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Jeong, Cheol-Ho; Jakobsen, Hannah C.W.

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Cheol-Ho Jeong, Hannah C.W. Jakobsen



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3
4
5 Influence of architectural layouts on noise levels in Danish emergency departments

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7 Cheol-Ho Jeong^{a)} and Hannah C.W. Jakobsen

8
9 *Acoustic Technology, Department of Electrical Engineering,*

10 *Technical University of Denmark, 2800 Kongens Lyngby, Denmark*

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13 ^{a)} Corresponding author: *chj@elektro.dtu.dk*

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Abstract

This study aims to evaluate the effects of architectural layouts of emergency departments on activity patterns/work routines and consequent noise levels. Three Danish hospitals' emergency departments that had different layouts were investigated via on-site noise measurements over three days and observations of noisy activities. The time-averaged noise levels in the three emergency departments turned out to be significantly different, ranging from 50 to 59 dBA. During the observation of noisy activities, the noise levels and occurrences of individual activities were noted and correlated with the long-term measurements. Major noise sources that have high correlations with the three-day noise levels are identified as loud staff communication and noise from alarms/electronic devices. Potential remedies are suggested in connection to the emergency departments' architectural layouts. Especially unnecessarily loud communication between medical staff and loud and frequent equipment/patient transportation noise need to be improved for more comfortable acoustic environments.

Keywords: Architectural layout, hospital emergency department, noise level, work patterns, communication noise

30 **1. Introduction**

31 Florence Nightingale pointed out that all unnecessary noise in hospitals was harmful in the following
32 quote “Unnecessary noise is the most cruel absence of care which can be inflicted on either sick or
33 well,” in her book “Notes on Nursing” published in 1859 [1]. The noise levels measured in hospitals
34 are, unanimously agreed by all, not satisfactory, for example, Refs. [2-7]. They largely violate the
35 current noise limit recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO), namely 35 dBA [8].
36 From the previous noise measurements, it is clearly concluded that hospitals are unacceptably loud
37 and chaotic, with an increasing trend in the noise level from 1960 to 2005 [2]. Poor room acoustics
38 and loud noise negatively affect medical staff in terms of speech communication, job demands,
39 fatigue, stress, burn-out, and hearing loss [9,10]. Unpredictable loud noises can distract staff, interrupt
40 their performance, and increase medical dispensing errors particularly for complicated tasks [11,12].
41 The negative effects of noise are also well documented in association with a parent’s comfort,
42 recovery and sleep quality. [13,14,15] However, no previous work has discussed how much noise was
43 inevitable and how much was unnecessary, which is indeed a very challenging question to answer and
44 could also be highly case-dependent.

45 Dominating noise sources in hospitals are not only related to building operations but also to building
46 occupants, such as conversations, medical activities, transportation of medical equipment and patients
47 [16]. In an attempt to understand which noise sources could potentially be avoided and which range of
48 noise levels is realistically achievable with current state-of-the-art technologies, we aim to conduct
49 analyses of individual activities and work patterns in connection to the architectural design of
50 hospitals, thus gaining insight into which noise sources could be controlled without compromising the
51 quality of patient care. To the best of the authors’ knowledge, only a few studies have correlated
52 objective acoustics parameters and architectural layouts in hospitals [16-18]. Particularly Ocku et al.
53 tried to link the floor layout designs to the reverberation times [18], but did not look into a correlation
54 with noise metrics.

55 In this study, we measured the noise levels in three hospital emergency departments (EDs) that had
56 quite different architectural layouts. Via an observation study of the activities in the EDs, we aimed to

57 find out the noisy activities that contribute significantly to the total noise level and correlations
58 between the noise levels of individual activities and long-term noise measurements. The final
59 objective was to suggest useful guidelines to reduce unnecessary noise in the ED and to provide
60 insights on good architectural designs. Unfortunately, we could not get a permission for room
61 acoustics measurements and collecting subjective perception from hospital staff and patients, so
62 instead we used the objective measures that have been proved to have a good correlation with staff
63 and patient's perception of soundscape in hospitals. The contributions of this study are three-folds: (1)
64 to categorize the loud noise activities in the ED and present their noise levels, (2) to correlate
65 individual sources' noise level with the long-term noise measurements, and (3) to suggest useful
66 design guidelines that help decrease the noise levels in relation to the architectural layout of the
67 emergency department.

68

69 2. Three emergency departments

70 An ED in Denmark normally consists of emergency treatment rooms (ER), a triage (TRI), and a bed
71 unit (BU). ER is a room for minor or less critical cases, where patients are typically examined, treated,
72 and usually sent home afterwards. According to a medical doctor Marie-Laure B. Jacobsson
73 (Sjællands universitetshospital, Køge), approximately four patients pass through here per hour on
74 average. TRI is a room for more serious problems and thorough examinations. Afterwards, patients
75 are either sent to another department of the hospital or receive proper treatments and are then sent
76 home. The average duration of the stay in TRI is six hours according to Dr. Jacobsson. BU is a room
77 for patients in need of intensive care and under observation. The patient stays in BU for a longer time.
78 In this study, only one sound level meter was permitted for noise measurements, which was located at
79 a safe location in the TRI areas in all three hospitals. Therefore, all measured noise levels only
80 represent the sound environment in the TRI.

81 2.1. Hospital A

82 Layout: In Hospital A, the three branches of the emergency department, namely ER, TRI, and BU,
83 were physically separated. ER was separately located in an adjacent part of the building and BU was
84 also fairly secluded and not shown in Fig. 1(a). Between these two sections, the reception was located

85 together with the staffs' main organizational workstation marked as "Office area" in Fig. 1(a). TRI
86 was located along the hallway with exits to the other parts of the hospital.

87 **Noise consequences:** It was noticed that TRI was the main section of loud activities, which spread
88 noise widely. The entrance hall reserved for ambulance arrivals was noisy. At this central intersection,
89 an alarm phone as well as a printer room were placed next to the office. A sound level meter was
90 placed at this intersection, shown as a solid circle in Fig. 1(a). Patients were located in the ward along
91 the TRI hallway and some areas in the hallway were used for bedridden patients as well. The lengths
92 of the triage hallways were about 15 meters, enabling medical staff to communicate with raised voice
93 from one end to the other.

94 2.2. Hospital B

95 **Layout:** Hospital B had the three main functions of the department separated as well. ER and BU
96 were located outside the main TRI room. At the time of this observational study and noise
97 measurement (April 2019), Hospital B just introduced this new triage, which was basically one big
98 room containing 12 beds and a centrally located office area, as shown in Fig. 1(b). The beds were
99 separated by protruding walls. If stricter privacy was needed, moveable room separators were
100 additionally used. A computer was located just next to each bed to minimize the need for back and
101 forth communication with the central office area.

102 **Noise consequences:** It was noticed that most activities could be heard by all individuals in the room
103 as a consequence of one big open space. If one part of the room was noisy, such as coughing, noise
104 coming from medical devices like respirators, the whole TRI became noisy. Moreover, the
105 transportation setup contributed to increases in the noise level. Ambulance staff entered from the left
106 door with patients and exited to the same door again. If patients were being transferred to another
107 department, they left out of the right exit. Through this exit door, clean beds were transported to
108 replace used ones. This created a lot of loud transportation noise, which affected everyone in TRI.

109

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112

113

114 Figure 1. Three emergency departments. (a) Hospital A, (b) Hospital B, (c) Hospital C. The sound
115 level meter location is indicated as a red solid circle and transportation paths are indicated with arrows.

116

(color online)

117 2.3. Hospital C

118 **Layout:** Hospital C had three branches of the emergency department widely spread as shown in Fig.
119 1(c). Through the official entrance, the waiting room was located, which was directly connected to the
120 reception. The rest of the ward was a relatively open space, moderately separated by glass walls. ER
121 was located at the left end with an exit to the rest of the hospital. The other end of the hallway, where
122 the patients arrived by ambulances, was the TRI section, where more acute patients were treated. In
123 between ER and TRI hallway, there were separate rooms, such as an office for medical staff and a
124 printer room.

125 **Noise consequences:** The three main functions were well separated, ending up with less interactions
126 and reduced noise. This excessively long distance of the hallway (42 meters) prohibited from a loud
127 communication style, such as yelling. However, this long distance might affect other aspects of the
128 staffs' daily work routine negatively.

129

130 3. Observation study

131 This observation study was intended to identify loud noisy activities and how frequently they occur,
132 and how loud such individual noise events could be. We installed a class-1 sound level meter (Fusion,
133 01 dB) at a secure place and monitored the sound pressure level real-time on the mobile phone via a
134 3G data modem. The sound level meter was located close to a reflecting surface in all three hospitals
135 for consistency, and therefore the effects of sound reflection on the noise measurement were supposed
136 to be similar. The most important consideration in determining the measurement spot was security and
137 safety of the sound level meter, meaning that nobody accidentally touched or stopped it by any means.
138 Prioritizing the security of the sound level meter, the height of the sound level meter location varied
139 from 1.5 m to 2.5 m. For this observation study, the second author stayed close to the sound level
140 meter (about 1.5 m apart from the sound level meter) in TRI and observed loud and peculiar noise
141 sources. Once a noise event was noticed, its noise type, the starting and ending time were noted, and
142 later the corresponding equivalent noise level for each incident was calculated using logged sound
143 pressure levels. Note that the identified noise incidents lasted for different time durations, and

144 therefore the time information was used to quantify the sound exposure together with the equivalent
145 noise level.

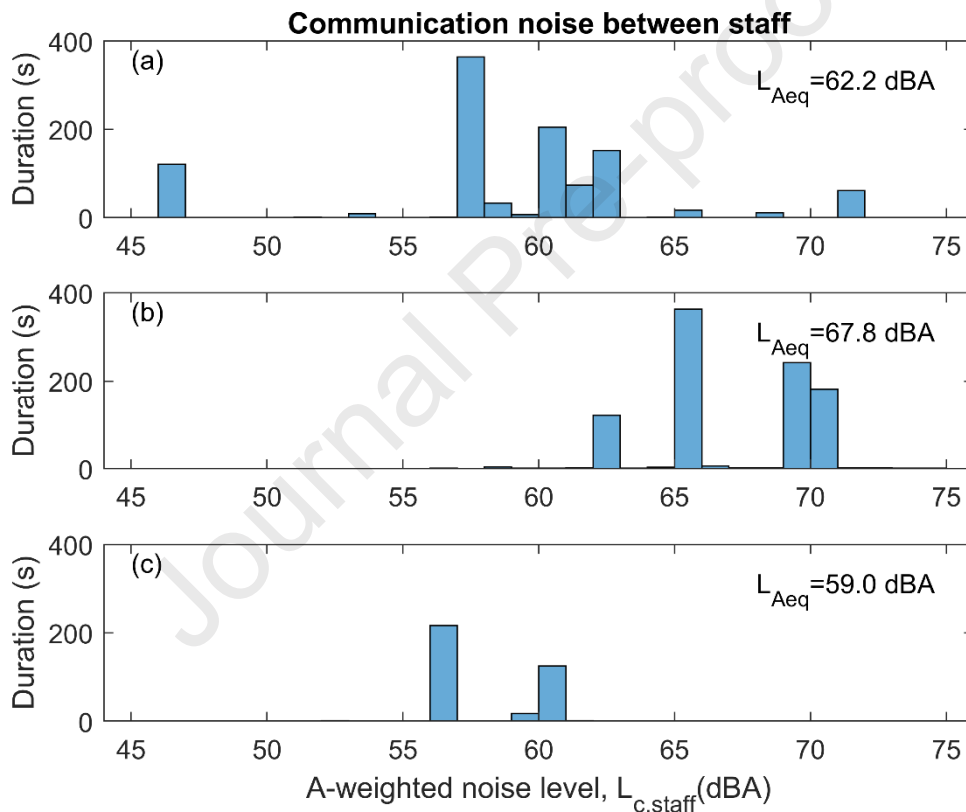
146 Previous research has used various noise metrics. It has been widely accepted to use the overall noise
147 levels [16], i.e., noise levels containing all audible frequency contents from the 1/3 octave bands
148 centered from 20 Hz to 20 kHz. The A-weighting network is the most suitable to approximate the
149 frequency selectivity of the human auditory system, particularly for rather quiet sound around 40 dB
150 [8]. Different indicators, such as equivalent, minimum, maximum, peak noise levels, have commonly
151 been used in hospital noise measurements [8,19]. In this study, most noise levels are presented using
152 the equivalent A-weighted noise levels. The observation in each TRI sections lasted about 3.5 hours.

153 3.1. Communication noise

154 Clear communication between staff is absolutely crucial, but the way it is conducted significantly
155 affects the sound environment. Particularly in the three EDs measured, we found significantly
156 different communication patterns. In general, many staff conversations were unnecessarily loud. In
157 Hospital A, conversations with raised voice across the rooms and hallway were found to increase the
158 noise level. In addition, personal conversations between staff increased the noise level. The noise
159 level distributions are shown in Fig. 2. In Hospital A, raised communication noise between staff along
160 the hallway was found to be the major problem, while in Hospital B the open structure of the TRI
161 made all communication loud everywhere. The A-weighted equivalent noise levels ($L_{Aeq,T}$) over a time
162 duration T is expressed as follows:

—

171 summarizes the equivalent noise level, the occurrence of noise events, and total duration of identified
 172 noise events during the observation study in the hospitals.
 173 According to the WHO community noise guideline [8], the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) should be at
 174 least 15 dB when listening to complicated messages. In Sec.4, the background noise level in Hospital
 175 A, B, and C, from the long-term measurements were found to be 49.0, 53.5, and 44.5 dBA,
 176 respectively, and therefore the SNRs for the staff communication in Hospital A, B, and C ranged 13,
 177 15, and 14 dB respectively. This concurred with the suggested 15 dB SNR in the WHO guideline
 178 surprisingly well [8].



179

180 Figure 2. Histogram of staff communication noise. (a) Hospital A, (b) Hospital B, (c) Hospital C.

181

(single column, color online)

182

183 Another important type of communication is communication between the staff and patients, of which
184 the noise level, $L_{c,staff-patient}$, is largely affected by the communication style and acoustical factors, such
185 as room acoustics and background noise. A similar noise trend to the staff communication was found
186 in this type of communication in Fig. 3 and the resulting equivalent noise levels were 61.3, 69.1, and
187 59.9 dBA in Hospital A, B, and C, respectively. The noise level at Hospital C was the lowest, being 5
188 dBA and 9 dBA lower than Hospital A and B, respectively. In terms of the SEL, Hospital C was about
189 6 dBA and 7 dBA quieter than Hospital A and B, respectively.

190

191 Figure 3. Histogram of Staff-patient communication noise. (a) Hospital A, (b) Hospital B, (c) Hospital
192 C. (single column, color online)

193

194 3.2. Transportation noise

195 Medical activities are inevitable and must be prioritized, but transportation activities and non-medical
196 activities could be minimized or optimized. The main transportation noise was associated with bed
197 transportation with and without patients, but also related to food and test transportation.

198 In Fig. 4, the noise levels caused by transportation of patients, $L_{t,\text{patient}}$, are shown. Hospital A had
199 many transportation incidents ($N=24$) with relatively long duration per incident (L_{Aeq} of 59.9 dBA).
200 Hospital B did not have many incidents ($N=13$) yet with high noise levels due to its open space nature
201 (L_{Aeq} of 67.6 dBA). Hospital C had a small number of transportation with low noise levels (L_{Aeq} of
202 59.1 dBA). In terms of sound exposure, the noise levels in Hospital A and B were 9 and 10 dBA
203 higher than that in Hospital C.

204

205 Figure 4. Histogram of patient transportation noise. (a) Hospital A, (b) Hospital B, (c) Hospital C.

206 (single column, color online)

207 The patients arriving by ambulance are brought in by paramedics, who did not spend as much time as
208 the hospital staff. During the observations, it was evident that a lot of the transportation related to
209 ambulance arrival or departure were quite noisy mainly because of the paramedics. Therefore, the
210 paramedics should make efforts to bring down the noise caused by them. This was particularly
211 pronounced in Hospital A and B, whereas the problem was less significant in Hospital C, partly
212 because the ambulance staff entered via a secluded entrance. The location of the central entrance for
213 bedridden patients arriving by ambulance led to more frequent noise in Hospital A than Hospital B,

214 where the patients arrived and left at different exits according to their symptoms and mostly remained
215 in their respective sections. This makes the noise exposure in Hospital C about 10 dBA lower than
216 those in Hospital A and B.

217 On the other hand, the transportation noise, which did not involve patients, $L_{t,non-patient}$ is shown in Fig.
218 5. Hospital C had the most incidents of transportation without patients, which might be attributed to
219 the longest hallway as shown in Fig. 1(c). Especially the noise of trolleys was noticeable in this
220 category, although most of them were quieter than the incidents observed in Hospital B in this
221 category. In terms of sound exposure, the noise levels in Hospital A was the lowest, being about 8 and
222 7 dBA lower than those in Hospital B and C, respectively.

223

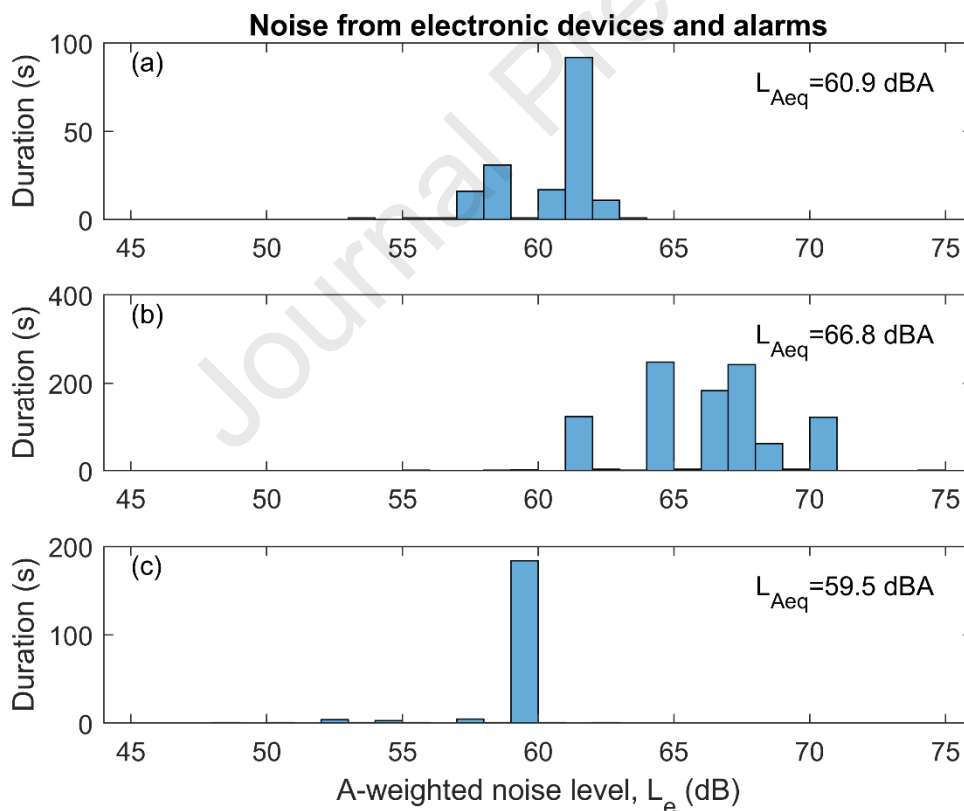
224 Figure 5. Histogram of non-patient transportation noise. (a) Hospital A, (b) Hospital B, (c) Hospital C.

225 (single column, color online)

226

227 3.3. Noise from electronic devices and alarms

228 Another noise category is sound events caused by alarms and electronic devices, e.g., phone rings and
 229 printers. There have been a series of studies that claimed that hospital alarms and electronic devices
 230 were unnecessarily loud, for example, Ref. [22]. In Fig. 6, the noise distribution of electronic devices
 231 and alarms is shown. Hospital B had a lot of phone ringing and Hospital C had quite some noise
 232 incidents of printer working noise near the reception, which could have been moved to another place
 233 to reduce the noise impact. Hospital C had the centrally located reception, where many conversations
 234 and phone calls were audible, but with relatively low noise levels. Hospital A and C had equivalent
 235 noise levels of 60.9 and 59.5 dBA, while the equivalent noise level in Hospital B was 66.8 dBA. In
 236 terms of sound exposure, the noise level in Hospital B was 13 dBA higher than that in Hospital A and
 237 14 dBA higher than in Hospital C.



238

239 Figure 6. Histogram of electronics and alarm noise. (a) Hospital A, (b) Hospital B, (c) Hospital C.

240

(single column, color online)

241

242

243 *3.4. Noise from non-medical activities*

244 The non-medical activity noise includes noise from door slamming, item dropping, and footsteps,
245 some of which are related to highly stressful situations during critical medical activities. This type of
246 noise is regarded to occur randomly and irregularly, but in Hospital B, about 30% of the incidents was
247 related to rustling of room separators. Hospital A was quietest (58.9 dBA), while Hospital B and C
248 had noise levels 6 and 1 dBA higher than that in Hospital A, respectively, in terms of sound exposure.

249

250 Figure 7. Histogram of non-medical activity noise. (a) Hospital A, (b) Hospital B, (c) Hospital C.

251

(single column, color online)

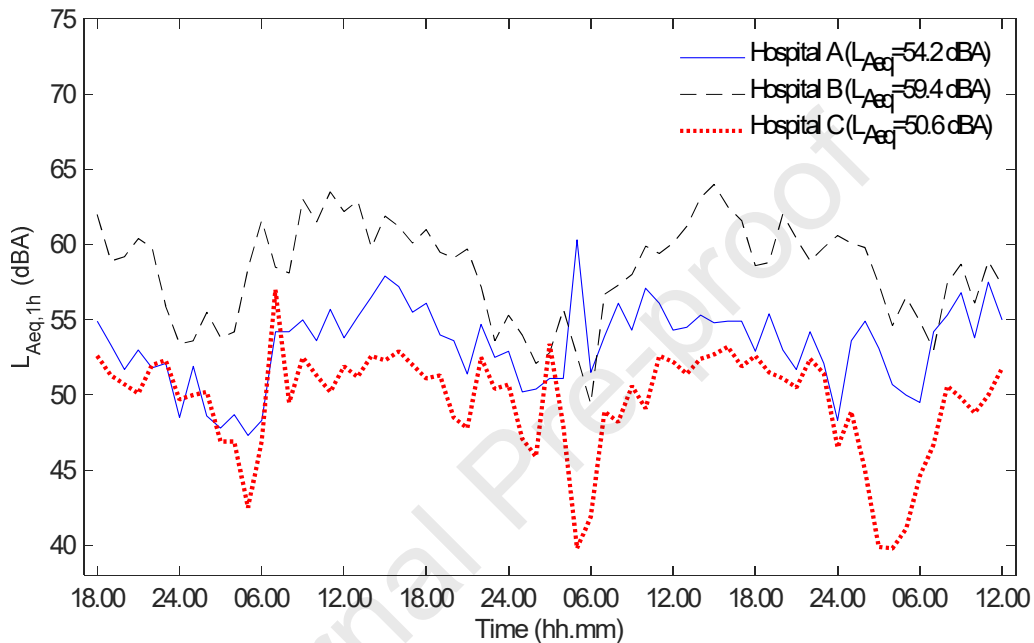
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253

254 Table 1. Summary of the equivalent noise level ($L_{Aeq,T}$) in dBA, number of noise incidents (N), and
255 total duration of noise incidents in second (T) for the noise sources identified in the hospitals.

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272 level by 9 dB is equivalent to an increases of the number of events by a factor of 7.9. Therefore, the
 273 noise level increase of 9 dB cannot be explained solely by the number of the visitors during the noise
 274 measurement, which supports our hypothesis that work routines and the architectural layout in the ED
 275 affect the sound environment. It is also evident in Fig. 8 that the background noise level during the
 276 measurement was quite different in the hospitals measured.



277

278 Figure 8. Measured noise levels over 66 hours in three hospitals. (single column, color online)

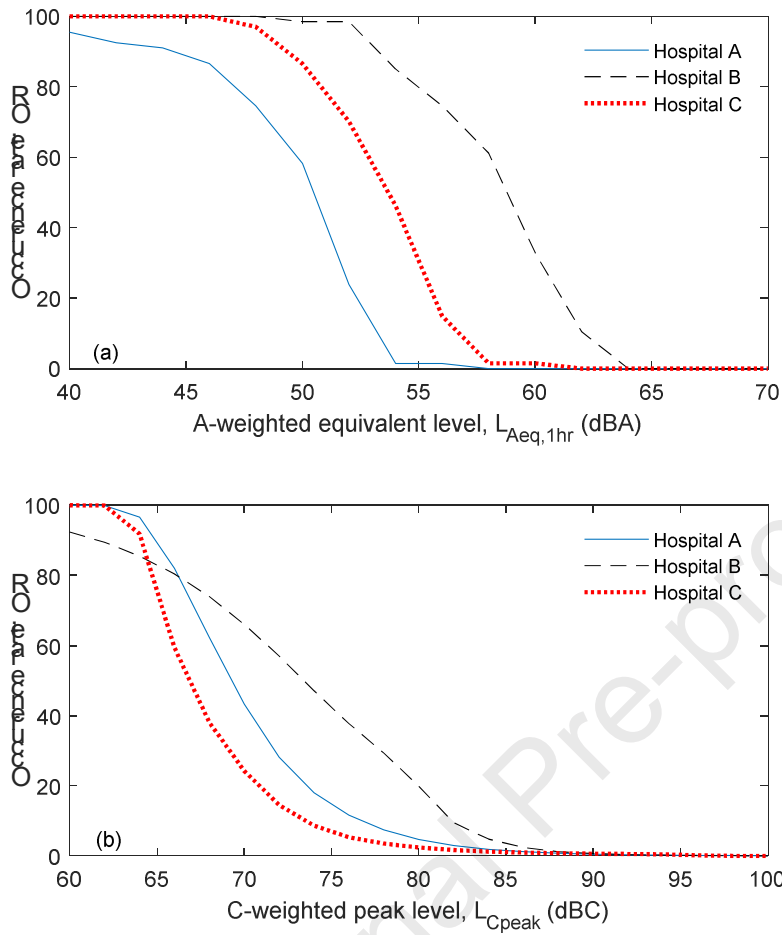
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280 In Fig. 9, the occurrence rate, $OR(N)$, which is defined as the fraction of time that a level exceeds N
 281 decibels [16], is shown using the A-weighted equivalent noise level and C-weighted peak level. From
 282 Fig. 9(a) using the A-weighted equivalent level, we could estimate the background noise level based
 283 on the concept of L_{90} , the percentile noise level exceeded for 90% of the time of the measurement
 284 duration [24]. In the hospital context, this background noise level is likely to represent the noise level
 285 with no or quiet medical treatment and staff's communication. In Fig. 9(a), L_{90} was found in each
 286 hospital by drawing a horizontal line from the OR value of 90%, ending up with quite different
 287 background levels of 49.0, 53.5, and 44.5 dBA in Hospital A, B, and C, respectively. It is already
 288 clear that even the background noise alone cannot fulfil the stringent WHO guideline of 35 dBA [8].

289 $OR(N)$ using the peak levels, $OR(N)_{peak}$, has been used in several recent studies, concluding that
290 $OR(90)_{peak}$ was strongly related to subjective perception of staff [19] and $OR(75)_{peak}$ to the patient
291 satisfaction [20]. Shibi et. al. also concluded that the $OR(100)_{peak}$ was strongly correlated with the
292 staff perception of noise-related health effects, such as distraction, stress, fatigue, and tension
293 headaches [21]. In this study, we could not collect subjective evaluations from staff and patients, and
294 instead used $OR(N)_{peak}$ in Fig. 9(b) to evaluate the staff and patients' perception of the hospital noise.
295 From Fig. 9(b), $OR(75)_{peak}$ values were 14%, 42%, and 7% in Hospital A, B, and C, respectively.
296 Therefore, it is likely that the patient satisfaction varied significantly based on the conclusion in Ref.
297 [20]. However, $OR(90)_{peak}$ values are similarly small as 0.49 %, 0.64 %, 0.62%, respectively, and
298 therefore the staff could not experience huge differences. Again, $OR(100)_{peak}$ values are all below
299 0.001%, so it is unlikely to impact the staff's subjective perception. All in all, Hospital B seemed to
300 have the most demanding noise condition, particularly for patients.

301 Using the noise levels from the individual noise sources from Sec. 3, a correlation analysis [25] was
302 made in Table 2. There are strong correlations between the total noise level, L_{total} , and the two noise
303 sources, namely, staff communication and electronic and alarm noise ($L_{c,staff}$ and L_e). The
304 transportation without patients has the weakest correlation with the 3-day-long noise levels in the
305 three hospitals, indicating that it is unlikely to be seen as a major noise source, either having low noise
306 levels or relatively low frequency of occurrence.

307



308

309 Figure 9. Occurrence rate (OR) curves in the three hospitals. (a) L_{Aeq} and (b) L_{Cpeak} . (single column,
 310 color online)

311

312 Table 2. Pearson correlation coefficients among L_{total} , $L_{c,staff}$, $L_{c,staff-patient}$, $L_{t,patient}$, $L_{t,non-patient}$, L_e , L_{act} ,
 313 indicating the strength of the linear dependence between the pairs of variables. Correlation
 314 coefficients larger than 0.9 are indicated in bold.

316 **5. Discussions and suggestions to reduce noise level**

317 **Hospital A:** Patients' consultations in the triage hallway and the communication style between the
318 staff led to a high noise level. Consultations were preferably moved to closed rooms for reducing
319 noise as well as privacy purposes. Noise of alarm beeping and noise from the administrative office
320 area were identified as problematic and partly unnecessary. Another subjectively found prominent
321 noise source was the footwear of the staff members. Many wore flip-flops or clogs without heel straps
322 causing slapping noise for every step. The doors of the wardrooms slammed occasionally, so soft
323 close dampers would be recommendable.

324 **Hospital B:** There was a continuous noise from respirators over the majority of the observation time
325 and noise measurement, which significantly elevated the background noise in the ward. Phone
326 conversations were often overly loud. Additionally, the chairs for visitors placed at the bottom of each
327 bed could be moved to the head end of the bed, as people raised their voice due to the long distance
328 from the chair to the patient. The footstep noise was also loud here. It should be noted that the new
329 triage was introduced one day before the noise measurements and observation were conducted. As a
330 result, the staff was not accustomed to the new environment, which might have influenced the noise
331 level negatively, as they were still in an adaptation process.

332 **Hospital C:** The centrally-located reception could have been moved to a closed room to minimize the
333 noise spread and to protect the patients' privacy. The waiting room could also be secluded from the
334 rest of the ward. Electronic devices such as printers could have been moved to another closed or
335 secluded location.

336

337 In general, we could suggest that ER needs be detached from TRI, or remotely situated and isolated as
338 much as possible to minimize noise spread between ER and TRI. Small and separate patient rooms are
339 preferred to avoid loud communication across rooms or hallways in terms of noise, but there are other
340 reasons. A previous noise study in a Korean hospital highlighted that when the TRI was well
341 separated from small ERs containing up to six beds after the outbreak of Middle East respiratory
342 syndrome (MERS), a huge reduction of noise due to the change of the layout was reported by medical
343 staff [7]. Therefore, such separated layouts are proven to be beneficial not only in terms of noise, but

344 also in terms of spread of contagious diseases. In addition to the separation of rooms, the doors can be
345 either sliding or softly closing to reduce the noise. Automatically closing doors can block the noise
346 transmission from one room to another effectively.

347 Separate entrances for specific purposes could help, as the noise emanating from the patients' arrival
348 by ambulance is quite loud. Having more equipment available near the patients could be beneficial to
349 avoid moving it back and forth through the ward. Electronic devices like printers should be re-located
350 in separate rooms preferably with closed doors.

351 Admittedly, this study has some weaknesses. One weakness of this study is a small sample size only
352 including three hospitals in Denmark. More data will certainly lead to clearer conclusions on the
353 major noise sources and their contributions to the total noise levels in hospitals. Second, only one
354 sound level meter was used to capture the noise level around the TRI area, and more measurement
355 points are needed to fully capture the sound field in the emergency department. The observation study
356 was conducted only for about 3.5 hours, which might not be sufficiently long time to capture the
357 general work pattern in the hospital. Again, the microphone height was inconsistent, but it was hard to
358 compromise the security of the device. The acoustic characteristics of the EDs have not been
359 considered, which could influence the sound levels up to 3-4 dB depending on the acoustical
360 treatments [26]. In hospitals, many walls and floors are acoustically hard to guarantee that appropriate
361 cleaning and disinfection procedures can be applied. Therefore, there might be no big influence of the
362 room acoustic treatments on the measured noise, but the EDs are different in size and degree of
363 acoustic coupling to connected rooms. Finally, no subjective data were collected, such as staff
364 satisfaction, stress, distraction, and fatigues. It is obvious that more meaningful conclusions could be
365 drawn with correlating the subjective and objective measures, for example, which noise sources and
366 activities affected the staff work significantly.

367

368 6. Conclusion

369 This study investigates the main noise sources and architectural layouts in three Danish hospitals'
370 emergency departments and reports the noise data measured. The noise levels were measured for
371 about three days, which are found be correlated with the noise exposure to communication noise and
372 electronic / alarm noise in the hospital. Loud communication, un-optimized and unnecessarily loud
373 patient transportation, unnecessary electronic devices and alarm noise were identified as the noise
374 sources to be controlled. The largest difference among the A-weighted equivalent noise levels over 66
375 hours measured in three EDs was 9 dBA, which cannot be explained solely by the increased number
376 of patients. To improve the noise condition in the emergency department, it is recommended to avoid
377 a large open space not only for noise but also for preventing the spread of infectious disease, and not
378 to use a hallway of about 10-15 meters long as a ward, which makes the medical staff tempted to
379 communicate with raised voice in the hallway. Certain noise sources, such as unnecessary alarms /
380 electronic devices and too loud footstep door slamming noise, must be minimized.

381

382

383

384

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Highlights

- Measurement of three Danish emergency departments over 66 hours
- Identification of noisy activities and presentation of their noise levels and durations
- Correlation between sound exposure to individual noise sources and long-term noise measurement
- Suggestion of useful design and operation guidelines to reduce the noise level in emergency departments in hospitals

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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