2 INTRODUCTION TO NOISE TERMINOLOGY AND EVALUATION

Noise is a complex physical quantity. The properties, measurement, and presentation of noise involve specialized terminology that can be difficult to understand. Where possible, the Part 150 Update Study process used – and this document uses – graphics and everyday comparisons to communicate noise-related quantities and effects in reasonably simple terms.

To provide a basic reference on these technical issues, this chapter introduces fundamentals of noise terminology (Section 2.1), the effects of noise on human activity (Section 2.2), weather and distance effects (Section 2.3), and Part 150 noise/land use compatibility guidelines (Section 2.4).

2.1 Introduction to Noise Terminology

Part 150 relies largely on a measure of cumulative noise exposure over an entire calendar year, in terms of a metric called the Day-Night Average Sound Level (DNL). However, DNL does not provide an adequate description of noise for many purposes. A variety of other measures is available to address essentially any issue of concern, including:

- Sound Pressure Level, SPL, and the Decibel, dB
- A-Weighted Decibel, dBA
- Maximum A-Weighted Sound Level, L_{max}
- Sound Exposure Level, SEL
- Equivalent A-Weighted Sound Level, L_{eq}
- Day-Night Average Sound Level, DNL

2.1.1 ***Sound Pressure Level, SPL, and the Decibel, dB***

All sounds come from a sound source – a musical instrument, a voice speaking, an airplane passing overhead, etc. It takes energy to produce sound. The sound energy produced by any sound source travels through the air in sound waves – tiny, quick oscillations of pressure just above and just below atmospheric pressure. The ear senses these pressure variations and – with much processing in our brain – translates them into “sound.”

Our ears are sensitive to a wide range of sound pressures. The loudest sounds that we can hear without pain contain about one million times more energy than the quietest sounds we can detect. To allow us to perceive sound over this very wide range, our ear/brain “auditory system” compresses our response in a complex manner, represented by a term called sound pressure level (SPL), which we express in units called decibels (dB).

Mathematically, SPL is a logarithmic quantity based on the ratio of two sound pressures, the numerator being the pressure of the sound source of interest (P_{source}), and the denominator being a reference pressure ($P_{reference}$)[5]

$$\text{Sound Pressure Level (SPL)} = 20 * Log\left(\frac{P_{source}}{P_{reference}}\right) dB$$

[5] The reference pressure is approximately the quietest sound that a healthy young adult can hear.

The logarithmic conversion of sound pressure to SPL means that the quietest sound that we can hear (the reference pressure) has a sound pressure level of about 0 dB, while the loudest sounds that we hear without pain have sound pressure levels of about 120 dB. Most sounds in our day-to-day environment have sound pressure levels from about 40 to 100 dB.[6]

Because decibels are logarithmic quantities, we cannot use common arithmetic to combine them. For example, if two sound sources each produce 100 dB operating individually, when they operate simultaneously they produce 103 dB – not the 200 dB we might expect. Increasing to four equal sources operating simultaneously will add another three decibels of noise, resulting in a total SPL of 106 dB. *For every doubling of the number of equal sources, the SPL goes up another three decibels.*

If one noise source is much louder than another is, the louder source "masks" the quieter one and the two sources together produce virtually the same SPL as the louder source alone. For example, 100 dB and 80 dB sources produce approximately 100 dB of noise when operating together.

Two useful "rules of thumb" related to SPL are worth noting: (1) humans generally perceive a six to 10 dB increase in SPL to be about a doubling of loudness,[7] and (2) changes in SPL of less than about three decibels are not readily detectable outside of a laboratory environment.

2.1.2 *A-Weighted Decibel*

An important characteristic of sound is its frequency, or "pitch." This is the per-second oscillation rate of the sound pressure variation at our ear, expressed in units known as Hertz (Hz).

When analyzing the total noise of any source, acousticians often break the noise into frequency components (or bands) to consider the "low," "medium," and "high" frequency components. This breakdown is important for two reasons:

- Our ear is better equipped to hear mid and high frequencies and is least sensitive to lower frequencies. Thus, we find mid- and high-frequency noise more annoying.
- Engineering solutions to noise problems differ with frequency content. Low-frequency noise is generally harder to control.

The normal frequency range of hearing for most people extends from a low of about 20 Hz to a high of about 10,000 to 15,000 Hz. Most people respond to sound most readily when the predominant frequency is in the range of normal conversation – typically around 500 to 3,500 Hz. The acoustical community has defined several "filters," which approximate this sensitivity of our ear and thus, help us to judge the relative loudness of various sounds made up of many different frequencies.

The so-called "A" filter ("A weighting") generally does the best job of matching human response to most environmental noise sources, including natural sounds and sound from common transportation sources. "A-weighted decibels" are abbreviated "dBA." Because of the correlation with our hearing, the U. S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and nearly every other federal and state agency have adopted A-weighted decibels as the metric for use in describing environmental and transportation noise.

Figure 2 depicts A-weighting adjustments to sound from approximately 20 Hz to 10,000 Hz.

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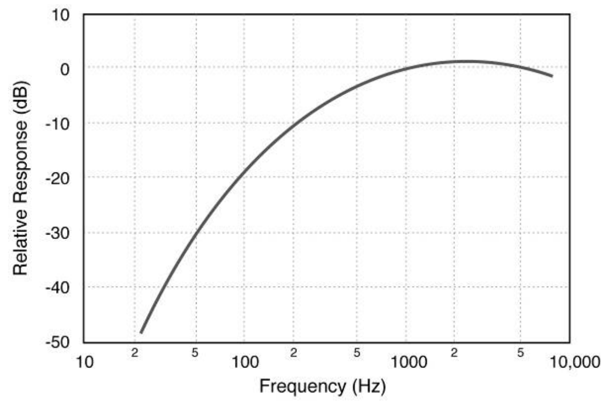
[6] The logarithmic ratio used in its calculation means that SPL changes relatively quickly at low sound pressures and more slowly at high pressures. This relationship matches human detection of changes in pressure. We are much more sensitive to changes in level when the SPL is low (for example, hearing a baby crying in a distant bedroom), than we are to changes in level when the SPL is high (for example, when listening to highly amplified music).

[7] A "10 dB per doubling" rule of thumb is the most often used approximation.

Figure 2 A-Weighting Frequency Response
Source: Extract from Harris, Cyril M., Editor, "Handbook of Acoustical Measurements and Control," McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1991, pg. 5.13; HMMH



As the figure shows, A-weighting significantly de-emphasizes noise content at lower and higher frequencies where we do not hear as well, and has little effect, or is nearly "flat," in for mid-range frequencies between 1,000 and 5,000 Hz.

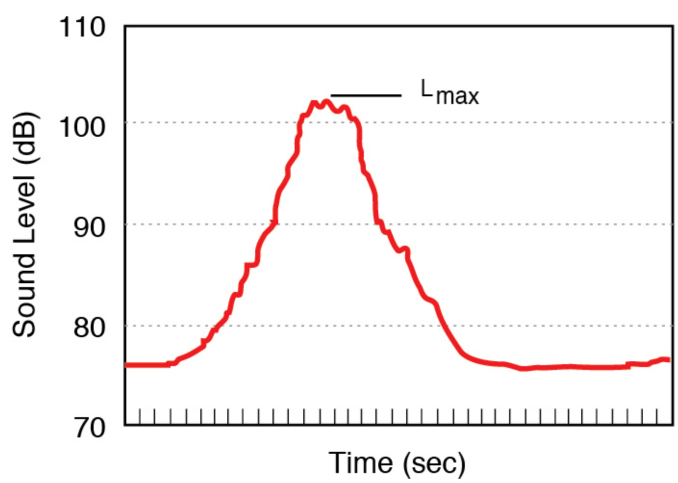
All sound pressure levels presented in this document are A-weighted unless otherwise specified.

2.1.3 *Maximum A-Weighted Sound Level, L_{max}*

An additional dimension to environmental noise is that A-weighted levels vary with time. For example, the sound level increases as a car or aircraft approaches, then falls and blends into the background as the source recedes into the distance. The background or "ambient" level continues to vary in the absence of a distinctive source, for example due to birds chirping, insects buzzing, leaves rustling, etc. It is often convenient to describe a particular noise "event" (such as a vehicle passing by, a dog barking, etc.) by its maximum sound level, abbreviated as L_{max}.

Figure 3 depicts this general concept, for a hypothetical noise event with an L_{max} of approximately 102 dB.

Figure 3 Variation in A-Weighted Sound Level over Time and Maximum Noise Level
Source: HMMH

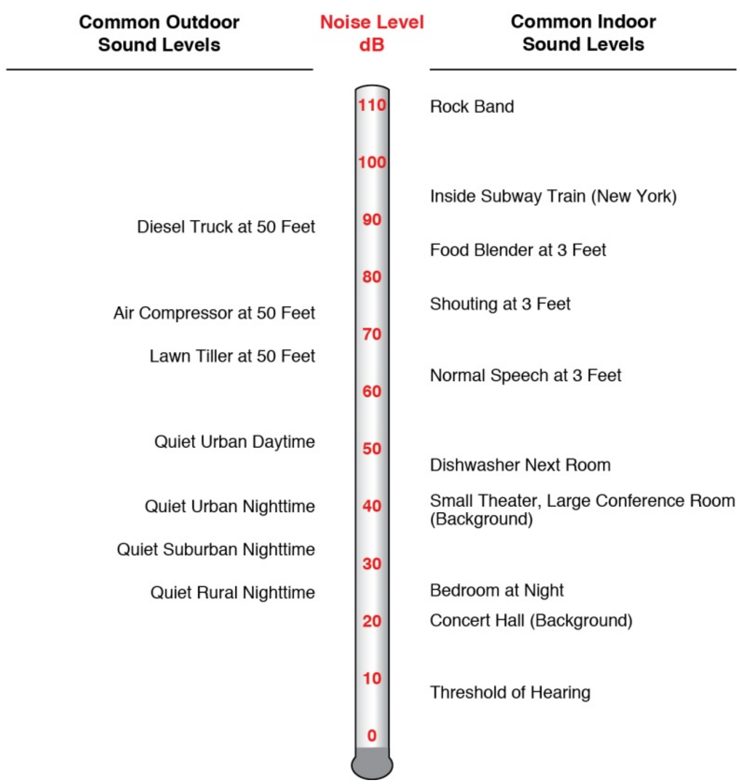


While the maximum level is easy to understand, it suffers from a serious drawback when used to describe the relative “noisiness” of an event such as an aircraft flyover; i.e., it describes only one dimension of the event and provides no information on the event’s overall, or cumulative, noise exposure. In fact, two events with identical maximum levels may produce very different total exposures. One may be of very short duration, while the other may continue for an extended period and be judged much more annoying. The next section introduces a measure that accounts for this concept of a noise "dose," or the cumulative exposure associated with an individual “noise event” such as an aircraft flyover.

Figure 4 presents typical A-weighted sound levels of several common environmental sources.

Figure 4 Common Environmental Sound Levels, in dBA

Source: HMMH

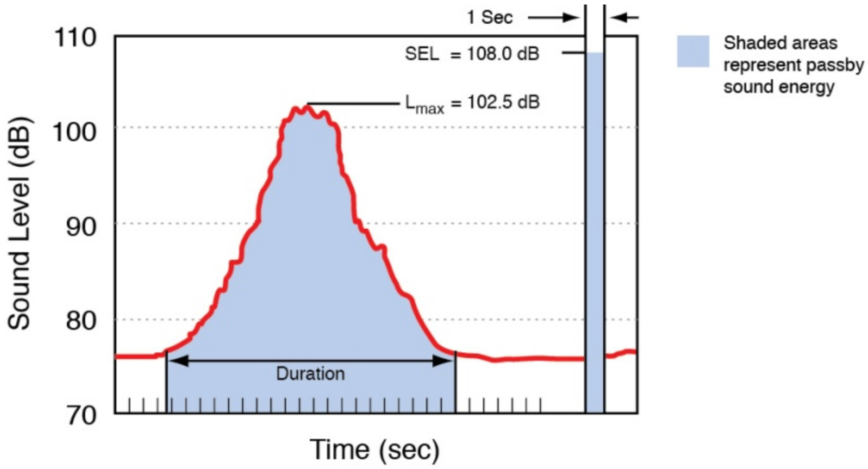


2.1.4 *Sound Exposure Level, SEL*

The most commonly used measure of cumulative noise exposure for an individual noise event, such as an aircraft flyover, is the Sound Exposure Level, or SEL. SEL is a summation of the A-weighted sound energy over the entire duration of a noise event. SEL expresses the accumulated energy in terms of the one-second-long steady-state sound level that would contain the same amount of energy as the actual time-varying level.

SEL provides a basis for comparing noise events that generally match our impression of their overall “noisiness,” including the effects of both duration and level. The higher the SEL, the more annoying a noise event is likely to be. In simple terms, SEL “compresses” the energy for the noise event into a single second. Figure 5 depicts this compression, for the same hypothetical event shown in Figure 3. Note that the SEL is higher than the L_{max}.

Figure 5 Graphical Depiction of Sound Exposure Level
Source: HMMH



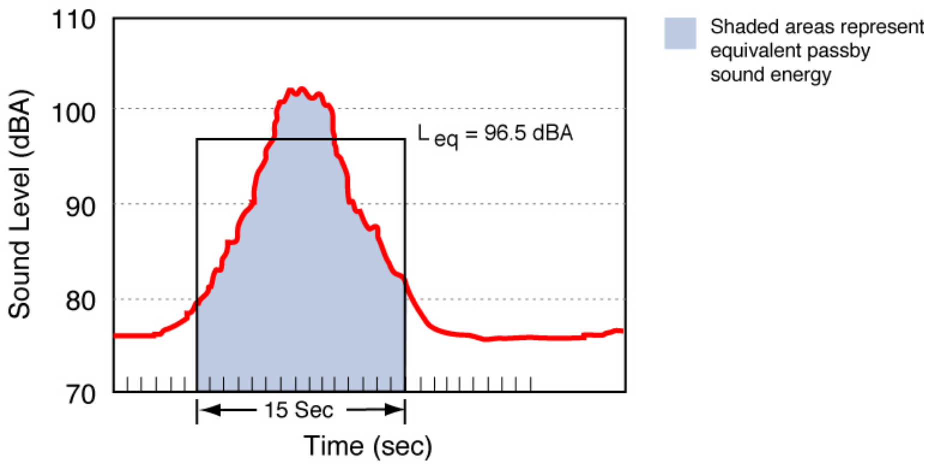
The "compression " of energy into one second means that a given noise event's SEL will almost always will be a higher value than its L_{max}. For most aircraft flyovers, SEL is roughly five to 12 dB higher than L_{max}. Adjustment for duration means that relatively slow and quiet propeller aircraft can have the same or higher SEL than faster, louder jets, which produce shorter-duration events.

2.1.5 *Equivalent A-Weighted Sound Level, L_{eq}*

The Equivalent Sound Level, abbreviated L_{eq}, is a measure of the exposure resulting from the accumulation of sound levels over a particular period of interest; e.g., one hour, an eight-hour school day, nighttime, or a full 24-hour day. L_{eq} plots for consecutive hours can help illustrate how the noise dose rises and falls over a day or how a few loud aircraft significantly affect some hours.

L_{eq} may be thought of as the constant sound level over the period of interest that would contain as much sound energy as the actual varying level. It is a way of assigning a single number to a time-varying sound level. Figure 6 illustrates this concept for the same hypothetical event shown in Figure 3 and Figure 5. Note that the L_{eq} is lower than either the L_{max} or SEL.

Figure 6 Example of a 15-Second Equivalent Sound Level
Source: HMMH



2.1.6 *Day-Night Average Sound Level, DNL or Ldn*

Part 150 requires that airports use a measure of noise exposure that is slightly more complicated than L_{eq} to describe cumulative noise exposure – the Day-Night Average Sound Level, DNL.

The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency identified DNL as the most appropriate means of evaluating airport noise based on the following considerations.[8]

- The measure should be applicable to the evaluation of pervasive long-term noise in various defined areas and under various conditions over long periods.
- The measure should correlate well with known effects of the noise environment and on individuals and the public.
- The measure should be simple, practical, and accurate. In principal, it should be useful for planning as well as for enforcement or monitoring purposes.
- The required measurement equipment, with standard characteristics, should be commercially available.
- The measure should relate closely to existing methods currently in use.
- The single measure of noise at a given location should be predictable, within an acceptable tolerance, from knowledge of the physical events producing the noise.
- The measure should lend itself to small, simple monitors, which can operate unattended in public areas for long periods.

Most federal agencies dealing with noise have formally adopted DNL. The Federal Interagency Committee on Noise (FICON) reaffirmed the appropriateness of DNL in 1992. The FICON summary report stated; "There are no new descriptors or metrics of sufficient scientific standing to substitute for the present DNL cumulative noise exposure metric."[9]

In simple terms, DNL is the 24-hour L_{eq} with one adjustment; all noises occurring at night (defined as 10 p.m. through 7 a.m.) are increased by 10 dB, to reflect the added intrusiveness of nighttime noise events when background noise levels decrease. In calculating aircraft exposure, this 10 dB "penalty" is mathematically identical to counting each nighttime aircraft noise event ten times.

DNL can be measured or estimated. Measurements are practical only for obtaining DNL values for limited numbers of points, and, in the absence of a permanently installed monitoring system, only for relatively short periods. Most airport noise studies use computer-generated DNL estimates depicted as equal-exposure noise contours (much as topographic maps have contours of equal elevation). Part 150 *requires* that airports use computer-generated contours, as discussed in Section 4.1.

More specifically, Part 150 requires that Noise Exposure Maps depict the 65, 70, and 75 dB DNL contours for total annual operations for the existing and forecast conditions cases (2014 and 2019 in this study). The annual DNL is mathematically identical to the DNL for the average annual day; i.e., a day on which the number of operations is equal to the annual total divided by 365 (366 in a leap year).

Figure 7 graphically depicts the manner in which the nighttime adjustment applies in calculating DNL. Figure 8 presents representative outdoor DNL values measured at various U.S. locations.

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[8] "Information on Levels of Environmental Noise Requisite to Protect Public Health and Welfare with an Adequate Margin of Safety," U. S. EPA Report No. 550/9-74-004, March 1974.

[9] "Federal Agency Review of Selected Airport Noise Analysis Issues," FICON, 1992.

Figure 7 Example of a Day-Night Average Sound Level Calculation
Source: HMMH

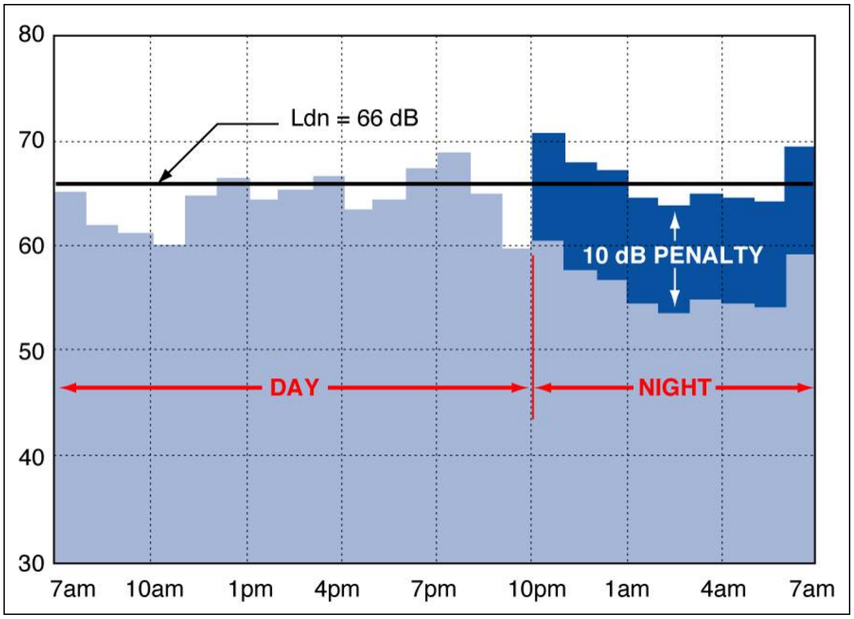
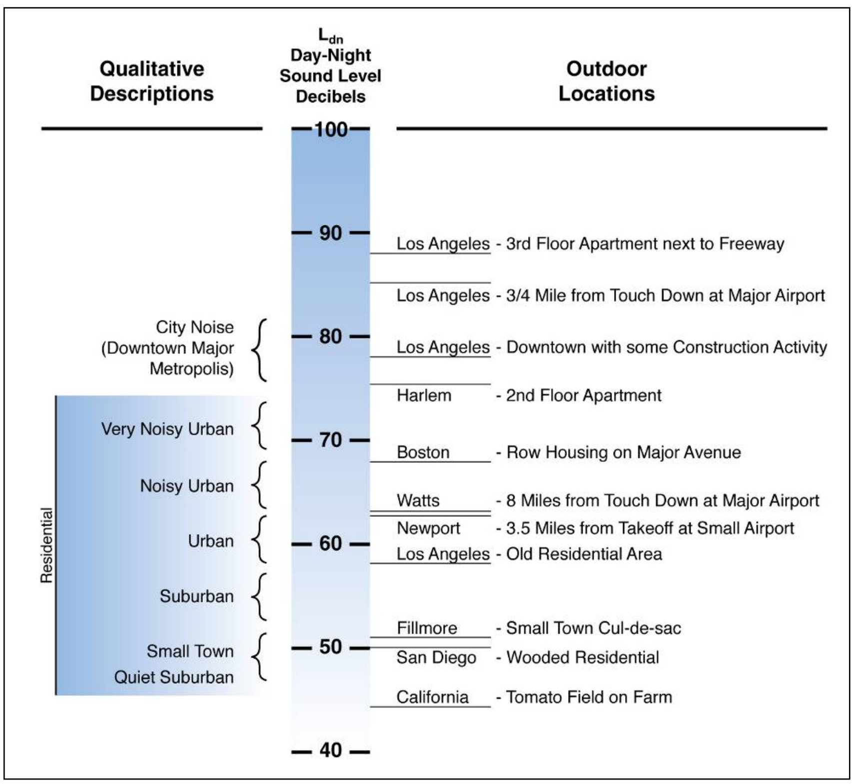


Figure 8 Examples of Measured Day-Night Average Sound Levels, DNL
Source: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, "Information on Levels of Environmental Noise Requisite to Protect Public Health and Welfare with an Adequate Margin of Safety," March 1974, p.14.



2.2 Aircraft Noise Effects on Human Activity

Aircraft noise can be an annoyance and a nuisance. It can interfere with conversation and listening to television, disrupt classroom activities in schools, and disturb sleep. Relating these effects to specific noise metrics helps in the understanding of how and why people react to their environment.

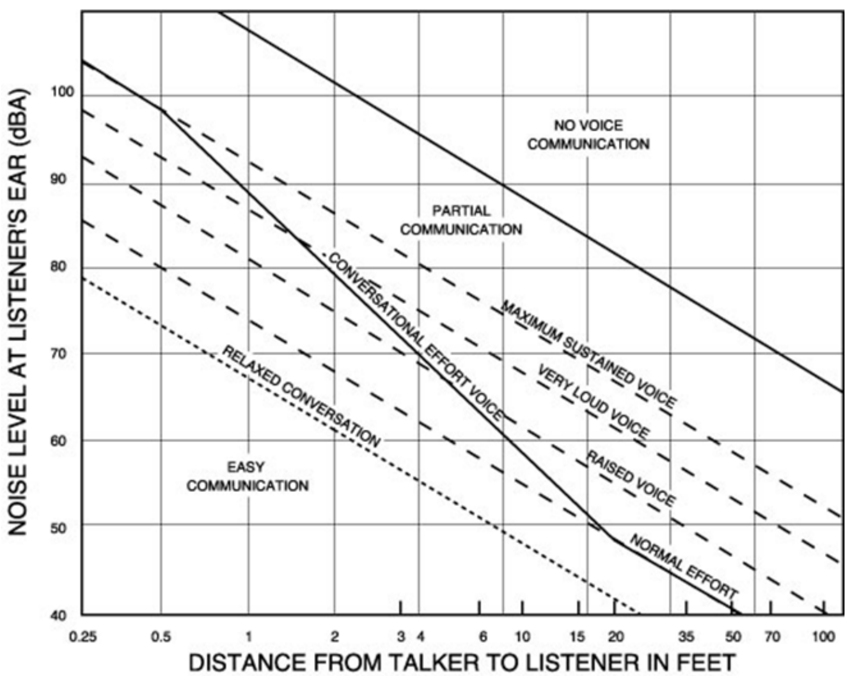
2.2.1 *Speech Interference*

One potential effect of aircraft noise is its tendency to "mask" speech, making it difficult to carry on a normal conversation. The sound level of speech decreases as the distance between a talker and listener increases. As the background sound level increases, it becomes harder to hear speech.

Figure 9 presents typical distances between talker and listener for satisfactory outdoor conversations, in the presence of different steady A-weighted background noise levels for raised, normal, and relaxed voice effort. As the background level increases, the talker must raise his/her voice, or the individuals must get closer together to continue talking.

Figure 9 Outdoor Speech Intelligibility

Source: U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, "Information on Levels of Environmental Noise Requisite to Protect Public Health and Welfare with an Adequate Margin of Safety," March 1974, p. D-5.



Satisfactory conversation does not always require hearing every word; 95% intelligibility is acceptable for many conversations. In relaxed conversation, however, we have higher expectations of hearing speech and generally require closer to 100% intelligibility. Any combination of talker-listener distances and background noise that falls below the bottom line in the figure (which roughly represents the upper boundary of 100% intelligibility) represents an ideal environment for outdoor speech communication. Indoor communication is generally acceptable in this region as well.

One implication of the relationships in Figure 9 is that for typical communication distances of three or four feet, normal voice levels provide acceptable outdoor communication as long as the background noise outdoors is less than about 65 dB. If the noise exceeds this level, as might occur when an aircraft passes overhead, intelligibility is lost unless vocal effort increases or communication distance decreases.

Indoors, typical distances, voice levels, and intelligibility expectations generally require a background level less than 45 dB. With windows partly open, housing generally provides about 10 to 15 dB of interior-to-exterior noise level reduction. Thus, if the outdoor sound level is 60 dB or less, there a reasonable chance that the resulting indoor sound level will afford acceptable interior conversation. With windows closed, 24 dB of attenuation is typical.

2.2.2 *Sleep Interference*

Research on sleep disruption from noise has led to widely varying observations. In part, this is because (1) sleep can be disturbed without awakening, (2) the deeper the sleep the more noise it takes to cause arousal, (3) the tendency to awaken increases with age, and other factors. Figure 11 shows a recent summary of findings on the topic.

Figure 10 Sleep Interference

Source: Federal Interagency Committee on Aircraft Noise (FICAN), "Effects of Aviation Noise on Awakenings from Sleep," June 1997, pg. 6

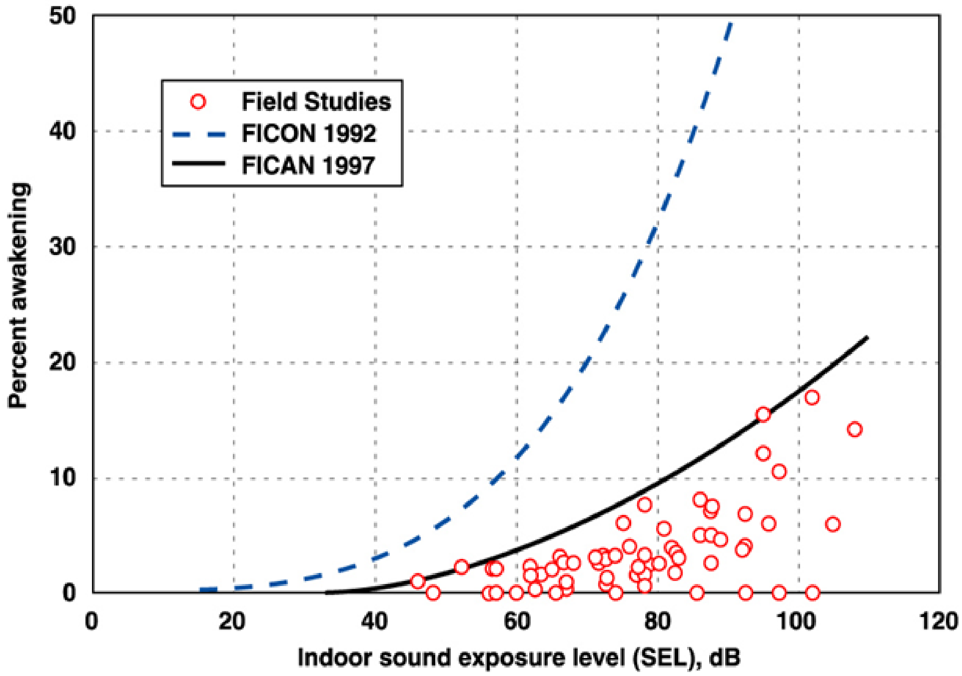


Figure 10 uses indoor SEL as the measure of noise exposure; current research supports the use of this metric in assessing sleep disruption. An indoor SEL of 80 dBA results in a maximum of 10% awakening. Assuming the typical windows-open interior-to-exterior noise-level reduction of approximately 12 dBA and a typical L_{max} value for an aircraft flyover 12 dBA lower than the SEL value, an interior SEL of 80 dBA roughly translates into an exterior L_{max} of the same value.[10]

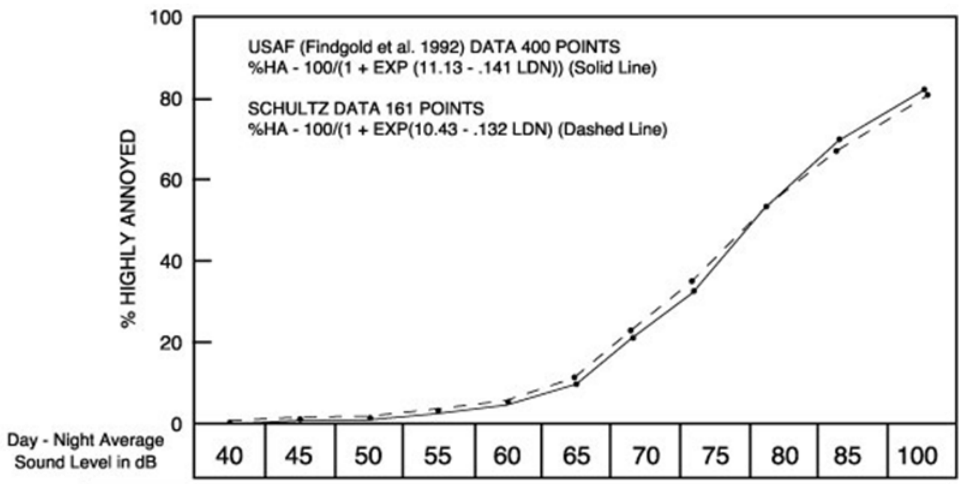
[10] The awakening data presented in Figure 10 apply only to individual noise events. The American National Standards Institute (ANSI) has published a standard that provides a method for estimating the number of people awakened at least once from a full night of noise events: ANSI/ASA S12.9-2008 / Part 6, "Quantities and Procedures for Description and Measurement of Environmental Sound – Part 6: Methods for Estimation of

2.2.3 *Community Annoyance*

Numerous psychoacoustic surveys provide substantial evidence that individual reactions to noise vary widely with noise exposure level. Since the early 1970s, researchers have determined (and subsequently confirmed) that aggregate community response is generally predictable and relates reasonably well to cumulative noise exposure such as DNL. Figure 11 depicts the widely recognized relationship between environmental noise and the percentage of people "highly annoyed," with annoyance being the key indicator of community response usually cited in this body of research.

Figure 11 Percentage of People Highly Annoyed

Source: FICON, "Federal Agency Review of Selected Airport Noise Analysis Issues," September 1992



Calculated %HA Points											
USAF	0.41	0.831	1.66	3.31	6.48	12.29	22.1	36.47	53.74	70.16	82.64
SCHULTZ	0.576	1.11	2.12	4.03	7.52	13.59	23.32	37.05	53.25	68.78	81

2.3 Effects of Distance and Weather

Participants in airport noise studies often express interest in two sound-propagation issues: (1) source-to-listener distance and (2) weather.

2.3.1 *Distance-Related Effects*

People often ask how distance from an aircraft to a listener affects sound levels. Changes in distance may be associated with varying terrain, offsets to the side of a flight path, or aircraft altitude. The answer is a bit complex, because distance affects the propagation of sound in several ways.

The principal effect results from the fact that any emitted sound expands in a spherical fashion – like a balloon – as the distance from the source increases, resulting in the sound energy being spread out over a larger volume. With each doubling of distance, spherical spreading reduces instantaneous or maximum level by approximately six decibels, and SEL by approximately three decibels.

"Atmospheric absorption" is a secondary effect. As an overall example, increasing the aircraft-to-listener distance from 2,000' to 3,000' could produce reductions of about four to five decibels for

Awakenings Associated with Outdoor Noise Events Heard in Homes." This method can use the information on single events computed by a program such as the FAA's Integrated Noise Model, to compute awakenings.

instantaneous or maximum levels, and of about two to four decibels for SEL, under average annual weather conditions around CAK. This absorption effect drops off relatively rapidly with distance. The INM accounts for these reductions.

2.3.2 *Weather-Related Effects*

Weather (or atmospheric) conditions that can influence the propagation of sound include humidity, precipitation, temperature, wind, and turbulence (or gustiness). The effect of wind – turbulence in particular – is generally more important than the effects of other factors. Under calm-wind conditions, the importance of temperature (in particular vertical "gradients") can increase, sometimes to very significant levels. Humidity generally has little significance relative to the other effects.

Influence of Humidity and Precipitation

Humidity and precipitation rarely effect sound propagation in a significant manner. Humidity can reduce propagation of high-frequency noise under calm-wind conditions. In very cold conditions, listeners often observe that aircraft sound "tinny," because the dry air increases the propagation of high-frequency sound. Rain, snow, and fog also have little, if any noticeable effect on sound propagation. A substantial body of empirical data supports these conclusions.[11]

Influence of Temperature

The velocity of sound in the atmosphere is dependent on the air temperature.[12] As a result, if the temperature varies at different heights above the ground, sound will travel in curved paths rather than straight lines. During the day, temperature normally decreases with increasing height. Under such "temperature lapse" conditions, the atmosphere refracts ("bends") sound waves upwards and an acoustical shadow zone may exist at some distance from the noise source.

Under some weather conditions, an upper level of warmer air may trap a lower layer of cool air. Such a "temperature inversion" is most common in the evening, at night, and early in the morning when heat absorbed by the ground during the day radiates into the atmosphere.[13] The effect of an inversion is just the opposite of lapse conditions. It causes sound propagating through the atmosphere to refract downward.

The downward refraction caused by temperature inversions often allows sound rays with originally upward-sloping paths to bypass obstructions and ground effects, increasing noise levels at greater distances. This type of effect is most prevalent at night, when temperature inversions are most common and when wind levels often are very low, limiting any confounding factors.[14] Under extreme conditions, one study found that noise from ground-borne aircraft might be amplified 15 to 20 dB by a temperature inversion. In a similar study, noise caused by an aircraft on the ground registered a higher level at an observer location 1.8 miles away than at a second observer location only 0.2 miles from the aircraft.[15]

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[11]Ingard, Uno. "A Review of the Influence of Meteorological Conditions on Sound Propagation," *Journal of the Acoustical Society of America,* Vol. 25, No. 3, May 1953, p. 407.

[12]In dry air, the approximate velocity of sound can be obtained from the relationship:

$c = 331 + 0.6T_c$ (c in meters per second, T_c in degrees Celsius). Pierce, Allan D., *Acoustics: An Introduction to its Physical Principles and Applications.* McGraw-Hill. 1981. p. 29.

[13]Embleton, T.F.W., G.J. Thiessen, and J.E. Piercy, "Propagation in an inversion and reflections at the ground," *Journal of the Acoustical Society of America,* Vol. 59, No. 2, February 1976, p. 278.

[14]Ingard, p. 407.

[15]Dickinson, P.J., "Temperature Inversion Effects on Aircraft Noise Propagation," (Letters to the Editor) *Journal of Sound and Vibration.* Vol. 47, No. 3, 1976, p. 442.

Influence of Wind

Wind has a strong directional component that can lead to significant variation in propagation. In general, receivers that are downwind of a source will experience higher sound levels, and those that are upwind will experience lower sound levels. Wind perpendicular to the source-to-receiver path has no significant effect.

The refraction caused by wind direction and temperature gradients is additive.[16] One study suggests that for frequencies greater than 500 Hz, the combined effects of these two factors tends towards two extreme values: approximately 0 dB in conditions of downward refraction (temperature inversion or downwind propagation) and -20 dB in upward refraction conditions (temperature lapse or upwind propagation). At lower frequencies, the effects of refraction due to wind and temperature gradients are less pronounced[17].

Wind turbulence (or “gustiness”) can also affect sound propagation. Sound levels heard at remote receiver locations will fluctuate with gustiness. In addition, gustiness can cause considerable attenuation of sound due to effects of eddies traveling with the wind. Attenuation due to eddies is essentially the same in all directions, with or against the flow of the wind, and can mask the refractive effects discussed above.[18]

2.4 Noise / Land Use Compatibility Guidelines

DNL estimates have two principal uses in a Part 150 study:

1. Provide a basis for comparing existing noise conditions to the effects of noise abatement procedures and/or forecast changes in airport activity.
2. Provide a quantitative basis for identifying potential noise impacts.

Both of these functions require the application of objective criteria for evaluating noise impacts. Part 150 Appendix A presents land use compatibility guidelines as a function of DNL values. Table 3 reproduces those guidelines. As stated in the table, FAA considers all land uses compatible outside of 65 DNL.

The Akron-Canton Airport Authority and surrounding land use control jurisdictions adopted the FAA guidelines in both preceding CAK Part 150 studies. Consistent with FAA policy, this study will continue to use those guidelines for determination of land use compatibility in this study.

As noted in item IV.D of the Noise Exposure Map checklist (Table 1), Part 150 requires that Noise Exposure Maps depict the 65, 70, and 75 DNL noise contours. Because of the very limited extent of the outermost of those contours at CAK, figures in this document also include the 60 DNL noise contour, using a dashed line, with the notation “for informational purposes only.” The lead FAA reviewer in the Detroit Airports District Office (ADO) approved this approach.

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[16]Piercy and Embleton, p. 1412. Note, in addition, that because of the scalar nature of temperature and the vector nature of wind, the following is true: under lapse conditions, the refractive effects of wind and temperature add in the upwind direction and cancel each other in the downwind direction. Under inversion conditions, the opposite is true.

[17]Piercy and Embleton, p. 1413.

[18]Ingard, pp. 409-410.

Table 3 Part 150 Airport Noise / Land Use Compatibility Guidelines
Source: Part 150, Appendix A, Table 1

	Yearly Day-Night Average Sound Level, DNL, in Decibels (Key and notes on following page)					
Land Use	<65	65-70	70-75	75-80	80-85	>85
Residential Use						
Residential other than mobile homes and transient lodgings	Y	N(1)	N(1)	N	N	N
Mobile home park	Y	N	N	N	N	N
Transient lodgings	Y	N(1)	N(1)	N(1)	N	N
Public Use						
Schools	Y	N(1)	N(1)	N	N	N
Hospitals and nursing homes	Y	25	30	N	N	N
Churches, auditoriums, and concert halls	Y	25	30	N	N	N
Governmental services	Y	Y	25	30	N	N
Transportation	Y	Y	Y(2)	Y(3)	Y(4)	Y(4)
Parking	Y	Y	Y(2)	Y(3)	Y(4)	N
Commercial Use						
Offices, business and professional	Y	Y	25	30	N	N
Wholesale and retail--building materials, hardware and farm equipment	Y	Y	Y(2)	Y(3)	Y(4)	N
Retail trade--general	Y	Y	Y(2)	Y(3)	Y(4)	N
Utilities	Y	Y	Y(2)	Y(3)	Y(4)	N
Communication	Y	Y	25	30	N	N
Manufacturing and Production						
Manufacturing general	Y	Y	Y(2)	Y(3)	Y(4)	N
Photographic and optical	Y	Y	25	30	N	N
Agriculture (except livestock) and forestry	Y	Y(6)	Y(7)	Y(8)	Y(8)	Y(8)
Livestock farming and breeding	Y	Y(6)	Y(7)	N	N	N
Mining and fishing, resource production and extraction	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Recreational						
Outdoor sports arenas and spectator sports	Y	Y(5)	Y(5)	N	N	N
Outdoor music shells, amphitheaters	Y	N	N	N	N	N
Nature exhibits and zoos	Y	Y	N	N	N	N
Amusements, parks, resorts and camps	Y	Y	Y	N	N	N
Golf courses, riding stables, and water recreation	Y	Y	25	30	N	N

Key to Table 3

SLCUM: Standard Land Use Coding Manual.

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

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

NLR: Noise Level Reduction (outdoor to indoor) to be achieved through incorporation of noise attenuation into the design and construction of the structure.

25, 30, or 35: Land use and related structures generally compatible; measures to achieve NLR of 25, 30, or 35 dBA must be incorporated into design and construction of structure.

Notes for Table 3

The designations contained in this table do not constitute a Federal determination that any use of land covered by the program is acceptable or unacceptable under Federal, State, or local law. The responsibility for determining the acceptable and permissible land uses and the relationship between specific properties and specific noise contours rests with the local authorities. FAA determinations under Part 150 are not intended to substitute federally determined land uses for those determined to be appropriate by local authorities in response to locally determined needs and values in achieving noise compatible land uses.

(1) Where the community determines that residential or school uses must be allowed, measures to achieve outdoor to indoor Noise Level Reduction (NLR) of at least 25 dBA and 30 dBA should be incorporated into building codes and be considered in individual approvals. Normal residential construction can be expected to provide a NLR of 20 dBA, thus, the reduction requirements are often started as 5, 10, or 15 dBA over standard construction and normally assume mechanical ventilation and closed windows year round. However, the use of NLR criteria will not eliminate outdoor noise problems.

(2) Measures to achieve NLR of 25 dBA 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 dBA 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 dBA 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) Land use compatible provided special sound reinforcement systems are installed.

(6) Residential buildings require an NLR of 25.

(7) Residential buildings require an NLR of 30

(8) Residential buildings not permitted.