

- A.27. The 10%ile index, or $L_{A10,T}$ provides a measure of the sound pressure level that is exceeded for 10% of the total measurement period. It therefore represents the typical upper level of sound associated with specific events, such as the passage of vehicles past the measurement point. It is the traditional index adopted for road traffic noise. This index is useful because traffic noise is not usually constant, but rather it fluctuates with time as vehicles drive past the receptor location. The $L_{A10,T}$ therefore characterises the typical level of peaks in the noise as vehicles drive past, rather than the lulls in noise between the vehicles.
- A.28. The $L_{A90,T}$ noise index is the noise level exceeded for 90% of the time period, T. It provides an estimate of the level of continuous background noise, in effect performing the inverse task of the $L_{A10,T}$ index by detecting the lulls between peaks in the noise. It is for this reason that the $L_{A90,T}$ noise index is the favoured unit of measurement for wind farm noise where, for the reasons discussed above, the generally low $L_{Aeq,T}$ noise levels are easily corrupted by intermittent sounds such as those produced by livestock, agricultural vehicles or the occasional passing vehicle on local roads. The $L_{A90,T}$ noise level represents the typical lower level of sound that may be reasonably expected to be present for the majority (90%) of the time in any given environment. This is usually referred to as the 'background' noise level.

Temporal variations outside the noise index averaging periods, 'T'

- A.29. Averaging noise levels over the time period 'T' of the $L_{Aeq,T}$ and $L_{An,T}$ noise indices can successfully account for variations in noise over the time period, T. Some variations, however, exhibit trends over longer periods. At larger distances from noise sources meteorological factors can significantly affect received noise levels. At a few hundred metres from a constant level source of noise the potential variation in noise levels may be greater than 15 dB(A). To account for this variability consideration must be taken of meteorological conditions, particularly wind direction, when measurements and predictions are undertaken. As a general rule, when compared with the received noise level under neutral wind conditions, wind blowing from the source to the receiver can slightly enhance the noise level at the receiver (typically by no more than 3 dB(A)), but wind blowing from the receiver to the source can very significantly reduce the noise level at the receiver (typically by 15 dB(A) or more).
- A.30. A similar effect occurs under conditions of temperature inversion, such as may exist after sunset when radiative cooling from the ground lowers the temperature of the air lying at low level more quickly than the air at higher levels, by loss of temperature through convective effects. This results in the air temperature increasing with increasing height above the ground. Depending on the source to receiver distance relative to the heights of the source and receiver, this situation can lead to sound waves becoming 'trapped' in the layer of air lying closest to the ground. The consequence is that noise levels at receptor locations can increase relative to those experienced under conditions of a neutral temperature gradient or a temperature lapse. The maximum increases compared to neutral conditions are similar to those experienced under downwind conditions of no more than around 3 dB(A). It is also worth noting that temperature lapse conditions, which is the more usual situation where temperature decreases with increasing height, can result in reductions in noise level at receptor locations by 15 dB(A) or more compared with the neutral conditions. The similarity between the magnitude of potential variations in noise levels for wind induced and temperature induced effects is not surprising, as the physical mechanisms behind the variations in level are the same for both situations: both variations result from changes in the speed of sound as a function of height above local ground level.
- A.31. Temperature inversions on very still days can also affect noise propagation over much larger distances of several kilometres. These effects can produce higher than expected noise levels even at these very large distances from the source. A classic example that many people have experienced is the distant, usually inaudible, railway train that suddenly sounds like it is passing within a few hundred metres of a dwelling. However, these situations must generally be considered as rare exceptions to the usually encountered range of noise propagation conditions, especially in the case of wind farm noise as they rely on calm wind conditions under which wind turbines do not operate.

Effects of sound on people

- A.32. Except at very high peak acoustic pressures, the energy levels in most environmental sounds are too low to cause any physical disruption in any part of the body, just as they are too low to cause any direct physical damage to the environment. The main effects of environmental sound on people are therefore limited to possible interference with specific activities or to some kind of annoyance response. Some researchers have claimed statistical associations between environmental noise and various long term health effects such as clinical hypertension or mental health problems, although there is no consensus on possible causative mechanisms. Evidence in support of health effects other than annoyance and some indicators of sleep disturbance is weak. However, the theory that psychological stress caused by annoyance might contribute to adverse health effects in otherwise susceptible individuals seems plausible. Health effects in the 'more usual' definition of physiological health therefore remain as a theoretical possibility which has neither been proved nor disproved. However, the World Health Organisation (WHO) defines health in the wider context of:

'a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of infirmity'.

And within this wider context potential health effects of environmental noise are summarised by the World Health Organisation as:

- interference with speech communications;
- sleep disturbance;
- disturbance of concentration;
- annoyance; and
- social and economic effects.

Speech interference

- A.33. The instantaneous masking effects of unwanted noise on speech communication can be predicted with some accuracy by using specialist methods of calculation, but the overall effect of a small amount of speech interference on everyday life is harder to judge. The significance of speech masking depends on the context in which it occurs. For example, isolated noise events could interfere with telephone conversations by masking out particular words or parts of words but, because of the high redundancy in normal speech, the masking of individual words can often have no significant effect on the intelligibility of the overall message. Notwithstanding the above, noise levels from wind farms at even the closest located dwellings in otherwise quiet environments are usually no more than around 30 dB(A) indoors, even with windows open. This internal noise level is 5 dB(A) below the 35 dB(A) suggested by the World Health Organisation as the lowest potential cut-on level for issues relating to speech intelligibility.

Sleep disturbance

- A.34. Although sleep seems to be a fundamental requirement for humans, the most significant effect of sleep loss seems to be increased sleepiness the next day. Sleep normally follows a regular cyclic pattern from awake through light sleep to deep sleep and back, this cycle repeating several times during the night at around 90 minute intervals. Most people wake for short periods several times every night as part of the normal sleep cycle without necessarily being aware of this the next day. REM, or rapid eye movement, sleep is associated with dreaming and occurs several times each night during the lighter sleep stages.
- A.35. Electroencephalography (EEG) and similar techniques can be used to detect transient physiological responses to noise at night. Transient responses can be detected by short bursts of activity in the recorded waveforms which often settle back down to the same pattern as immediately before the event. Sometimes a transient response will be the precursor of a definite lightening of sleep, or even of an awakening, but often no discernible physical event happens at all.

- A.36. These results suggest that at least parts of the auditory system remain fully operational even while the listener is asleep. The main purpose of this seems to be to arouse the listener in case of danger or in case some particular action is required which cannot easily be accomplished whilst remaining asleep. On the other hand, the system appears to be designed to filter out familiar sounds which experience suggests do not require any action. A very loud sound is likely to overcome the filtering mechanism and wake the listener, while intermediate and quieter sounds might only wake a listener who has a particular focus on those specific sounds. There is no evidence that the transient physiological responses to noise whilst asleep are anything other than normal. There is also considerable anecdotal evidence that people habituate to familiar noise at night, although some of the research evidence on this point is contradictory.
- A.37. There is no consensus on how much sleep disturbance is significant. Some authorities take a precautionary approach, under which any kind of physiological response to noise is considered important, irrespective of whether there are any next day effects or not. Other studies suggest that transient physiological responses to unfamiliar stimuli at night are merely an indication of normal function and do not need to be considered as adverse effects unless they contribute to significant next-day effects. Recent World Health Organisation guidelines based mainly on laboratory studies suggest indoor limit values of 30 dB L_{Aeq} and 45 dB $L_{A_{fmax}}$ to avoid sleep disturbance, while other studies carried out in-situ, where habituation to the noise in question may have occurred, have found that much higher levels can be tolerated without any noticeable ill-effects.

Noise annoyance

- A.38. Noise annoyance describes the degree of ‘unwantedness’ of a particular sound in a particular situation. People’s subjective response to noise can vary from not being bothered at all, through a state of becoming aware of the noise, right through to the point of becoming annoyed by the noise when it reaches a sufficiently high level. There is no statutory definition of noise annoyance.
- A.39. Numerous noise annoyance surveys carried out over the last three decades have attempted to establish engineering relationships between the amount of noise measured objectively using sound level meters and the amount of community annoyance determined from questionnaires. The chief outcome of ‘reported annoyance’ has been measured using a very large range of different ideas. Both the wording of any questionnaire used and the context in which the question is put, and the manner in which it is therefore interpreted by respondents, can be very important. Some researchers are developing standardised questionnaire formats to encourage greater comparability between different studies, but this does not address the possibility of different contextual effects.
- A.40. Notwithstanding these problems, there is a general consensus that average reported annoyance increases with aggregate noise level in long term static situations. However, there has been comparatively little research and consequently no real agreement on the effects of change. Some studies have found that even small changes in noise level can have unexpectedly large consequences on reported annoyance, while others have found the opposite. The most likely explanation for these apparent discrepancies is that underlying or true annoyance depends on many non-acoustic factors in addition to noise level alone, and that the extent to which reported annoyance actually represents underlying annoyance can be highly dependent on context. As a consequence, attempts to find a common relationship across all noise sources and listening situations have generally floundered. This task has been complicated by the great range of individual sensitivities to noise observed in the surveys, often affected as much by attitude as by noise level.
- A.41. Whether or not an exposed individual has a personal interest in a given sound often has a significant bearing on their acceptance of it. For example, if recipients gain benefit from an association with the sound producer, or if they accept that the sound is necessary and largely unavoidable, then they are likely to be more tolerant of it. This is often the case even if they don’t necessarily consider it desirable. A good example of this is road traffic noise which is the dominant noise heard by over 90% of the population but results in relatively few complaints.

- A.42. Notwithstanding the fact that attitudes may be as important as overall levels in determining the acceptance of a particular noise, there still remains a need to objectively quantify any changes in noise level. Whilst it may not be possible to attribute a particular degree of annoyance to a given noise level, an objective measure of noise that bears some relationship to annoyance is still useful. This objective measure enables an assessment of the effect of changes to be assessed on the basis that any reduction in overall noise level must be beneficial. Possible noise mitigation measures form a central consideration of any noise assessment, so an appropriate methodology must be adopted for assessing the effectiveness of any noise mitigation measures adopted.
- A.43. When assessing the potential effects of any new source of noise, it is common practice to compare the A-weighted ‘specific’ noise level produced by the new source (usually measured using the $L_{Aeq,T}$ index) against the existing A-weighted ‘background’ noise level measured using the $L_{A90,T}$ index, as this is the typical level of noise that can be reasonably expected to be present the majority of the time to potentially ‘mask’ the new ‘specific’ noise. The assessment is therefore undertaken within the context of the existing noise environment. In some circumstances, it may prove equally instructive to compare the absolute level of a new specific noise against accepted absolute levels defined in standards or other relevant documents. The assessment is therefore undertaken against benchmark values, rather than against the context of the existing noise environment. Whatever approach is actually adopted for final assessment purposes, and often a combination of the two approaches is appropriate, it is important that the relevance of both contextual and benchmark assessments is at least considered in all cases.
- A.44. Table 4.1 of the 2000 WHO Guidelines for Community Noise presents guideline benchmark values for environmental noise levels in specific environments. The noise levels relevant to residential dwellings are listed here in Table A1.

Table A1 Relevant extracts from ‘Table 4.1 - Guideline Values for Community Noise in Specific Environments’

Specific Environment	Critical Health Effects	$L_{Aeq,T}$	Time base (hrs)	L_{Amax} (dB)
Outdoor living area	Serious annoyance, day time and evening	55	16	-
	Moderate annoyance, day time and evening	50	16	-
Dwelling, indoors	Speech intelligibility and moderate annoyance, day time and evening	35	16	-
	Sleep disturbance, night time	30	8	45
Outside bedrooms	Sleep disturbance, window open (outdoors)	45	8	60
School class rooms (included for potential effects on concentration)	Speech intelligibility, disturbance of information extraction, message communication	35	-	-

- A.45. The text accompanying the Table in the WHO Guidelines explains that the levels given in the Table are set at the lowest levels at which the onset of any adverse health due to exposure to noise has been identified. The text continues:
- ‘These are essentially values for the onset of health effects from noise exposure. It would have been preferred to establish guidelines for exposure-response relationships. Such relationships would indicate the effects to be expected if standards were set above the WHO guideline values and would facilitate the setting of standards for sound pressure levels (noise immission standards)’.*
- A.46. More recently, Environmental Noise Guidelines for the European Region (2018) were published and include general recommendations for wind turbine noise. However, they are designed to inform policy on noise, at the population and strategic level. They are based on the L_{den} noise indicator,