Biological effects from exposure to electromagnetic radiation emitted by cell tower base stations and other antenna arrays

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Abstract: The siting of cellular phone base stations and other cellular infrastructure such as roof-mounted antenna arrays, especially in residential neighborhoods, is a contentious subject in land-use regulation. Local resistance from nearby residents and landowners is often based on fears of adverse health effects despite reassurances from telecommunications service providers that international exposure standards will be followed. Both anecdotal reports and some epidemiology studies have found headaches, skin rashes, sleep disturbances, depression, decreased libido, increased rates of suicide, concentration problems, dizziness, memory changes, increased risk of cancer, tremors, and other neurophysiological effects in populations near base stations. The objective of this paper is to review the existing studies of people living or working near cellular infrastructure and other pertinent studies that could apply to long-term, low-level radiofrequency radiation (RFR) exposures. While specific epidemiological research in this area is sparse and contradictory, and such exposures are difficult to quantify given the increasing background levels of RFR from myriad personal consumer products, some research does exist to warrant caution in infrastructure siting. Further epidemiology research that takes total ambient RFR exposures into consideration is warranted. Symptoms reported today may be classic microwave sickness, first described in 1978. Nonionizing electromagnetic fields are among the fastest growing forms of environmental pollution. Some extrapolations can be made from research other than epidemiology regarding biological effects from exposures at levels far below current exposure guidelines.

Key words: radiofrequency radiation (RFR), antenna arrays, cellular phone base stations, microwave sickness, nonionizing electromagnetic fields, environmental pollution.

Résumé : La localisation des stations de base pour téléphones cellulaires et autres infrastructures cellulaires, comme les installations d'antennes sur les toitures, surtout dans les quartiers résidentiels, constitue un sujet litigieux d'utilisation du territoire. La résistance locale de la part des résidents et propriétaires fonciers limitrophes repose souvent sur les craintes d'effets adverses pour la santé, en dépit des réassurances venant des fournisseurs de services de télécommunication, à l'effet qu'ils appliquent les standards internationaux d'exposition. En plus de rapports anecdotiques, certaines études épidémiologiques font état de maux de tête, d'éruption cutanée, de perturbation du sommeil, de dépression, de diminution de libido, d'augmentations du taux de suicide, de problèmes de concentration, de vertiges, d'altération de la mémoire, d'augmentation du risque de cancers, de trémulations et autres effets neurophysiologiques, dans les populations vivant au voisinage des stations de base. Les auteurs révisent ici les études existantes portant sur les gens, vivant ou travaillant près d'infrastructures cellulaires ou autres études pertinentes qui pourraient s'appliquer aux expositions à long terme à la radiation de radiofréquence de faible intensité « RFR ». Bien que la recherche épidémiologique spécifique dans ce domaine soit rare et contradictoire, et que de telles expositions soient difficiles à quantifier compte tenu des degrés croissants du bruit de fond des RFR provenant de produits de myriades de consommateurs personnels, il existe certaines recherches qui justifient la prudence dans l'installation des infrastructures. Les futures études épidémiologiques sont nécessaires afin de prendre en compte la totalité des expositions à la RFR ambiante. Les symptômes rapportés jusqu'ici pourraient correspondre à la maladie classique des micro-ondes, décrite pour la première fois en 1978. Les champs électromagnétiques non-ionisants constituent les formes de pollution environnementale croissant le plus rapidement. On peut effectuer certaines extrapolations à partir de recherches autres qu'épidémiologiques concernant les effets biologiques d'expositions à des degrés bien au-dessous des directives internationales.

Mots-clés : radiofréquence de faible intensité « RFR », les installations d'antennes, des stations de base pour téléphones cellulaires, la maladie classique des micro-ondes, les champs électromagnétiques non-ionisants, pollution environnementale.

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averaged over a short duration (minutes) and are based on results from short-term exposure studies, not for long-term, low-level exposures such as those experienced by people living or working near transmitting facilities. For such populations, these can be involuntary exposures, unlike cell phones where user choice is involved.

There have been some recent attempts to quantify human SARs in proximity to cell towers but these are primarily for occupational exposures in close proximity to the sources and questions raised were dosimetry-based regarding the accuracy of antenna modeling (van Wyk et al. 2005). In one study by Martínez-Búrdalo et al. (2005) however, the researchers used high-resolution human body models placed at different distances to assess SARs in worst-case exposures to three different frequencies — 900, 1800, and 2170 MHz. Their focus was to compute whole-body averaged SARs at a maximum 10 g averaged SAR inside the exposed model. They concluded that for

> ... antenna–body distances in the near zone of the antenna, the fact that averaged field values are below reference levels, could, at certain frequencies, not guarantee guidelines compliance based on basic restrictions.
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> (p. 4125, Martínez-Búrdalo et al. 2005)

This raises questions about the basic validity of predicting SARs in real-life exposure situations or compliance to guidelines according to standard modeling methods, at least when one is very close to an antenna.

Thus, the relevant questions for the general population living or working near transmitting facilities are: Do biological and (or) health effects occur after exposure to low-intensity RFR? Do effects accumulate over time, since the exposure is of a long duration and may be intermittent? What precisely is the definition of low-intensity RFR? What might its biological effects be and what does the science tell us about such exposures?

6. Government radiofrequency radiation (RFR) guidelines: how spatial energy translates to the body's absorption

The U.S. FCC has issued guidelines for both power density and SARs. For power density, the U.S. guidelines are between 0.2–1.0 mW/cm^2. For cell phones, SAR levels require hand-held devices to be at or below 1.6 W/kg measured over 1.0 g of tissue. For whole body exposures, the limit is 0.08 W/kg.

In most European countries, the SAR limit for hand-held devices is 2.0 W/kg averaged over 10 g of tissue. Whole body exposure limits are 0.08 W/kg.

At 100–200 ft (~30–60 m) from a cell phone base station, a person can be exposed to a power density of 0.001 mW/cm^2 (i.e., 1.0 μW/cm^2). The SAR at such a distance can be 0.001 W/kg (i.e., 1.0 mW/kg). The U.S. guidelines for SARs are between 0.08–0.40 W/kg.

For the purposes of this paper, we will define low-intensity exposure to RFR of power density of 0.001 mW/cm^2 or a SAR of 0.001 W/kg.

7. Biological effects at low intensities

Many biological effects have been documented at very low intensities comparable to what the population experiences within 200 to 500 ft (~60–150 m) of a cell tower, including effects that occurred in studies of cell cultures and animals after exposures to low-intensity RFR. Effects reported include: genetic, growth, and reproductive; increases in permeability of the blood–brain barrier; behavioral; molecular, cellular, and metabolic; and increases in cancer risk. Some examples are as follows:

- Dutta et al. (1989) reported an increase in calcium efflux in human neuroblastoma cells after exposure to RFR at 0.005 W/kg. Calcium is an important component in normal cellular functions.
- Fesenko et al. (1999) reported a change in immunological functions in mice after exposure to RFR at a power density of 0.001 mW/cm^2.
- Magras and Xenos (1997) reported a decrease in reproductive function in mice exposed to RFR at power densities of 0.000168–0.001053 mW/cm^2.
- Forgacs et al. (2006) reported an increase in serum testosterone levels in rats exposed to GSM (global system for mobile communication)-like RFR at SAR of 0.018–0.025 W/kg.
- Persson et al. (1997) reported an increase in the permeability of the blood–brain barrier in mice exposed to RFR at 0.0004–0.008 W/kg. The blood–brain barrier is a physiological mechanism that protects the brain from toxic substances, bacteria, and viruses.
- Phillips et al. (1998) reported DNA damage in cells exposed to RFR at SAR of 0.0024–0.024 W/kg.
- Kesari and Behari (2009) also reported an increase in DNA strand breaks in brain cells of rats after exposure to RFR at SAR of 0.0008 W/kg.
- Belyaev et al. (2009) reported changes in DNA repair mechanisms after RFR exposure at a SAR of 0.0037 W/kg.

A list of publications reporting biological and (or) health effects of low-intensity RFR exposure is in Table 1.

Out of the 56 papers in the list, 37 provided the SAR of exposure. The average SAR of these studies at which biological effects occurred is 0.022 W/kg — a finding below the current standards.

Ten years ago, there were only about a dozen studies reporting such low-intensity effects; currently, there are more than 60. This body of work cannot be ignored. These are important findings with implications for anyone living or working near a transmitting facility. However, again, most of the studies in the list are on short-term (minutes to hours) exposure to low-intensity RFR. Long-term exposure studies are sparse. In addition, we do not know if all of these reported effects occur in humans exposed to low-intensity RFR, or whether the reported effects are health hazards. Biological effects do not automatically mean adverse health effects, plus many biological effects are reversible. However, it is clear that low-intensity RFR is not biologically inert. Clearly, more needs to be learned before a presumption of safety can continue to be made regarding placement of antenna arrays near the population, as is the case today.

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havioral experiments, when one surveys the EMF literature on behavioral effects, one can find many reports on behavioral effects observed at SARs less than 4 W/kg, e.g., D'Andrea et al. (1986*a*) at 0.14 to 0.7 W/kg; DeWitt et al. (1987) at 0.14 W/kg; Gage (1979) at 3 W/kg ; King et al. (1971) at 2.4 W/kg; Kumlin et al. (2007) at 3 W/kg; Lai et al. (1989) at 0.6 W/kg; Mitchell et al. (1977) at 2.3 W/kg (1977); Navakatikian and Tomashevskaya (1994) at 0.027 W/kg; Nittby et al. (2008) at 0.06 W/kg; Schrot et al. (1980) at 0.7 W/kg; Thomas et al. (1975) at 1.5 to 2.7 W/kg; and Wang and Lai (2000) at 1.2 W/kg.

The obvious mechanism of effects of RFR is thermal (i.e., tissue heating). However, for decades, there have been questions about whether nonthermal (i.e., not dependent on a change in temperature) effects exist. This is a well-discussed area in the scientific literature and not the focus of this paper but we would like to mention it briefly because it has implications for public safety near transmission facilities.

Practically, we do not actually need to know whether RFR effects are thermal or nonthermal to set exposure guidelines. Most of the biological-effects studies of RFR that have been conducted since the 1980s were under nonthermal conditions. In studies using isolated cells, the ambient temperature during exposure was generally well controlled. In most animal studies, the RFR intensity used usually did not cause a significant increase in body temperature in the test animals. Most scientists consider nonthermal effects as established, even though the implications are not fully understood.

Scientifically, there are three rationales for the existence of nonthermal effects:

1. Effects can occur at low intensities when a significant increase in temperature is not likely.
2. Heating does not produce the same effects as RFR exposure.
3. RFR with different modulations and characteristics produce different effects even though they may produce the same pattern of SAR distribution and tissue heating.

Low-intensityeffects have been discussed previously (see Section 7.). There are reports that RFR triggers effects that are different from an increase in temperature, e.g., Wachtel et al. (1975); Seaman and Wachtel (1978); D'Inzeo et al. (1988). And studies showing that RFR of the same frequency and intensity, but with different modulations and waveforms, can produce different effects as seen in the work of Baranski (1972); Arber and Lin (1985); Campisi et al. (2010); d'Ambrosio et al. (2002); Frey et al. (1975); Oscar and Hawkins (1977); Sanders et al. (1985); Huber et al. (2002); Markkanen et al. (2004); Hung et al. (2007); and Luukkonen et al. (2009).

A counter-argument for point 1 is that RFR can cause micro-heating at a small location even though there is no measurement change in temperature over the whole sample. This implies that an effect observed at low intensities could be due to localized micro-heating, and, therefore, is still considered thermal. However, the micro-heating theory could not apply to test subjects that are not stationary, such as in the case of Magras and Xenos (1997) who reported that mice exposed to low-intensity RFR became less reproductive over several generations. "Hot spots" of heating move within the body when the subject moves in the field and, thus, cannot maintain sustained heating of certain tissue.

The counter argument for point 2 is that heating by other means does not produce the same pattern of energy distribution as RFR. Thus, different effects would result. Again, this counter argument does not work on moving objects. Thus, results supporting the third point are the most compelling.

10. Studies on exposure to cell tower transmissions

From the early genesis of cell phone technology in the early 1980s, cell towers were presumed safe when located near populated areas because they are low-power installations in comparison with broadcast towers. This thinking already depended on the assumption that broadcast towers were safe if kept below certain limits. Therefore, the reasoning went, cell towers would be safer still. The thinking also assumed that exposures between cell and broadcast towers were comparable. In certain cities, cell and broadcast tower transmissions both contributed significantly to the ambient levels of RFR (Sirav and Seyhan 2009; Joseph et al. 2010).

There are several fallacies in this thinking, including the fact that broadcast exposures have been found unsafe even at regulated thresholds. Adverse effects have been noted for significant increases for all cancers in both men and women living near broadcast towers (Henderson and Anderson 1986); childhood leukemia clusters (Maskarinec et al. 1994; Ha et al. 2003; Park et al. 2004); adult leukemia and lymphoma clusters, and elevated rates of mental illness (Hocking et al. 1996; Michelozzi et al. 2002; Ha et al. 2007); elevated brain tumor incidence (Dolk et al. 1997*a*, 1997*b*); sleep disorders, decreased concentration, anxiety, elevated blood pressure, headaches, memory impairment, increased white cell counts, and decreased lung function in children (Altpeter et al. 2000); motor, memory, and learning impairment in children (Kolodynski and Kolodynski 1996), nonlinear increases in brain tumor incidence (Colorado Department of Public Health 2004); increases in malignant melanoma (Hallberg and Johansson 2002); and nonlinear immune system changes in women (Boscol et al. 2001). (The term "nonlinear" is used in scientific literature to mean that an effect was not directly proportional to the intensity of exposure. In the case of the two studies mentioned previously, adverse effects were found at significant distances from the towers, not in closer proximity where the power density exposures were higher and therefore presumed to have a greater chance of causing effects. This is something that often comes up in low-level energy studies and adds credence to the argument that low-level exposures could cause qualitatively different effects than higher level exposures.)

There is also anecdotal evidence in Europe that some communities have experienced adverse physical reactions after the switch from analog TV broadcast signals to the new digital formats, which can be more biologically complex

Three doctors in Germany, Cornelia Waldmann-Selsam, MD, Christine Aschermann, MD, and Markus Kern, MD,

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wrote (in a letter to the U.S. President, entitled *Warning — Adverse Health Effects From Digital Broadcast Television*)[10], that on 20 May 2006, two digital broadcast television stations went on the air in the Hessian Rhoen area. Prior to that time that area had low radiation levels, which included that from cell phone towers of which there were few. However, coinciding with the introduction of the digital signals, within a radius of more than 20 km, there was an abrupt onset of symptoms for constant headaches, pressure in the head, drowsiness, sleep problems, inability to think clearly, forgetfulness, nervousness, irritability, tightness in the chest, rapid heartbeat, shortness of breath, depression, apathy, loss of empathy, burning skin, sense of inner burning, leg weakness, pain in the limbs, stabbing pain in various organs, and weight gain. They also noted that birds fled the area. The same symptoms gradually appeared in other locations after digital signals were introduced. Some physicians accompanied affected people to areas where there was no TV reception from terrestrial sources, such as in valleys or behind mountain ranges, and observed that many people became symptom free after only a short time. The digital systems also require more transmitters than the older analog systems and, therefore, somewhat higher exposure levels to the general population are expected, according to the 2009 SCENIHR Report (SCENIHR 2009).

Whether digital or analog, the frequencies differ between broadcast and cell antennas and do not couple with the human anatomy in whole-body or organ-specific models in the same ways (NCRP 1986; ICNIRP 1998). This difference in how the body absorbs energy is the reason that all standards-setting organizations have the strictest limitations between 30–300 MHz — ranges that encompass FM broadcast where whole body resonance occurs (Cleveland 2001). Exposure allowances are more lenient for cell technology in frequency ranges between 300 MHz and 3 GHz, which encompass cellular phone technology. This is based on the assumption that the cell frequencies do not penetrate the body as deeply and no whole-body resonance can occur.

There are some studies on the health effects on people living near cell phone towers. Though cell technology has been in existence since the late 1980s, the first study of populations near cell tower base stations was only conducted by Santini et al. (2002). It was prompted in part by complaints of adverse effects experienced by residents living near cell base stations throughout the world and increased activism by citizens. As well, increasing concerns by physicians to understand those complaints was reflected in professional organizations like the ICEMS (International Committee on Electromagnetic Safety) Catania Resolution[11], the Irish Doctors Environmental Association (IDEA)[12], and the Freiburger Appeal[13].

Santini conducted a survey study of 530 people (270 men, 260 women) on 18 nonspecific health symptoms (NSHS) in relation to self-reported distance from towers of <10 m, 10 to 50 m, 50 to 100 m, 100 to 200 m, 200 to 300 m, and >300 m. The control group compared people living more than 300 m (approximately 1000 ft) or not exposed to base stations. They controlled for age, presence of electrical transformers (<10 m), high tension lines (<100 m), and radio/TV broadcast transmitters (<4 km), the frequency of cell phone use (>20 min per day), and computer use (>2 h per day). Questions also included residents' location in relation to antennas, taking into account orientations that were facing, beside, behind, or beneath antennas in cases of roof-mounted antenna arrays. Exposure conditions were defined by the length of time living in the neighborhood (<1 year through >5 years); the number of days per week and hours per day (<1 h to >16 h) that were spent in the residence.

Results indicated increased symptoms and complaints the closer a person lived to a tower. At <10 m, symptoms included nausea, loss of appetite, visual disruptions, and difficulty in moving. Significant differences were observed up through 100 m for irritability, depressive tendencies, concentration difficulties, memory loss, dizziness, and lower libido. Between 100 and 200 m, symptoms included headaches, sleep disruption, feelings of discomfort, and skin problems. Beyond 200 m, fatigue was significantly reported more often than in controls. Women significantly reported symptoms more often than men, except for libido loss. There was no increase in premature menopause in women in relation to distance from towers. The authors concluded that there were different sex-dependent sensitivities to electromagnetic fields. They also called for infrastructure not to be sited <300 m (~1000 ft) from populations for precautionary purposes, and noted that the information their survey captured might not apply to all circumstances since actual exposures depend on the volume of calls being generated from any particular tower, as well as on how radiowaves are reflected by environmental factors.

Similar results were found in Egypt by Abdel-Rassoul et al. (2007) looking to identify neurobehavioral deficits in people living near cell phone base stations. Researchers conducted a cross-sectional study of 85 subjects: 37 living inside a building where antennas were mounted on the rooftop and 48 agricultural directorate employees who worked in a building (~10 m) opposite the station. A control group of 80 who did not live near base stations were matched for age, sex, occupation, smoking, cell phone use, and educational level. All participants completed a questionnaire containing personal, educational, and medical histories; general and neurological examinations; a neurobehavioral test battery (NBTB) involving tests for visuomotor speed, problem solving, attention, and memory, in addition to a Eysenck personality questionnaire (EPQ).

Their results found a prevalence of neuropsychiatric complaints: headaches, memory changes, dizziness, tremors, depressive symptoms, and sleep disturbance were significantly higher among exposed inhabitants than controls. The NBTB indicated that the exposed inhabitants exhibited a significantly lower performance than controls in one of the tests of attention and short-term auditory memory (paced auditory

[10] http://www.notanotherconspiracy.com/2009/02/warning-adverse-health-effects-from.html. (Accessed October 2010.)
[11] http://www.icems.eu/resolution.htm
[12] http://www.ideeaireland.org/emr.htm
[13] http://www.laleva.cc/environment/freiburger_appeal.html

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serial addition test (PASAT)). Also, the inhabitants opposite the station exhibited a lower performance in the problem-solving test (block design) than those who lived under the station. All inhabitants exhibited a better performance in the two tests of visuomotor speed (digit symbol and Trailmaking B) and one test of attention (Trailmaking A) than controls.

Environmental power-density data were taken from measurements of that building done by the National Telecommunications Institute in 2000. Measurements were collected from the rooftop where the antennas were positioned, the shelter that enclosed the electrical equipment and cables for the antennas, other sites on the roof, and within an apartment below one of the antennas. Power-density measurements ranged from 0.1–6.7 $\mu W/cm^2$. No measurements were taken in the building across the street. The researchers noted that the last available measurements of RFR in 2002 in that area were less than the allowable standards but also noted that exposures depended on the number of calls being made at any given time, and that the number of cell phone users had increased approximately four times within the 2 years just before the beginning of their study in 2003. They concluded that inhabitants living near mobile phone base stations are at risk for developing neuropsychiatric problems, as well as some changes in the performance of neurobehavioral functions, either by facilitation (over-stimulation) or inhibition (suppression). They recommended the standards be revised for public exposure to RFR, and called for using the NBTB for regular assessment and early detection of biological effects among inhabitants near base stations (Abdel-Rassoul et al. 2007).

Hutter et al. (2006) sought to determine cognitive changes, sleep quality, and overall well-being in 365 rural and urban inhabitants who had lived for more than a year near 10 selected cell phone base stations. Distance from antennas was 24 to 600 m in rural areas, and 20 to 250 m in the urban areas. Field strength measurements were taken in bedrooms and cognitive tests were performed. Exposure to high-frequency EMFs was lower than guidelines and ranged from 0.000002 to 0.14 $\mu W/cm^2$ for all frequencies between 80 MHz and 2 GHz with the greater exposure coming from mobile telecommunications facilities, which was between 0.000001 and 0.14 $\mu W/cm^2$. Maximum levels were between 0.000002 and 0.41 $\mu W/cm^2$ with an overall 5% of the estimated maximum above 0.1 $\mu W/cm^2$. Average levels were slightly higher in rural areas (0.005 $\mu W/cm^2$) than in urban areas (0.002 $\mu W/cm^2$). The researchers tried to ascertain if the subjective rating of negative health consequences from base stations acted as a covariable but found that most subjects expressed no strong concerns about adverse effects from the stations, with 65% and 61% in urban and rural areas, respectively, stating no concerns at all. But symptoms were generally higher for subjects who expressed health concerns regarding the towers. The researchers speculated that this was due to the subjects with health complaints seeking answers and consequently blaming the base station; or that subjects with concerns were more anxious in general and tended to give more negative appraisals of their body functions; and the fact that some people simply give very negative answers.

Hutter's results were similar to those of Santini et al. (2002) and Abdel-Rassoul et al. (2007). Hutter found a significant relationship between symptoms and power densities. Adverse effects were highest for headaches, cold hands and feet, cardiovascular symptoms, and concentration difficulties. Perceptual speed increased while accuracy decreased insignificantly with increasing exposure levels. Unlike the others, however, Hutter found no significant effects on sleep quality and attributed such problems more to fear of adverse effects than actual exposure. They concluded that effects on well-being and performance cannot be ruled out even as mechanisms of action remain unknown. They further recommended that antenna siting should be done to minimize exposure to the population.

Navarro et al. (2003) measured the broadband electric field (E-field) in the bedrooms of 97 participants in La Nora, Murcia, Spain and found a significantly higher symptom score in 9 out of 16 symptoms in the groups with an exposure of 0.65 V/m (0.1121 $\mu W/cm^2$) compared with the control group with an exposure below 0.2 V/m (0.01061 $\mu W/cm^2$), both as an average. The highest contributor to the exposure was GSM 900/1800 MHz signals from mobile telecommunications. The same researchers also reported significant correlation coefficients between the measured E-field and 14 out of 16 health-related symptoms with the five highest associations found for depressive tendencies, fatigue, sleeping disorders, concentration difficulties, and cardiovascular problems. In a follow up work, Oberfeld et al. (2004) conducted a health survey in Spain in the vicinity of two GSM 900/1800 MHz cell phone base stations, measuring the E-field in six bedrooms, and found similar results. They concluded that the symptoms are in line with "microwave syndrome" reported in the literature (Johnson-Liakouris 1998). They recommended that the sum total for ambient exposures should not be higher than 0.02 V/m — the equivalent of a power density of 0.00011 $\mu W/cm^2$, which is the indoor exposure value for GSM base stations proposed by the Public Health Office of the Government of Salzburg, Austria in 2002[14].

Eger et al. (2004) took up a challenge to medical professionals by Germany's radiation protection board to determine if there was an increased cancer incidence in populations living near cell towers. Their study evaluated data for approximately 1000 patients between the years of 1994 and 2004 who lived close to cell antennas. The results showed that the incidence of cancer was significantly higher among those patients who had lived for 5 to 10 years at a distance of up to 400 m from a cell installation that had been in operation since 1993, compared with those patients living further away, and that the patients fell ill on an average of 8 years earlier than would be expected. In the years between 1999 and 2004, after 5 years operation of the transmitting installation, the relative risk of getting cancer had tripled for residents in proximity of the installation compared with inhabitants outside of the area.

Wolf and Wolf (2004) investigated increased cancer incidence in populations living in a small area in Israel exposed

[14] *http://www.salzburg.gv.at/umweltmedizin. (Accessed October 2010.)*

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to RFR from a cell tower. The antennas were mounted 10 m high, transmitting at 850 MHz and 1500 W at full-power output. People lived within a 350 m half circle of the antennas. An epidemiologic assessment was done to determine whether the incidence of cancer cases among individuals exposed to the base station in the south section of the city of Netanya called Irus (designated area A) differed from expected cancer rates throughout Israel, and in the town of Netanya in general, as compared with people who lived in a nearby area without a cell tower (designated area B). There were 622 participants in area A who had lived near the cell tower for 3 to 7 years and were patients at one health clinic. The exposure began 1 year before the start of the study when the station first came into service. A second cohort of individuals in area B, with 1222 participants who received medical services at a different clinic located nearby, was used as a control. Area B was closely matched for environment, workplace, and occupational characteristics. In exposure area A, eight cases of different types of cancer were diagnosed in a period of 1 year, including cancers of the ovary (1), breast (3), Hodgkins lymphoma (1), lung (1), osteoid osteoma (1), and hypernephroma (1). The RFR field measurements were also taken per house and matched to the cancer incidents. The rate of cancers in area A was compared with the annual rate of the general population (31 cases per 10 000) and to incidence for the entire town of Netanya. There were two cancers in area B, compared to eight in area A. They also examined the history of the exposed cohort (area A) for malignancies in the 5 years before exposure began and found only two cases in comparison to eight cases 1 year after the tower went into service. The researchers concluded that relative cancer rates for females were 10.5 for area A, 0.6 for area B, and 1.0 for the whole town of Netanya. Cancer incidence in women in area A was thus significantly higher (p <0.0001) compared with that of area B and the whole city. A comparison of the relative risk revealed that there were 4.15 times more cases in area A than in the entire population. The study indicated an association between increased incidence of cancer and living in proximity to a cell phone base station. The measured level of RFR, between 0.3 to 0.5 $\mu W/cm^2$, was far below the thermal guidelines.

11. Risk perception, electrohypersensitivity, and psychological factors

Others have followed up on what role risk perception might play in populations near cell base stations to see if it is associated with health complaints.

Blettner et al. (2008) conducted a cross-sectional, multiphase study in Germany. In the initial phase, 30 047 people out of a total of 51 444, who took part in a nationwide survey, were also asked about their health and attitudes towards mobile phone base stations. A list of 38 potential health complaints were used. With a response rate of 58.6%, 18.0% were concerned about adverse health effects from base stations, 10.3% directly attributed personal adverse effects to them. It was found that people living within 500 m, or those concerned about personal exposures, reported more health complaints than others. The authors concluded that even though a substantial proportion of the German population is concerned about such exposures, the observed higher health complaints cannot be attributed to those concerns alone.

Kristiansen et al. (2009) also explored the prevalence and nature of concerns about mobile phone radiation, especially since the introduction of new 3G–UMTS (universal mobile telecommunications system) networks that require many more towers and antennas have sparked debate throughout Europe. Some local governments have prohibited mobile antennas on public buildings due to concerns about cancer, especially brain cancer in children and impaired psychomotor functions. One aim of the researchers was risk assessment — to compare people's perceptions of risk from cell phones and masts to other fears, such as being struck by lightening. In Denmark, they used data from a 2006 telephone survey of 1004 people aged 15+ years. They found that 28% of the respondents were concerned about exposure to mobile phone radiation and 15% about radiation from masts. In contrast, 82% of respondents were concerned about other forms of environmental pollution. Nearly half of the respondents considered the mortality risk of 3G phones and masts to be of the same order of magnitude as being struck by lightning (0.1 fatalities per million people per year), while 7% thought it was equivalent to tobacco-induced lung cancer (approximately 500 fatalities per million per year). Among women, concerns about mobile phone radiation, perceived mobile phone mortality risk, and concerns about unknown consequences of new technologies, increased with educational levels. More than two thirds of the respondents felt that they had not received adequate public information about the 3G system. The results of the study indicated that the majority of the survey population had little concern about mobile phone radiation, while a minority is very concerned.

Augner et al. (2009) examined the effects of short-term GSM base station exposure on psychological symptoms including good mood, alertness, and calmness as measured by a standardized well-being questionnaire. Fifty-seven participants were randomly assigned to one of three different exposure scenarios. Each of those scenarios subjected participants to five 50 min exposure sessions, with only the first four relevant for the study of psychological symptoms. Three exposure levels were created by shielding devices, which could be installed or removed between sessions to create double-blinded conditions. The overall median power densities were 0.00052 $\mu W/cm^2$ during low exposures, 0.0154 $\mu W/cm^2$ during medium exposures, and 0.2127 $\mu W/cm^2$ during high-exposure sessions. Participants in high- and medium-exposure scenarios were significantly calmer during those sessions than participants in low-exposure scenarios throughout. However, no significant differences between exposure scenarios in the "good mood" or "alertness" factors were found. The researchers concluded that short-term exposure to GSM base station signals may have an impact on well-being by reducing psychological arousal.

Eltiti et al. (2007) looked into exposures to the GSM and UMTS exposures from base stations and the effects to 56 participants who were self-reported as sensitive to electromagnetic fields. Some call it electro-hypersensitivity (EHS) or just electrosensitivity. People with EHS report that they suffer negative health effects when exposed to electro-

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