hanging pictures, dishes, plaques, and bric-a-brac. Loose window panes may also vibrate noticeably when exposed to high levels of airborne noise, causing homeowners to fear breakage. In general, rattling occurs at peak unweighted sound levels that last for several seconds at levels above 110 dB, which is well above that considered normally compatible with residential land use. Thus, assessments of noise exposure levels for compatible land use will also be protective of noise-induced rattle.

The sound from an aircraft overflight travels from the exterior to the interior of the house in one of two ways: through the solid structural elements and directly through the air. Figure B-15 illustrates the sound transmission through a wall constructed with a brick exterior, stud framing, interior finish wall, and absorbent material in the cavity. The sound transmission starts with noise impinging on the wall exterior. Some of this sound energy will be reflected away and some will make the wall vibrate. The vibrating wall radiates sound into the airspace, which in turn sets the interior finish surface vibrating, with some energy lost in the airspace. This surface then radiates sound into the dwelling interior. As the figure shows, vibrational energy also bypasses the air cavity by traveling through the studs and edge connections.

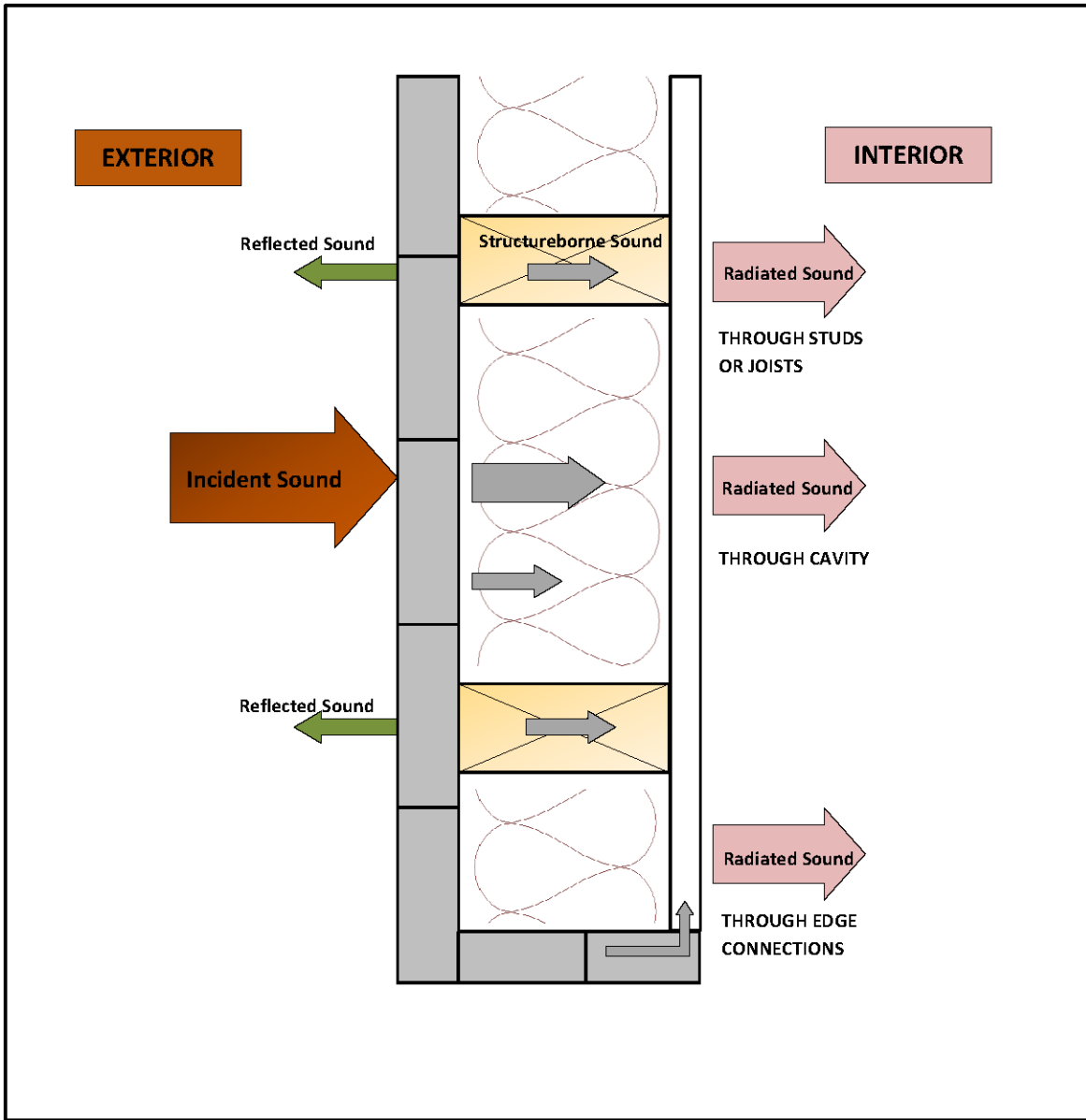


Figure B-15. Depiction of Sound Transmission through Built Construction

Normally, the most sensitive components of a structure to airborne noise are the windows, followed by plastered walls and ceilings. An evaluation of the peak sound pressures impinging on the structure is normally sufficient to determine the possibility of damage. In general, at unweighted sound levels above 130 dB, there is the possibility of structural damage. While certain frequencies (such as 30 Hertz for window breakage) may be of more concern than other frequencies, conservatively, only sounds lasting more than one second above an unweighted sound level of 130 dB are potentially damaging to structural components (von Gierke and Ward 1991).

In the assessment of vibration on humans, the following factors determine if a person will perceive and possibly react to building vibrations:

1. Type of excitation: steady-state, intermittent, or impulsive vibration.
2. Frequency of the excitation. International Organization for Standardization (ISO) standard 2631-2 (ISO 1989) recommends a frequency range of 1 to 80 Hz for the assessment of vibration on humans.
3. Orientation of the body with respect to the vibration.
4. The use of the occupied space (i.e., residential, workshop, hospital).
5. Time of day.

Table B-11 lists the whole-body vibration criteria from ISO 2631-2 for one-third octave frequency bands from 1 to 80 Hz.

Table B-11. Vibration Criteria for the Evaluation of Human Exposure to Whole-Body Vibration

<i>Frequency (Hz)</i>	<i>RMS Acceleration (m/s/s) Combined Criteria Base Curve</i>	<i>RMS Acceleration (m/s/s) Residential Night</i>	<i>RMS Acceleration (m/s/s) Residential Day</i>
1.00	0.0036	0.0050	0.0072
1.25	0.0036	0.0050	0.0072
1.60	0.0036	0.0050	0.0072
2.0	0.0036	0.0050	0.0072
2.50	0.0037	0.0052	0.0074
3.15	0.0039	0.0054	0.0077
4.00	0.0041	0.0057	0.0081
5.00	0.0043	0.0060	0.0086
6.30	0.0046	0.0064	0.0092
8.00	0.0050	0.0070	0.0100
10.00	0.0063	0.0088	0.0126
12.50	0.0078	0.0109	0.0156
16.00	0.0100	0.0140	0.0200
20.00	0.0125	0.0175	0.0250
25.00	0.0156	0.0218	0.0312
31.50	0.0197	0.0276	0.0394
40.00	0.0250	0.0350	0.0500
50.00	0.0313	0.0438	0.0626
63.00	0.0394	0.0552	0.0788
80.00	0.0500	0.0700	0.1000

Source: ISO 1989.

B.2.11 Sonic Booms

Sonic booms are commonly associated with structural damage. Most damage claims are for brittle objects, such as glass and plaster. Table B-12 summarizes the threshold of damage that might be expected at various overpressures. There is a large degree of variability in damage experience, and much damage depends on the pre-existing condition of a structure. Breakage data for glass, for example, spans a range of two to three orders of magnitude at a given overpressure. At 1 psf, the probability of a window breaking ranges from one in a billion (Sutherland 1990b) to one in a million (Hershey and Higgins 1976). These damage rates are associated with a combination of boom load and glass condition. At 10 psf, the probability of breakage is between one in a hundred and one in a thousand. Laboratory tests of glass (White 1972) have shown that properly installed window glass will not break at overpressures below 10 psf, even when subjected to repeated booms, but in the real-world glass is not in pristine condition.

Table B-12. Possible Damage to Structures From Sonic Booms

<i>Sonic Boom Overpressure Nominal (psf)</i>	<i>Type of Damage</i>	<i>Item Affected</i>
0.5–2	Plaster	Fine cracks; extension of existing cracks; more in ceilings; over door frames; between some plaster boards.
0.5–2	Glass	Rarely shattered; either partial or extension of existing.
0.5–2	Roof	Slippage of existing loose tiles/slates; sometimes new cracking of old slates at nail hole.
0.5–2	Damage to outside walls	Existing cracks in stucco extended.
0.5–2	Bric-a-brac	Those carefully balanced or on edges can fall; fine glass, such as large goblets, can fall and break.
0.5–2	Other	Dust falls in chimneys.
2–4	Glass, plaster, roofs, ceilings	Failures show that would have been difficult to forecast in terms of their existing localized condition. Nominally in good condition.
4–10	Glass	Regular failures within a population of well-installed glass; industrial as well as domestic greenhouses.
4–10	Plaster	Partial ceiling collapse of good plaster; complete collapse of very new, incompletely cured, or very old plaster.
4–10	Roofs	High probability rate of failure in nominally good state, slurry-wash; some chance of failures in tiles on modern roofs; light roofs (bungalow) or large area can move bodily.
4–10	Walls (out)	Old, free standing, in fairly good condition can collapse.
4–10	Walls (in)	Inside (“party”) walls known to move at 10 psf.
Greater than 10	Glass	Some good glass will fail regularly to sonic booms from the same direction. Glass with existing faults could shatter and fly. Large window frames move.
Greater than 10	Plaster	Most plaster affected.
Greater than 10	Ceilings	Plaster boards displaced by nail popping.
Greater than 10	Roofs	Most slate/slurry roofs affected, some badly; large roofs having good tile can be affected; some roofs bodily displaced causing gale-end and will-plate cracks; domestic chimneys dislodged if not in good condition.
Greater than 10	Walls	Internal party walls can move even if carrying fittings such as hand basins or taps; secondary damage due to water leakage.
Greater than 10	Bric-a-brac	Some nominally secure items can fall; e.g., large pictures, especially if fixed to party walls.

Source: Haber and Nakaki 1989.

Damage to plaster occurs at similar ranges to glass damage. Plaster has a compounding issue in that it will often crack due to shrinkage while curing, or from stresses as a structure settles, even in the absence of outside loads. Sonic boom damage to plaster often occurs when internal stresses are high from these factors.

Some degree of damage to glass and plaster should thus be expected whenever there are sonic booms, but usually at the low rates noted above. In general, structural damage from sonic booms should be expected only for overpressures above 10 psf.

B.2.12 Noise and Sonic Boom Effects on Terrain

It has been suggested that noise levels associated with low-flying aircraft may affect the terrain under the flight path by disturbing fragile soil or snow, especially in mountainous areas, causing landslides or avalanches. There are no known instances of such events. It is improbable that such effects would result from routine subsonic aircraft operations.

In contrast to subsonic noise, sonic booms are considered to be a potential trigger for snow avalanches. Avalanches are highly dependent on the physical status of the snow, and do occur spontaneously. They can be triggered by minor disturbances, and there are documented accounts of sonic booms triggering avalanches. Switzerland routinely restricts supersonic flight during avalanche season. Landslides are not an issue for sonic booms. There was one anecdotal report of a minor landslide from a sonic boom generated by the Space Shuttle during landing, but there is no credible mechanism or consistent pattern of reports.

B.2.13 Noise Effects on Historical and Archaeological Sites

Historical buildings and sites can have elements that are more fragile than conventional structures. Aircraft noise may affect such sites more severely than newer, modern structures. In older structures, seemingly insignificant surface cracks caused by vibrations from aircraft noise may lead to greater damage from natural forces (Hanson et al. 1991). There are few scientific studies of such effects to provide guidance for their assessment.

For example, one study involved measurements of noise and vibration in a restored plantation house, originally built in 1795. It is located 1,500 feet from the centerline at the departure end of Runway 19L at Washington Dulles International Airport. The aircraft measured was the Concorde. There was special concern for the building's windows, since roughly half of the 324 panes were original. No instances of structural damage were found. Interestingly, despite the high levels of noise during Concorde takeoffs, the induced structural vibration levels were actually less than those induced by touring groups and vacuum cleaning (Wesler 1977).

As for conventional structures, noise exposure levels for normally compatible land uses should also be protective of historic and archaeological sites. Unique sites should, of course, be analyzed for specific exposure.

B.2.14 Effects on Domestic Animals and Wildlife

Domestic animals and wildlife have different hearing thresholds, frequency response, and tolerance characteristics than do humans. There is a large difference in response even among different animal species. Evaluation of noise impacts on wildlife using metrics primarily intended for human impact

should be done with caution and makes evaluation of impacts on wildlife even more difficult. As such, evaluations in this appendix have been based primarily on historical response to sounds rather than to absolute sound levels.

Hearing is critical to an animal's ability to react, compete, reproduce, hunt, forage, and survive in its environment. While the existing literature does include studies on possible effects of jet aircraft noise and sonic booms on wildlife, there appears to have been little concerted effort in developing quantitative comparisons of aircraft noise effects on normal auditory characteristics. Behavioral effects have been relatively well described, but the larger ecological context issues, and the potential for drawing conclusions regarding effects on populations, has not been well developed.

The relationships between potential auditory/physiological effects and species interactions with their environments are not well understood. Mancini et al. (1988), assert that the consequences that physiological effects may have on behavioral patterns are vital to understanding the long-term effects of noise on wildlife. Questions regarding the effects (if any) on predator-prey interactions, reproductive success, and intra-inter specific behavior patterns remain.

The following discussion provides an overview of the existing literature on noise effects (particularly jet aircraft noise) on animal species. The literature reviewed here involves those studies that have focused on the observations of the behavioral effects that jet aircraft and sonic booms have on animals.

A great deal of research was conducted in the 1960s and 1970s on the effects of aircraft noise on the public and the potential for adverse ecological impacts. These studies were largely completed in response to the increase in air travel and as a result of the introduction of supersonic jet aircraft. According to Mancini et al. (1988), the foundation of information created from that focus does not necessarily correlate or provide information specific to the impacts to wildlife in areas overflowed by aircraft at supersonic speed or at low altitudes.

The abilities to hear sounds and noise and to communicate assist wildlife in maintaining group cohesiveness and survivorship. Social species communicate by transmitting calls of warning, introduction, and other types that are subsequently related to an individual's or group's responsiveness.

Animal species differ greatly in their responses to noise. Noise effects on domestic animals and wildlife are classified as primary, secondary, and tertiary. Primary effects are direct, physiological changes to the auditory system, and most likely include the masking of auditory signals. Masking is defined as the inability of an individual to hear important environmental signals that may arise from mates, predators, or prey. There is some potential that noise could disrupt a species' ability to communicate or could interfere with behavioral patterns (Mancini et al. 1988). Although the effects are likely temporal, aircraft noise may cause masking of auditory signals within exposed faunal communities. Animals rely on hearing to avoid predators, obtain food, and communicate with, and attract, other members of their species. Aircraft noise may mask or interfere with these functions. Other primary effects, such as ear drum rupture or temporary and permanent hearing threshold shifts, are not as likely given the subsonic noise levels produced by aircraft overflights.

Secondary effects may include non-auditory effects such as stress and hypertension; behavioral modifications; interference with mating or reproduction; and impaired ability to obtain adequate food, cover, or water. Tertiary effects are the direct result of primary and secondary effects, and include

population decline and habitat loss. Most of the effects of noise are mild enough that they may never be detectable as variables of change in population size or population growth against the background of normal variation (Bowles 1995). Other environmental variables (e.g., predators, weather, changing prey base, ground-based disturbance) also influence secondary and tertiary effects, and confound the ability to identify the ultimate factor in limiting productivity of a certain nest, area, or region (Smith et al. 1988). Overall, the literature suggests that species differ in their response to various types, durations, and sources of noise (Manci et al. 1988).

Many scientific studies have investigated the effects of aircraft noise on wildlife, and some have focused on wildlife “flight” due to noise. Animal responses to aircraft are influenced by many variables, including size, speed, proximity (both height above the ground and lateral distance), engine noise, color, flight profile, and radiated noise. The type of aircraft (e.g., fixed wing versus rotor-wing [helicopter]) and type of flight mission may also produce different levels of disturbance, with varying animal responses (Smith et al. 1988). Consequently, it is difficult to generalize animal responses to noise disturbances across species.

One result of the Manci et al. (1988) literature review was the conclusion that, while behavioral observation studies were relatively limited, a general behavioral reaction in animals from exposure to aircraft noise is the startle response. The intensity and duration of the startle response appears to be dependent on which species is exposed, whether there is a group or an individual, and whether there have been some previous exposures. Responses range from flight, trampling, stampeding, jumping, or running, to movement of the head in the apparent direction of the noise source. Manci et al. (1988) reported that the literature indicated that avian species may be more sensitive to aircraft noise than mammals.

B.2.14.1 Domestic Animals

Although some studies report that the effects of aircraft noise on domestic animals is inconclusive, a majority of the literature reviewed indicates that domestic animals exhibit some behavioral responses to military overflights but generally seem to habituate to the disturbances over a period of time. Mammals in particular appear to react to noise at sound levels higher than 90 dB, with responses including the startle response, freezing (i.e., becoming temporarily stationary), and fleeing from the sound source. Many studies on domestic animals suggest that some species appear to acclimate to some forms of sound disturbance (Manci et al. 1988). Some studies have reported such primary and secondary effects as reduced milk production and rate of milk release, increased glucose concentrations, decreased levels of hemoglobin, increased heart rate, and a reduction in thyroid activity. These latter effects appear to represent a small percentage of the findings occurring in the existing literature.

Some reviewers have indicated that earlier studies, and claims by farmers linking adverse effects of aircraft noise on livestock, did not necessarily provide clear-cut evidence of cause and effect (Cottreau 1978). In contrast, many studies conclude that there is no evidence that aircraft overflights affect feed intake, growth, or production rates in domestic animals.

Cattle

In response to concerns about overflight effects on pregnant cattle, milk production, and cattle safety, the U.S. Air Force prepared a handbook for environmental protection that summarized the literature on the impacts of low-altitude flights on livestock (and poultry) and includes specific case studies conducted in

numerous airspaces across the country. Adverse effects have been found in a few studies but have not been reproduced in other similar studies. One such study, conducted in 1983, suggested that 2 of 10 cows in late pregnancy aborted after showing rising estrogen and falling progesterone levels. These increased hormonal levels were reported as being linked to 59 aircraft overflights. The remaining eight cows showed no changes in their blood concentrations and calved normally. A similar study reported abortions occurred in three out of five pregnant cattle after exposing them to flyovers by six different aircraft. Another study suggested that feedlot cattle could stampede and injure themselves when exposed to low-level overflights (U.S. Air Force 1994a).

A majority of the studies reviewed suggests that there is little or no effect of aircraft noise on cattle. Studies presenting adverse effects to domestic animals have been limited. A number of studies (Parker and Bayley 1960; Casady and Lehmann 1967; Kovalcik and Sottnik 1971) investigated the effects of jet aircraft noise and sonic booms on the milk production of dairy cows. Through the compilation and examination of milk production data from areas exposed to jet aircraft noise and sonic boom events, it was determined that milk yields were not affected. This was particularly evident in those cows that had been previously exposed to jet aircraft noise.

A study examined the causes of 1,763 abortions in Wisconsin dairy cattle over a 1-year time period and none were associated with aircraft disturbances (U.S. Air Force 1993). In 1987, researchers contacted seven livestock operators for production data, and no effects of low-altitude and supersonic flights were noted. Of the 43 cattle previously exposed to low-altitude flights, 3 showed a startle response to an F/A-18 aircraft flying overhead at 500 feet AGL and 400 knots by running less than 10 meters. They resumed normal activity within 1 minute (U.S. Air Force 1994a). Beyer (1983) found that helicopters caused more reaction than other low-aircraft overflights, and that the helicopters at 30-60 feet overhead did not affect milk production and pregnancies of 44 cows in a 1964 study (U.S. Air Force 1994a).

Additionally, Beyer (1983) reported that five pregnant dairy cows in a pasture did not exhibit fright-flight tendencies or disturb their pregnancies after being overflown by 79 low-altitude helicopter flights and 4 low-altitude, subsonic jet aircraft flights. A 1956 study found that the reactions of dairy and beef cattle to noise from low-altitude, subsonic aircraft were similar to those caused by paper blowing about, strange persons, or other moving objects (U.S. Air Force 1994a).

In a report to Congress, the U.S. Forest Service concluded that “evidence both from field studies of wild ungulates and laboratory studies of domestic stock indicate that the risks of damage are small (from aircraft approaches of 50-100 meters), as animals take care not to damage themselves (U.S. Forest Service 1992). If animals are overflown by aircraft at altitudes of 50-100 meters, there is no evidence that mothers and young are separated, that animals collide with obstructions (unless confined) or that they traverse dangerous ground at too high a rate.” These varied study results suggest that, although the confining of cattle could magnify animal response to aircraft overflight, there is no proven cause and effect link between startling cattle from aircraft overflights and abortion rates or lower milk production.

Horses

Horses have also been observed to react to overflights of jet aircraft. Several of the studies reviewed reported a varied response of horses to low-altitude aircraft overflights. Observations made in 1966 and 1968 noted that horses galloped in response to jet flyovers (U.S. Air Force 1993). Bowles (1995) cites Kruger and Erath as observing horses exhibiting intensive flight reactions, random movements, and

biting/kicking behavior. However, no injuries or abortions occurred, and there was evidence that the mares adapted somewhat to the flyovers over the course of a month (U.S. Air Force 1994a). Although horses were observed noticing the overflights, it did not appear to affect either survivability or reproductive success. There was also some indication that habituation to these types of disturbances was occurring.

LeBlanc et al. (1991), studied the effects of F-14 jet aircraft noise on pregnant mares. They specifically focused on any changes in pregnancy success, behavior, cardiac function, hormonal production, and rate of habituation. Their findings reported observations of “flight-fright” reactions, which caused increases in heart rates and serum cortisol concentrations. The mares, however, did habituate to the noise. Levels of anxiety and mass body movements were the highest after initial exposure, with intensities of responses decreasing thereafter. There were no differences in pregnancy success when compared to a control group.

Swine

Generally, the literature findings for swine appear to be similar to those reported for cows and horses. While there are some effects from aircraft noise reported in the literature, these effects are minor. Studies of continuous noise exposure (i.e., 6 hours, 72 hours of constant exposure) reported influences on short-term hormonal production and release. Additional constant exposure studies indicated the observation of stress reactions, hypertension, and electrolyte imbalances (Dufour 1980). A study by Bond et al. (1963), demonstrated no adverse effects on the feeding efficiency, weight gain, ear physiology, or thyroid and adrenal gland condition of pigs subjected to observed aircraft noise. Observations of heart rate increase were recorded; noting that cessation of the noise resulted in the return to normal heart rates. Conception rates and offspring survivorship did not appear to be influenced by exposure to aircraft noise.

Similarly, simulated aircraft noise at levels of 100-135 dB had only minor effects on the rate of feed utilization, weight gain, food intake, or reproduction rates of boars and sows exposed, and there were no injuries or inner ear changes observed (Gladwin et al. 1988; Mancini et al. 1988).

Domestic Fowl

According to a 1994 position paper by the U.S. Air Force on effects of low-altitude overflights (below 1,000 feet) on domestic fowl, overflight activity has negligible effects (U.S. Air Force 1994b). The paper did recognize that given certain circumstances, adverse effects can be serious. Some of the effects can be panic reactions, reduced productivity, and effects on marketability (e.g., bruising of the meat caused during “pile-up” situations).

The typical reaction of domestic fowl after exposure to sudden, intense noise is a short-term startle response. The reaction ceases as soon as the stimulus is ended, and within a few minutes all activity returns to normal. More severe responses are possible depending on the number of birds, the frequency of exposure, and environmental conditions. Large crowds of birds, and birds not previously exposed, are more likely to pile up in response to a noise stimulus (U.S. Air Force 1994b). According to studies and interviews with growers, it is typically the previously unexposed birds that incite panic crowding, and the tendency to do so is markedly reduced within five exposures to the stimulus (U.S. Air Force 1994b). This suggests that the birds habituate relatively quickly. Egg productivity was not adversely affected by infrequent noise bursts, even at exposure levels as high as 120-130 dB.

Between 1956 and 1988, there were 100 recorded claims against the Navy for alleged damage to domestic fowl. The number of claims averaged three per year, with peak numbers of claims following publications of studies on the topic in the early 1960s. Many of the claims were disproved or did not have sufficient supporting evidence. The claims were filed for the following alleged damages: 55% for panic reactions, 31% for decreased production, 6% for reduced hatchability, 6% for weight loss, and less than 1% for reduced fertility (U.S. Air Force 1994b).

B2.14.2 Wildlife

Studies on the effects of overflights and sonic booms on wildlife have been focused mostly on avian species and ungulates such as caribou and bighorn sheep. Few studies have been conducted on marine mammals, small terrestrial mammals, reptiles, amphibians, and carnivorous mammals. Generally, species that live entirely below the surface of the water have also been ignored due to the fact they do not experience the same level of sound as terrestrial species (National Park Service 1994). Wild ungulates appear to be much more sensitive to noise disturbance than domestic livestock. This may be due to previous exposure to disturbances. One common factor appears to be that low-altitude flyovers seem to be more disruptive in terrain where there is little cover (Manci et al. 1988).

Mammals

TERRESTRIAL MAMMALS

Studies of terrestrial mammals have shown that noise levels of 120 dB can damage mammals' ears, and levels at 95 dB can cause temporary loss of hearing acuity. Noise from aircraft has affected other large carnivores by causing changes in home ranges, foraging patterns, and breeding behavior. One study recommended that aircraft not be allowed to fly at altitudes below 2,000 feet AGL over important grizzly and polar bear habitat. Wolves have been frightened by low-altitude flights that were 25-1,000 feet AGL. However, wolves have been found to adapt to aircraft overflights and noise as long as they were not being hunted from aircraft (Dufour 1980).

Wild ungulates (American bison, caribou, bighorn sheep) appear to be much more sensitive to noise disturbance than domestic livestock (Weisenberger et al. 1996). Behavioral reactions may be related to the past history of disturbances by such things as humans and aircraft. Common reactions of reindeer kept in an enclosure exposed to aircraft noise disturbance were a slight startle response, rising of the head, pricking ears, and scenting of the air. Panic reactions and extensive changes in behavior of individual animals were not observed. Observations of caribou in Alaska exposed to fixed-wing aircraft and helicopters showed running and panic reactions occurred when overflights were at an altitude of 200 feet or less. The reactions decreased with increased altitude of overflights, and, with more than 500 feet in altitude, the panic reactions stopped. Also, smaller groups reacted less strongly than larger groups. One negative effect of the running and avoidance behavior is increased expenditure of energy. For a 90-kilogram animal, the calculated expenditure due to aircraft harassment is 64 kilocalories per minute when running and 20 kilocalories per minute when walking. When conditions are favorable, this expenditure can be counteracted with increased feeding; however, during harsh winter conditions, this may not be possible. Incidental observations of wolves and bears exposed to fixed-wing aircraft and helicopters in the northern regions suggested that wolves are less disturbed than wild ungulates, while grizzly bears showed the greatest response of any animal species observed (Weisenberger et al. 1996).

It has been proven that low-altitude overflights do induce stress in animals. Increased heart rates, an indicator of excitement or stress, have been found in pronghorn antelope, elk, and bighorn sheep. As such reactions occur naturally as a response to predation, infrequent overflights may not, in and of themselves, be detrimental. However, flights at high frequencies over a long period of time may cause harmful effects. The consequences of this disturbance, while cumulative, are not additive. It may be that aircraft disturbance may not cause obvious and serious health effects, but coupled with a harsh winter, it may have an adverse impact. Research has shown that stress induced by other types of disturbances produces long-term decreases in metabolism and hormone balances in wild ungulates.

Behavioral responses can range from mild to severe. Mild responses include head raising, body shifting, or turning to orient toward the aircraft. Moderate disturbance may be nervous behaviors, such as trotting a short distance. Escape is the typical severe response.

BIRDS

Auditory research conducted on birds indicates that they fall between the reptiles and the mammals relative to hearing sensitivity. According to Dooling (1978), within the range of 1,000 to 5,000 Hz, birds show a level of hearing sensitivity similar to that of the more sensitive mammals. In contrast to mammals, bird sensitivity falls off at a greater rate to increasing and decreasing frequencies. Passive observations and studies examining aircraft bird strikes indicate that birds nest and forage near airports. Aircraft noise in the vicinity of commercial airports apparently does not inhibit bird presence and use.

High noise events (like a low-altitude aircraft overflight) may cause birds to engage in escape or avoidance behaviors, such as flushing from perches or nests (Ellis et al. 1991). These activities impose an energy cost on the birds that, over the long term, may affect survival or growth. In addition, the birds may spend less time engaged in necessary activities like feeding, preening, or caring for their young because they spend time in noise-avoidance activity. However, the long-term significance of noise-related impacts is less clear. Several studies on nesting raptors have indicated that birds become habituated to aircraft overflights and that long-term reproductive success is not affected (Ellis et al. 1991; Grubb and King 1991). Threshold noise levels for significant responses range from 62 dB for Pacific black brant to 85 dB for crested tern (Brown 1990; Ward and Stehn 1990).

Songbirds were observed to become silent prior to the onset of a sonic boom event (F-111 jets), followed by “raucous discordant cries.” There was a return to normal singing within 10 seconds after the boom (Higgins 1974 in Mancini et al. 1988). Ravens responded by emitting protestation calls, flapping their wings, and soaring.

Mancini et al. (1988), reported a reduction in reproductive success in some small territorial passerines (i.e., perching birds or songbirds) after exposure to low-altitude overflights. However, it has been observed that passerines are not driven any great distance from a favored food source by a nonspecific disturbance, such as aircraft overflights (U.S. Forest Service 1992). Further study may be warranted.

A cooperative study between the DoD and the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS), assessed the response of the red-cockaded woodpecker to a range of military training noise events, including artillery, small arms, helicopter, and maneuver noise (Pater et al. 1999). The project findings show that the red-cockaded woodpecker successfully acclimates to military noise events. Depending on the noise level that ranged from innocuous to very loud, the birds responded by flushing from their nest cavities. When the

noise source was closer and the noise level was higher, the number of flushes increased proportionately. In all cases, however, the birds returned to their nests within a relatively short period of time (usually within 12 minutes). Additionally, the noise exposure did not result in any mortality or statistically detectable changes in reproductive success (Pater et al. 1999). Red-cockaded woodpeckers did not flush when artillery simulators were more than 122 meters away and SELs were 70 dB.

Lynch and Speake (1978) studied the effects of both real and simulated sonic booms on the nesting and brooding eastern wild turkey in Alabama. Hens at four nest sites were subjected to between 8 and 11 combined real and simulated sonic booms. All tests elicited similar responses, including quick lifting of the head and apparent alertness for 10-20 seconds. No apparent nest failure occurred as a result of the sonic booms. Twenty-one brood groups were also subjected to simulated sonic booms. Reactions varied slightly between groups, but the largest percentage of groups reacted by standing motionless after the initial blast. Upon the sound of the boom, the hens and poults fled until reaching the edge of the woods (approximately 4-8 meters). Afterward, the poults resumed feeding activities while the hens remained alert for a short period of time (approximately 15-20 seconds). In no instances were poults abandoned, nor did they scatter and become lost. Every observation group returned to normal activities within a maximum of 30 seconds after a blast.

RAPTORS

In a literature review of raptor responses to aircraft noise, Mancini et al. (1988) found that most raptors did not show a negative response to overflights. When negative responses were observed they were predominantly associated with rotor-winged aircraft or jet aircraft that were repeatedly passing within 0.5 mile of a nest.

Ellis et al. (1991), performed a study to estimate the effects of low-level military jet aircraft and mid- to high-altitude sonic booms (both actual and simulated) on nesting peregrine falcons and seven other raptors (common black-hawk, Harris' hawk, zone-tailed hawk, red-tailed hawk, golden eagle, prairie falcon, bald eagle). They observed responses to test stimuli, determined nest success for the year of the testing, and evaluated site occupancy the following year. Both long- and short-term effects were noted in the study. The results reported the successful fledging of young in 34 of 38 nest sites (all eight species) subjected to low-level flight and/or simulated sonic booms. Twenty-two of the test sites were revisited in the following year, and observations of pairs or lone birds were made at all but one nest. Nesting attempts were underway at 19 of 20 sites that were observed long enough to be certain of breeding activity. Reoccupancy and productivity rates were within or above expected values for self-sustaining populations.

Short-term behavior responses were also noted. Overflights at a distance of 150 meters or less produced few significant responses and no severe responses. Typical responses consisted of crouching or, very rarely, flushing from the perch site. Significant responses were most evident before egg laying and after young were "well grown." Incubating or brooding adults never burst from the nest, thus preventing egg breaking or knocking chicks out of the nest. Jet passes and sonic booms often caused noticeable alarm; however, significant negative responses were rare and did not appear to limit productivity or reoccupancy. Due to the locations of some of the nests, some birds may have been habituated to aircraft noise. There were some test sites located at distances far from zones of frequent military aircraft usage, and the test

stimuli were often closer, louder, and more frequent than would be likely for a normal training situation (Ellis et al. 1991).

Manci et al. (1988), noted that a female northern harrier was observed hunting on a bombing range in Mississippi during bombing exercises. The harrier was apparently unfazed by the exercises, even when a bomb exploded within 200 feet. In a similar case of habituation/non-disturbance, a study on the Florida snail-kite stated the greatest reaction to overflights (approximately 98 dB) was “watching the aircraft fly by.” No detrimental impacts to distribution, breeding success, or behavior were noted.

Bald Eagle. A study by Grubb and King (1991) on the reactions of the bald eagle to human disturbances showed that terrestrial disturbances elicited the greatest response, followed by aquatic (i.e., boats) and aerial disturbances. The disturbance regime of the area where the study occurred was predominantly characterized by aircraft noise. The study found that pedestrians consistently caused responses that were greater in both frequency and duration. Helicopters elicited the highest level of aircraft-related responses. Aircraft disturbances, although the most common form of disturbance, resulted in the lowest levels of response. This low response level may have been due to habituation; however, flights less than 170 meters away caused reactions similar to other disturbance types. Ellis et al. (1991) showed that eagles typically respond to the proximity of a disturbance, such as a pedestrian or aircraft within 100 meters, rather than the noise level. Fleischner and Weisberg (1986) stated that reactions of bald eagles to commercial jet flights, although minor (e.g., looking), were twice as likely to occur when the jets passed at a distance of 0.5 mile or less. They also noted that helicopters were four times more likely to cause a reaction than a commercial jet and 20 times more likely to cause a reaction than a propeller plane.

The USFWS advised Cannon Air Force Base that flights at or below 2,000 feet AGL from October 1 through March 1 could result in adverse impacts to wintering bald eagles (USFWS 1998). However, Fraser et al. (1985), suggested that raptors habituate to overflights rapidly, sometimes tolerating aircraft approaches of 65 feet or less.

Golden Eagle. In their guidelines for aerial surveys, USFWS (Pagel et al. 2010) summarized past studies by stating that most golden eagles respond to survey aircraft (fixed- and rotary-wing) by remaining on their nests, and continuing to incubate or roost. Surveys take place generally as close as 10 to 20 meters from cliffs (including hovering less than 30 seconds, if necessary, to count eggs) and no farther than 200 meters from cliffs depending on safety (Pagel et al. 2010).

Grubb et al. (2007) experimented with multiple exposure to two helicopter types and concluded that flights with a variety of approach distances (800, 400, 200, and 100 meters) had no effect on golden eagle nesting success or productivity rates within the same year or on rates of renewed nesting activity the following year when compared to the corresponding figures for the larger population of non-manipulated nest sites (Grubb et al. 2007). They found no significant, detrimental, or disruptive responses in 303 helicopter passes near eagles. In 227 AH-64 Apache helicopter experimental passes (considered twice as loud as a civilian helicopter also tested) at test distances of 0–800 meters from nesting golden eagles, 96% resulted in no more response than watching the helicopter pass. No greater reactions occurred until after hatching when individual golden eagles exhibited five flatten and three fly behaviors at three nest sites. The flight responses occurred at approach distances of 200 meters or less. No evidence was found of an effect on subsequent nesting activity or success, despite many of the helicopter flights occurring during early courtship and nest repair. None of these responding pairs failed to successfully fledge young,

except for one nest that fell later in the season. Excited, startled, avoidance reactions were never observed. Non-attending eagles or those perched away from the nests were more likely to fly than attending eagles, but also with less potential consequence to nesting success (Grubb et al. 2007). Golden eagles appeared to become less responsive with successive exposures. Much of helicopter sound energy may be at a lower frequency than golden eagles can hear, thus reducing expected impacts. Grubb et al. (2007) found no relationship between helicopter sound levels and corresponding eagle ambient behaviors or limited responses, which occurred throughout recorded test levels (76.7–108.8 dB, unweighted). The authors thought that the lower-than-expected behavioral responses may be partially due to the fact that the golden eagles in the area appear acclimated to the current high levels of outdoor recreational, including aviation, activities. Based on the results of this study, the authors recommended reduction of existing buffers around nest sites to 100 meters (325 feet) for helicopter activity.

Richardson and Miller (1997) reviewed buffers as protection for raptors against disturbance from ground-based human activities. No consideration of aircraft activity was included. They stressed a clear line of sight as an important factor in a raptor's response to a particular disturbance, with visual screening allowing a closer approach of humans without disturbing a raptor. A Geographic Information System-assisted viewshed approach combined with a designated buffer zone distance was found to be an effective tool for reducing potential disturbance to golden eagles from ground-based activities (Richardson and Miller 1997). They summarized recommendations that included a median 0.5-mile (800-meter) buffer (range = 200-1,600 meters, n = 3) to reduce human disturbances (from ground-based activities such as rock climbing, shooting, vehicular activity) around active golden eagle nests from February 1 to August 1 based on an extensive review of other studies (Richardson and Miller 1997). Physical characteristics (i.e., screening by topography or vegetation) are important variables to consider when establishing buffer zones based on raptors' visual- and auditory-detection distances (Richardson and Miller 1997).

Osprey. A study by Trimper et al. (1998), in Goose Bay, Labrador, Canada, focused on the reactions of nesting osprey to military overflights by CF-18 Hornets. Reactions varied from increased alertness and focused observation of planes to adjustments in incubation posture. No overt reactions (e.g., startle response, rapid nest departure) were observed as a result of an overflight. Young nestlings crouched as a result of any disturbance until 1 to 2 weeks prior to fledging. Helicopters, human presence, float planes, and other ospreys elicited the strongest reactions from nesting ospreys. These responses included flushing, agitation, and aggressive displays. Adult osprey showed high nest occupancy rates during incubation regardless of external influences. The osprey observed occasionally stared in the direction of the flight before it was audible to the observers. The birds may have been habituated to the noise of the flights; however, overflights were strictly controlled during the experimental period. Strong reactions to float planes and helicopter may have been due to the slower flight and therefore longer duration of visual stimuli rather than noise-related stimuli.

Red-tailed Hawk. Andersen et al. (1989), conducted a study that investigated the effects of low-level helicopter overflights on 35 red-tailed hawk nests. Some of the nests had not been flown over prior to the study. The hawks that were naïve (i.e., not previously exposed) to helicopter flights exhibited stronger avoidance behavior (9 of 17 birds flushed from their nests) than those that had experienced prior overflights. The overflights did not appear to affect nesting success in either study group. These findings were consistent with the belief that red-tailed hawks habituate to low-level air traffic, even during the nesting period.

UPLAND GAME BIRDS

Greater Sage-grouse. The greater sage-grouse was recently designated as a candidate species for protection under the Endangered Species Act after many years of scrutiny and research (USFWS 2010). This species is a widespread and characteristic species of the sagebrush ecosystems in the Intermountain West. Greater sage-grouse, like most bird species, rely on auditory signals as part of mating. Sage-grouse are known to select their leks based on acoustic properties and depend on auditory communication for mating behavior (Braun 2006). Although little specific research has been completed to determine what, if any, effects aircraft overflight and sonic booms would have on the breeding behavior of this species, factors that may be important include season and time of day, altitude, frequency, and duration of overflights, and frequency and loudness of sonic booms.

Booth in 2009 found, while attempting to count sage-grouse at leks (breeding grounds) using light sport aircraft at 150 meters (492 feet) to 200 meters (650 feet) AGL, that sage-grouse flushed from leks on 12 of 14 approaches when the airplane was within 656 to 984 feet (200–300 meters) of the lek (Booth et al. 2009). In the other two instances, male grouse stopped exhibiting breeding behavior and crouched but stayed on the lek. The time to resumption of normal behavior after disturbance was not provided in this study. Strutting ceased around the time when observers on the ground heard the aircraft. The light sport aircraft could be safely operated at very low speed (68 kilometers/hour or 37 nautical miles/hour) and was powered by either a two-stroke or a four-stroke engine. It is unclear how the response to the slow-flying light sport aircraft used in the study would compare to overflight by military jets, operating at speeds 10 to 12 times as great as the aircraft used in the study. It is possible that response of the birds was related to the slow speed of the light sport aircraft causing it to resemble an aerial predator.

Other studies have found disturbance from energy operations and other nearby development have adversely affected breeding behavior of greater sage-grouse (Holloran 2005; Doherty 2008; Walker et al. 2007; Harju et al. 2010). These studies do not specifically address overflight and do not isolate noise disturbance from other types (e.g., visual, human presence) nor do they generally provide noise levels or qualification of the noise source (e.g., continuous or intermittent, frequency, duration).

Because so few studies have been done on greater sage-grouse response to overflights or sonic booms, research on related species may be applicable. Observations on other upland game bird species include those on the behavior of four wild turkey (*Meleagris gallapavo*) hens on their nests during real and simulated sonic booms (Manci et al. 1988). Simulated sonic booms were produced by firing 5-centimeter mortar shells, 300 to 500 feet from the nest of each hen. Recordings of pressure for both types of booms measured 0.4 to 1.0 psf at the observer's location.

Turkey hens exhibited only a few seconds of head alert behavior at the sound of the sonic boom. No hens were flushed off the nests, and productivity estimates revealed no effect from the booms. Twenty brood groups were also subjected to simulated sonic booms. In no instance did the hens desert any poults (young birds), nor did the poults scatter or desert the rest of the brood group. In every observation, the brood group returned to normal activity within 30 seconds after a simulated sonic boom. Similarly, researchers cited in Manci et al. (1988) observed no difference in hatching success of bobwhite quail (*Colinus virginianus*) exposed to simulated sonic booms of 100 to 250 micronewtons per square meter.

MIGRATORY WATERFOWL

Fleming et al. (1996) conducted a study of caged American black ducks found that noise had negligible energetic and physiologic effects on adult waterfowl. Measurements included body weight, behavior, heart rate, and enzymatic activity. Experiments also showed that adult ducks exposed to high noise events acclimated rapidly and showed no effects.

The study also investigated the reproductive success of captive ducks, which indicated that duckling growth and survival rates at Piney Island, North Carolina, were lower than those at a background location. In contrast, observations of several other reproductive indices (i.e., pair formation, nesting, egg production, and hatching success) showed no difference between Piney Island and the background location. Potential effects on wild duck populations may vary, as wild ducks at Piney Island have presumably acclimated to aircraft overflights. It was not demonstrated that noise was the cause of adverse impacts. A variety of other factors, such as weather conditions, drinking water and food availability and variability, disease, and natural variability in reproduction, could explain the observed effects. Fleming noted that drinking water conditions (particularly at Piney Island) deteriorated during the study, which could have affected the growth of young ducks. Further research would be necessary to determine the cause of any reproductive effects (Fleming et al. 1996).

Another study by Conomy et al. (1998) exposed previously unexposed ducks to 71 noise events per day that equaled or exceeded 80 dB. It was determined that the proportion of time black ducks reacted to aircraft activity and noise decreased from 38% to 6% in 17 days and remained stable at 5.8% thereafter. In the same study, the wood duck did not appear to habituate to aircraft disturbance. This supports the notion that animal response to aircraft noise is species-specific. Because a startle response to aircraft noise can result in flushing from nests, migrants and animals living in areas with high concentrations of predators would be the most vulnerable to experiencing effects of lowered birth rates and recruitment over time. Species that are subjected to infrequent overflights do not appear to habituate to overflight disturbance as readily.

Black brant studied in the Alaska Peninsula were exposed to jets and propeller aircraft, helicopters, gunshots, people, boats, and various raptors. Jets accounted for 65% of all the disturbances. Humans, eagles, and boats caused a greater percentage of brant to take flight. There was markedly greater reaction to Bell-206-B helicopter flights than fixed-wing, single-engine aircraft (Ward et al. 1986).

The presence of humans and low-flying helicopters in the Mackenzie Valley North Slope area did not appear to affect the population density of Lapland longspurs, but the experimental group was shown to have reduced hatching and fledging success and higher nest abandonment. Human presence appeared to have a greater impact on the incubating behavior of the black brant, common eider, and Arctic tern than fixed-wing aircraft (Gunn and Livingston 1974).

Gunn and Livingston (1974) found that waterfowl and seabirds in the Mackenzie Valley and North Slope of Alaska and Canada became acclimated to float plane disturbance over the course of 3 days. Additionally, it was observed that potential predators (bald eagle) caused a number of birds to leave their nests. Non-breeding birds were observed to be more reactive than breeding birds. Waterfowl were affected by helicopter flights, while snow geese were disturbed by Cessna 185 flights. The geese flushed when the planes were less than 1,000 feet, compared to higher flight elevations. An overall reduction in

flock sizes was observed. It was recommended that aircraft flights be reduced in the vicinity of pre-migratory staging areas.

Manci et al. 1988, reported that waterfowl were particularly disturbed by aircraft noise. The most sensitive appeared to be snow geese. Canada geese and snow geese were thought to be more sensitive than other animals such as turkey vultures, coyotes, and raptors (Edwards et al. 1979).

WADING AND SHOREBIRDS

Black et al. (1984), studied the effects of low-altitude (less than 500 feet AGL) military training flights with sound levels from 55 to 100 dB on wading bird colonies (i.e., great egret, snowy egret, tricolored heron, and little blue heron). The training flights involved three or four aircraft, which occurred once or twice per day. This study concluded that the reproductive activity—including nest success, nestling survival, and nestling chronology—was independent of F-16 overflights. Dependent variables were more strongly related to ecological factors, including location and physical characteristics of the colony and climatology.

Another study on the effects of circling fixed-wing aircraft and helicopter overflights on wading bird colonies found that at altitudes of 195 to 390 feet, there was no reaction in nearly 75% of the 220 observations. Approximately 90% displayed no reaction or merely looked toward the direction of the noise source. Another 6% stood up, 3% walked from the nest, and 2% flushed (but were without active nests) and returned within 5 minutes (Kushlan 1979). Apparently, non-nesting wading birds had a slightly higher incidence of reacting to overflights than nesting birds. Seagulls observed roosting near a colony of wading birds in another study remained at their roosts when subsonic aircraft flew overhead (Burger 1981). Colony distribution appeared to be most directly correlated to available wetland community types and was found to be distributed randomly with respect to MTRs. These results suggest that wading bird species presence was most closely linked to habitat availability and that they were not affected by low-level military overflights (U.S. Air Force 2000).

Burger (1986) studied the response of migrating shorebirds to human disturbance and found that shorebirds did not fly in response to aircraft overflights, but did flush in response to more localized intrusions (i.e., humans and dogs on the beach). Burger (1981) studied the effects of noise from JFK Airport in New York on herring gulls that nested less than 1 kilometer from the airport. Noise levels over the nesting colony were 85-100 dB on approach and 94-105 dB on takeoff. Generally, there did not appear to be any prominent adverse effects of subsonic aircraft on nesting, although some birds flushed when the Concorde flew overhead and, when they returned, engaged in aggressive behavior. Groups of gulls tended to loaf in the area of the nesting colony, and these birds remained at the roost when the Concorde flew overhead. Up to 208 of the loafing gulls flew when supersonic aircraft flew overhead. These birds would circle around and immediately land in the loafing flock (U.S. Air Force 2000).

In 1970, sonic booms were potentially linked to a mass hatch failure of sooty terns on the Dry Tortugas (Austin et al. 1970). The cause of the failure was not certain, but it was conjectured that sonic booms from military aircraft or an overgrowth of vegetation were factors. In the previous season, sooty terns were observed to react to sonic booms by rising in a “panic flight,” circling over the island, then usually settling down on their eggs again. Hatching that year was normal. Following the 1969 hatch failure, excess vegetation was cleared and measures were taken to reduce supersonic activity. The 1970 hatch

appeared to proceed normally. A colony of noddies on the same island hatched successfully in 1969, the year of the sooty tern hatch failure.

Subsequent laboratory tests of exposure of eggs to sonic booms and other impulsive noises (Cottreau 1972; Cogger and Zegarra 1980; Bowles et al. 1991, 1994) failed to show adverse effects on hatching of eggs. A structural analysis by Ting et al. (2002) showed that, even under extraordinary circumstances, sonic booms would not damage an avian egg.

Burger (1981) observed no effects of subsonic aircraft on herring gulls in the vicinity of JFK International Airport. The Concorde aircraft did cause more nesting gulls to leave their nests (especially in areas of higher density of nests), causing the breakage of eggs and the scavenging of eggs by intruder prey. Clutch sizes were observed to be smaller in areas of higher-density nesting (presumably due to the greater tendency for panic flight) than in areas where there were fewer nests.

Fish and Amphibians

The effects of overflight noise on fish and amphibians have not been well studied, but conclusions regarding their expected responses have involved speculation based upon known physiologies and behavioral traits of these taxa (Gladwin et al. 1988). Although fish do startle in response to low-flying aircraft noise, and probably to the shadows of aircraft, they have been found to habituate to the sound and overflights. Amphibians that respond to low frequencies and those that respond to ground vibration, such as spadefoot toads, may be affected by noise.

Summary

Some physiological/behavioral responses such as increased hormonal production, increased heart rate, and reduction in milk production have been described in a small percentage of studies. A majority of the studies focusing on these types of effects have reported short-term or no effects.

The relationships between physiological effects and how species interact with their environments have not been thoroughly studied. Therefore, the larger ecological context issues regarding physiological effects of jet aircraft noise (if any) and resulting behavioral pattern changes are not well understood.

Animal species exhibit a wide variety of responses to noise. It is therefore difficult to generalize animal responses to noise disturbances or to draw inferences across species, as reactions to jet aircraft noise appear to be species-specific. Consequently, some animal species may be more sensitive than other species and/or may exhibit different forms or intensities of behavioral responses. For instance, wood ducks appear to be more sensitive and more resistant to acclimation to jet aircraft noise than Canada geese in one study. Similarly, wild ungulates seem to be more easily disturbed than domestic animals.

The literature does suggest that common responses include the “startle” or “fright” response and, ultimately, habituation. It has been reported that the intensities and durations of the startle response decrease with the numbers and frequencies of exposures, suggesting no long-term adverse effects. The majority of the literature suggests that domestic animal species (cows, horses, chickens) and wildlife species exhibit adaptation, acclimation, and habituation after repeated exposure to jet aircraft noise and sonic booms.

Animal responses to aircraft noise appear to be somewhat dependent on, or influenced by, the size, shape, speed, proximity (vertical and horizontal), engine noise, color, and flight profile of planes. Helicopters

also appear to induce greater intensities and durations of disturbance behavior as compared to fixed-wing aircraft. Some studies showed that animals that had been previously exposed to jet aircraft noise exhibited greater degrees of alarm and disturbance to other objects creating noise, such as boats, people, and objects blowing across the landscape. Other factors influencing response to jet aircraft noise may include wind direction, speed, and local air turbulence; landscape structures (i.e., amount and type of vegetative cover); and, in the case of bird species, whether the animals are in the incubation/nesting phase.

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