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9 **Scientific Committee on Health, Environmental and Emerging**  
10 **Risks**

11 **SCHEER**

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15 **Opinion on the need of a revision of the annexes in the Council**  
16 **Recommendation 1999/519/EC and Directive 2013/35/EU, in**  
17 **view of the latest scientific evidence available with regard to**  
18 **radiofrequency (100kHz - 300GHz)**

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29 The SCHEER adopted this document by written procedure on 16 August 2022

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## ABSTRACT

The SCHEER has considered meta-analyses, systematic reviews, and, when necessary, narrative or scope reviews and single research papers published after and including 2015 on radiofrequency electromagnetic fields (100 kHz to 300 GHz).

The SCHEER could not identify moderate or strong level of evidence for adverse health effects resulting from chronic or acute RF EMF exposure at levels below the limits set in the annexes of Council Recommendation 1999/519/EC and Directive 2013/35/EU.

The SCHEER advises positively on the need of a technical revision of the annexes in Council Recommendation 1999/519/EC and Directive 2013/35/EU with regard to radiofrequency electromagnetic fields (100 kHz to 300 GHz), because there is a need to recognize the recently introduced dosimetric quantities and establish limits for them.

**Keywords:** Radiofrequency, Electromagnetic Fields, Health effects, Biological effects, Interaction mechanisms

### Opinion to be cited as:

SCHEER (Scientific Committee on Health, Environmental and Emerging Risks), Preliminary Opinion on the need of a revision of the annexes in Council Recommendation 1999/519/EC and Directive 2013/35/EU, in view of the latest scientific evidence available with regard to radiofrequency (100kHz - 300GHz), adopted by written procedure on 16 August 2022

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[Register of Commission expert groups and other similar entities \(europa.eu\)](https://ec.europa.eu/euipo/working-groups/register-of-commission-expert-groups-and-other-similar-entities)

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## **About the Scientific Committees (2022-2026)**

Two independent non-food Scientific Committees provide the Commission with the scientific advice it needs when preparing policy and proposals relating to consumer safety, public health and the environment. The Committees also draw the Commission's attention to the new or emerging problems which may pose an actual or potential threat.

They are: the Scientific Committee on Consumer Safety (SCCS) and the Scientific Committee on Health, Environmental and Emerging Risks (SCHEER). The Scientific Committees review and evaluate relevant scientific data and assess potential risks. Each Committee has top independent scientists from all over the world who are committed to work in the public interest.

In addition, the Commission relies upon the work of other Union bodies, such as the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA), the European Medicines Agency (EMA), the European Centre for Disease prevention and Control (ECDC) and the European Chemicals Agency (ECHA).

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This Committee, on request of Commission services, provides Opinions on questions concerning health, environmental and emerging risks. The Committee addresses questions on:

- health and environmental risks related to pollutants in the environmental media and other biological and physical factors in relation to air quality, water, waste and soils.
- complex or multidisciplinary issues requiring a comprehensive assessment of risks to consumer safety or public health, for example antimicrobial resistance, nanotechnologies, medical devices and physical hazards such as noise and electromagnetic fields.

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## 2 **1 MANDATE FROM THE EU COMMISSION SERVICES**

3 The following part is provided by the requesting Commission service.

### 4 **1.1 Background**

5 Council Recommendation of 12 July 1999<sup>1</sup> (hereafter Recommendation) on the limitation  
6 of exposure of the general public to electromagnetic fields (0 Hz to 300 GHz) sets out basic  
7 restrictions and reference levels for the exposure of the general public to electromagnetic  
8 fields (EMFs). These restrictions and reference levels are based on the guidelines published  
9 by the International Commission on Non Ionizing Radiation Protection in 1998 (ICNIRP)<sup>2</sup>.  
10 In response to the Recommendation, all Member States have implemented measures to  
11 limit the exposure of the public to EMF, either by implementing the provisions and  
12 reference levels and limits proposed by the Recommendation, or by implementing more  
13 stringent provisions<sup>3</sup>. In particular, twenty (20) Member States follow the  
14 Recommendation/ICNIRP Guidelines, while seven (7) impose stricter limits than those of  
15 the Recommendation.

16 In relation to the protection of workers' health and safety, Article 153 of the Treaty on the  
17 Functioning of the European Union foresees that the European Parliament and the Council  
18 can adopt by means of directives minimum requirements for the improvement, in  
19 particular, of the working environment to protect workers' health and safety, in order to  
20 support and complement the activities of Member States. In this context, the Council and  
21 the Parliament adopted Directive 2004/40/EC of 29 April 2004<sup>4</sup> on the minimum health  
22 and safety requirements regarding their exposure to the risks arising from physical agents  
23 such as electromagnetic fields which was repealed by Directive 2013/35/EU<sup>5</sup>. Member  
24 States had to transpose Directive 2013/35/EU by 1<sup>st</sup> July 2016. It lays down minimum  
25 requirements including action levels and exposure limit values for electromagnetic fields.  
26 In accordance with Article 153 of the TFEU, Member States are allowed to maintain or  
27 adopt more stringent protective measures for the protection of workers.

28 The Recommendation also invites the Commission to "*keep the matters covered by this*  
29 *recommendation under review, with a view to its revision and updating, taking into account*  
30 *possible effects, which are currently the object of research, including relevant aspects of*  
31 *precaution (paragraph 4)*". The ICNIRP guidelines were endorsed by the Scientific Steering  
32 Committee (SSC)<sup>6</sup> in its Opinion on health effects of EMFs of 25-26 June 1998. The  
33 Scientific Committee on Toxicity, Ecotoxicity and the Environment (CSTEE) prepared an  
34 update of the Scientific Steering Committee's Opinion and concluded in its Opinion on  
35 "*Possible effects of Electromagnetic Fields (EMF), Radio Frequency Fields (RF) and*  
36 *Microwave Radiation on human health*", of 30 October 2001, that the information that had  
37 become available since the SSC Opinion of June 1999 did not justify revision of the  
38 exposure limits recommended by the Council<sup>7</sup>. The Opinions delivered by the SCENIHR in  
39 March 2007<sup>8</sup>, January 2009<sup>9</sup>, July 2009<sup>10</sup> and January 2015<sup>11</sup> confirmed the earlier

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1 (OJ. L 199/59, 30.7.1999)

2 <http://www.icnirp.de/>

3 [http://ec.europa.eu/health/electromagnetic\\_fields/role\\_eu\\_ms/index\\_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/health/electromagnetic_fields/role_eu_ms/index_en.htm)

4 <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:32004L0040&from=en>

5 <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2013:179:0001:0021:EN:PDF>

6 [http://europa.eu.int/comm/food/fs/sc/ssc/index\\_en.html](http://europa.eu.int/comm/food/fs/sc/ssc/index_en.html)

7 The main frequencies in the ELF frequency range are 50 Hz in Europe and 60 Hz in North America. The RF and lower microwave frequencies are of particular interest for broadcasting, mobile telephony. The 2.45 GHz frequency is mainly used in domestic and industrial microwave ovens

8 [http://ec.europa.eu/health/ph\\_risk/committees/04\\_scenihr/docs/scenihr\\_o\\_007.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/health/ph_risk/committees/04_scenihr/docs/scenihr_o_007.pdf)

9 [http://ec.europa.eu/health/ph\\_risk/committees/04\\_scenihr/docs/scenihr\\_o\\_022.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/health/ph_risk/committees/04_scenihr/docs/scenihr_o_022.pdf)

10 [http://ec.europa.eu/health/ph\\_risk/committees/04\\_scenihr/docs/scenihr\\_o\\_024.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/health/ph_risk/committees/04_scenihr/docs/scenihr_o_024.pdf)

11 [https://ec.europa.eu/health/scientific\\_committees/emerging/docs/scenihr\\_o\\_041.pdf](https://ec.europa.eu/health/scientific_committees/emerging/docs/scenihr_o_041.pdf)

1 conclusion of the CSTE and again highlighted the need for additional data and research  
2 on this issue and recommended that specific research areas should be addressed.

3 The Commission relies on the SCHEER to periodically review new information that may  
4 influence the assessment of risks to human health in this area and to provide regular  
5 updates on the scientific evidence base to the Commission.

6 Since June 2014, the cut-off date for the previous review by the SCENIHR, a sufficient  
7 number of new scientific publications have appeared to warrant a new analysis of the  
8 scientific evidence on possible effects on human health of exposure to EMF.

9 In addition, ICNIRP has released new guidelines for the protection of humans exposed to  
10 radiofrequency electromagnetic fields in March 2020. While the 1998 guidelines already  
11 provide protection regarding EMF exposure in all frequency bands for existing  
12 technologies, and all bands currently envisaged for 5G, the new guidelines provide  
13 additional guidance on a set of issues relevant to the latest developments in 5G technology  
14 and cover the range 100 kHz to 300 GHz<sup>12</sup>.

15 The full guidelines are published in the scientific journal Health Physics and are accessible  
16 at the website of ICNIRP<sup>13</sup>.

17 Consequently, the SCHEER is being asked to examine this new scientific evidence and to  
18 address in particular the questions listed in the Terms of Reference.

## 19 **1.2 Terms of reference**

20 The scientific committee SCHEER is consulted on the need of a (technical) revision of the  
21 Council Recommendation 1999/519/EC annexes and of the annexes of Directive  
22 2013/35/EU in view of the latest scientific evidence available, in particular the ICNIRP  
23 guidelines updated in 2020<sup>14</sup> with regard to radio frequency (100 kHz to 300 GHz).

### 24 Opinion I

25 To advise on the need of a (technical) revision of the Council Recommendation  
26 1999/519/EC annexes and of the annexes of Directive 2013/35/EU in view of the latest  
27 scientific evidence available, in particular that of the ICNIRP-guidelines updated in 2020,  
28 with regard to radio frequency 100 kHz to 300 GHz.

### 29 Opinion II

30 To update the SCENIHR Opinion of 2015 in the light of the latest scientific evidence with  
31 regard to frequencies between 1Hz and 100 kHz.

## 32 **1.3 Deadline**

33 Preliminary Opinion I: July 2022

34 Preliminary Opinion II: July 2023

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<sup>12</sup> <https://www.icnirp.org/en/publications/article/rf-guidelines-2020.html>; <https://www.icnirp.org/en/rf-fag/index.html>

<sup>13</sup> <https://www.icnirp.org/en/publications/index.html>

<sup>14</sup> <https://www.icnirp.org/cms/upload/publications/ICNIRPrfqi2020.pdf>

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## 2 **2 OPINION**

- 3 • The SCHEER has considered meta-analyses, systematic reviews, and, when necessary,  
4 narrative or scope reviews and single research papers published after the (2015)  
5 SCENIHR Opinion on potential health effects of exposure to radiofrequency (RF)  
6 electromagnetic fields (EMF).
- 7 • The SCHEER notes that there is uncertain weight of evidence for interaction  
8 mechanisms in *in vitro* studies, involving oxidative balance, genetic and epigenetic  
9 effects, and calcium signalling, that can result in biological effects.
- 10 • The SCHEER could not identify moderate or strong level of evidence for adverse health  
11 effects resulting from chronic or acute RF EMF exposure at levels below the limits set  
12 in the annexes of Council Recommendation 1999/519/EC and Directive 2013/35/EU.
- 13 • The SCHEER has noted the technical progress achieved since the ICNIRP (1998)  
14 exposure guidelines in the areas of computational and experimental exposure  
15 assessment and dosimetry, allowing for an increased accuracy of human exposure  
16 evaluation.
- 17 • The SCHEER has also noted that new and emerging wireless applications using RF EMF  
18 tend to use higher frequencies and lower emitted power in closer vicinity to the human  
19 body. However, there are situations where beam focusing or intense pulsed radiation  
20 can increase exposure for short times.
- 21 • The SCHEER acknowledges that the latest (2020) ICNIRP exposure guidelines introduce  
22 new dosimetric quantities and limits to them, that can protect humans more effectively  
23 from emerging technological applications of RF EMF, and, therefore, advises positively  
24 on the need of a technical revision of the annexes in Council Recommendation  
25 1999/519/EC and Directive 2013/35/EU with regard to radiofrequency electromagnetic  
26 fields (100 kHz to 300 GHz).

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## 28 **3 MINORITY OPINIONS**

29 None

30

## 31 **4 METHODOLOGY**

### 32 **4.1 Data/Evidence**

33 The SCHEER, on request of Commission services, provides scientific opinions on questions  
34 concerning health, environmental and emerging risks. The scientific assessments carried  
35 out should always be based on scientifically accepted approaches, and be transparent with  
36 regard to the data, methods and assumptions that are used in the risk assessment process.  
37 They should identify uncertainties and use harmonised terminology, where possible, based  
38 on internationally accepted terms. In its scientific work, the SCHEER relies on the  
39 Memorandum on Weight of Evidence (WoE) and uncertainties (SCHEER, 2018), *i.e.*, the  
40 search for relevant information and data for the SCHEER comprises of identifying,  
41 collecting and selecting possible sources of evidence in order to perform a risk assessment  
42 and/or to answer the specific questions being asked. For each line of evidence, the criteria  
43 of validity, reliability and relevance need to be applied and the overall quality must be  
44 assessed.

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## **4.2 Background**

### **4.2.1 SCENIHR (2015) Opinion – Summary on biological and health effects**

#### **4.2.1.1 Introduction**

The SCENIHR Opinion of 2015 on “Potential health effects of exposure to electromagnetic fields (EMF)” investigated the whole frequency spectrum from static fields to 300 GHz. Here we repeat only the main findings that pertain to the frequency range of 100 kHz to several GHz. In 2015, when that Opinion was published, there were very few studies investigating potential biological, non-thermal effects of sub-THz fields. *In vivo* studies in these frequencies indicated mainly beneficial effects but did not address acute and chronic toxicity or carcinogenesis. *In vitro* studies on mammalian cells differed greatly with respect to irradiation conditions and endpoints under investigation. There were studies suggesting health effects of exposure, but these had not been replicated. Some theoretical mechanisms had also been proposed, but there was no experimental evidence for them.

#### **4.2.1.2 Cancer**

The SCENIHR concluded that, overall, the epidemiological studies on mobile phone RF EMF exposure showed neither an increased risk of brain tumours, nor an increased risk for other cancers of the head and neck region. Some studies, however, had raised questions regarding an increased risk of glioma and acoustic neuroma in heavy users of mobile phones. The results of cohort and incidence time trend studies did not support an increased risk for glioma at that time (2015), while the possibility of an association with acoustic neuroma remained open. Epidemiological studies did not indicate increased risk for other malignant diseases, either, including childhood cancer.

#### **4.2.1.3 Brain physiology and function**

The SCENIHR found good evidence that mobile phone RF EMF exposure might affect brain activities as reflected by EEG studies during wake and sleep. However, given the variety of applied fields, duration of exposure, number of considered leads, and statistical methods, it was not possible at that time to derive firm conclusions. For event-related potentials and slow brain oscillations, results were inconsistent, as well. The relevance of the small physiological changes reflected on the EEG remains unclear and mechanistic explanation is still lacking. Moreover, at that time (2015), there was a lack of evidence that mobile phone RF EMF affected cognitive functions in humans, because effects had been found in individual studies (typically observed only in a small number of endpoints) but with little consistency between studies.

According to the SCENIHR, symptoms attributed to RF EMF exposure could sometimes cause serious impairments to a person’s quality of life. However, the SCENIHR concluded that RF EMF exposure was not causally linked to these symptoms, and this applied to the general public, to children and adolescents, as well as to people with idiopathic environmental intolerance attributed to electromagnetic fields (IEI-EMF).

Human studies on neurological diseases and symptoms showed no clear effect, but the evidence was limited.

#### **4.2.1.4 Fertility, Reproduction, and Childhood Development**

The SCENIHR Opinion concluded that there were no adverse effects on reproduction and development from RF fields at non-thermal exposure levels. Human studies on child development and behavioural problems presented conflicting results and methodological limitations. Therefore, the evidence of an effect is weak. Effects of exposure on fetuses from mother’s mobile phone use during pregnancy were not plausible owing to extremely low foetal exposure. Studies on male fertility were of poor quality and provided little evidence.



## 1 **4.2.2 ICNIRP (2020) Guidelines - Summary on biological and health effects**

### 2 **4.2.2.1 Introduction**

3 The ICNIRP bases its guidelines on substantiated adverse health effects, which are  
4 different from biological effects. The ICNIRP considers that reported adverse effects of RF  
5 EMF health need to be independently verified, be of sufficient scientific quality and be  
6 consistent with current scientific understanding in order to be used for setting exposure  
7 restrictions. However, these requirements may be relaxed if there is sufficient additional  
8 knowledge (such as understanding of the relevant biological interaction mechanism) to  
9 confirm that adverse health effects are reasonably expected to occur. The ICNIRP  
10 considers the potential for different types of RF EMF exposure to adversely affect health,  
11 including sinusoidal (e.g., continuous wave) and non-sinusoidal (e.g., pulsed) signals, and  
12 both acute and chronic exposures.

### 13 **4.2.2.2 Brain physiology and function**

14 Most double-blind human experimental studies on cognitive performance, cerebral blood  
15 flow or event-related potential measures of cognitive function did not report an association  
16 with RF EMF exposure. A number of sporadic findings have been reported, which may be  
17 a result of the large number of statistical comparisons and occasional chance findings.  
18 However, studies analysing frequency components of the EEG have reliably shown that  
19 the 8–13 Hz alpha band in waking EEG and the 10–14 Hz “sleep spindle” frequency range  
20 in sleep EEG are affected by RF EMF exposure with specific energy absorption rates (SAR)  
21 <2 W/kg, but there is no evidence that these relate to adverse health effects. There is  
22 limited epidemiological research on higher cognitive function. There have been reports of  
23 subtle changes to performance measures with RF EMF, but findings have been  
24 contradictory and alternative explanations for observed effects are plausible.

25 A small portion of the population attributes non-specific symptoms to RF EMF exposure  
26 (IEI-EMF). Double-blind experimental studies have provided evidence that “belief about  
27 exposure” (e.g., the so-called “nocebo” effect), and not exposure itself, is the relevant  
28 symptom determinant. Epidemiological research has addressed potential long-term effects  
29 of radiofrequency EMF exposure from fixed site transmitters and devices used close to the  
30 body on both symptoms and well-being. Methodological concerns for such studies include  
31 selection bias, reporting bias, poor exposure assessment, and nocebo effects. In studies  
32 on mobile phone use, for example, it is difficult to differentiate between potential effects  
33 from RF EMF exposure and other consequences of mobile phone use, such as sleep  
34 deprivation when using the mobile phone at night. In summary, no reports of adverse  
35 effects of RF EMF exposures on symptoms and wellbeing have been substantiated, except  
36 for pain, which is related to elevated temperature at high exposure levels (from both direct  
37 and indirect exposure).

38 Several studies have included multiple cell lines and assessed functions such as intra- and  
39 intercellular signalling, membrane ion channel currents and input resistance, Ca<sup>2+</sup>  
40 dynamics, signal transduction pathways, cytokine expression, biomarkers of  
41 neurodegeneration, heat shock proteins, and oxidative stress-related processes. However,  
42 most of these studies have focused on *in vitro* experiments. There is no evidence of effects  
43 of RF EMF on physiological processes that impair human health.

### 44 **4.2.2.3 Auditory, Vestibular, and Ocular function**

45 A change in the ICNIRP (2020) Guidelines compared to the ICNIRP (1998) Guidelines is  
46 that the latest Guidelines do not provide a restriction to specifically account for “microwave  
47 hearing”, a biological phenomenon, which can result from brief (35 - 100 µs) RF pulses  
48 exposing the head and causing thermoelastic expansion that is detected by sensory cells  
49 in the cochlea via the same processes involved in normal hearing. The decision of the  
50 ICNIRP not to provide an exposure restriction is based on the lack of evidence that  
51 microwave hearing in any realistic exposure scenarios can affect health.

1 Epidemiological research addressing sensory effects has concentrated on mobile phones.  
2 The research does not provide evidence that this exposure is associated with increased  
3 risk of tinnitus, hearing impairment, or other adverse effects on vestibular or ocular  
4 function of humans. Some evidence of superficial eye damage has been shown in rabbits  
5 at exposures of at least 1.4 kW/m<sup>2</sup>.

#### 6 **4.2.2.4 Neuroendocrine System**

7 The effect of RF EMF exposure on several hormones (including melatonin, growth  
8 hormone, luteinizing hormone, cortisol, epinephrine, and norepinephrine) has been  
9 assessed in a small number of studies, and no consistent evidence of effects has been  
10 observed. The lowest exposure level at which an effect of RF EMF on the neuroendocrine  
11 system has been observed is 4 W/kg (in rodents and primates), accompanied by a core  
12 temperature increase of 1°C or more. There is no evidence that this experimental finding  
13 translates to humans or that it is relevant to human health.

#### 14 **4.2.2.5 Neurodegenerative diseases**

15 Due to ethical considerations, no human experimental studies exist for adverse effects on  
16 neurodegenerative diseases. It has been reported that exposure to pulsed RF EMF  
17 increased neuronal death in rats, which could potentially contribute to an increased risk of  
18 neurodegenerative disease. However, other studies have failed to confirm these results.

19 A cohort study has investigated potential effects of mobile phone use on  
20 neurodegenerative disorders. It reported reduced risk estimates for Alzheimer disease,  
21 vascular and other dementia, and Parkinson disease, which could be the result of reverse  
22 causation: Prodromal symptoms of the disease may prevent persons with early symptoms  
23 to start using a mobile phone. Results from studies on multiple sclerosis are inconsistent,  
24 with no effect observed among men, and a borderline increased risk in women, but with  
25 no consistent exposure-response pattern.

#### 26 **4.2.2.6 Cardiovascular system, Autonomic Nervous System, and** 27 **Thermoregulation**

28 Body heating from the absorption of RF energy can put the cardiovascular system under  
29 stress and may lead to adverse health effects. Numerous human studies have investigated  
30 indices of cardiovascular, autonomic nervous system, and thermoregulatory function,  
31 including measures of heart rate and heart rate variability, blood pressure, body, skin and  
32 finger temperatures, and skin conductance. Most studies indicate that there are no effects  
33 on endpoints regulated by the autonomic nervous system. Few epidemiological studies on  
34 cardiovascular, autonomic nervous system, or thermoregulation outcomes are available,  
35 and they have not demonstrated a link between RF EMF exposure and measures of  
36 cardiovascular health. Human health and the cardiovascular system are not compromised  
37 when the whole-body average SAR is below approximately 4 W/kg, with harm only found  
38 in animals exposed to whole-body average SAR substantially higher than 4 W/kg.

#### 39 **4.2.2.7 Immune System and Haematology**

40 According to the ICNIRP, the few human studies that have been conducted have not  
41 provided any evidence that RF EMF affect health in humans via the immune system or  
42 haematology.

#### 43 **4.2.2.8 Fertility, Reproduction, and Childhood Development**

44 Several animal studies have shown that exposure to RF EMF leading to a significant  
45 temperature increase can cause effects on reproduction and development, which include  
46 increased embryo and foetal losses, increased foetal malformations and anomalies, and  
47 reduced foetal weight at term. Such exposures can also cause a reduction in male fertility.  
48 Some studies have reported effects on male fertility at exposure levels below a whole-  
49 body average SAR of 4 W/kg, but these studies have had methodological limitations.

1 The ICNIRP mentions that some epidemiological studies have reported associations  
2 between RF EMF and sperm quality or male infertility, but these studies suffer from  
3 limitations in study design or exposure assessment. The few epidemiological studies  
4 performed about maternal mobile phone use during pregnancy have not shown any  
5 substantiated evidence that RF EMF exposure from maternal mobile phone use affects  
6 child cognitive or psychomotor development or causes developmental milestone delays.

#### 7 **4.2.2.9 Cancer**

8 ICNIRP concludes that, despite the reports of effects of RF EMF exposure on several cellular  
9 and molecular processes (including cell proliferation, differentiation and apoptosis-related  
10 processes, proto-oncogene expression, genotoxicity, increased oxidative stress, and DNA  
11 strand breaks), there is no substantiated evidence of health-relevant effects.

12 Concerning animal studies on the effect of RF EMF exposure on carcinogenesis there have  
13 been reports of positive effects, but, in general, these studies either have shortcomings in  
14 methodology (e.g., untested animal models) or dosimetry, or the results have not been  
15 verified in independent studies.

16 The ICNIRP makes special note of the two recent animal studies investigating the  
17 carcinogenic potential of long-term exposure to RF EMF associated with mobile phones and  
18 mobile phone base stations: four by the U.S. National Toxicology Program and the other  
19 from the Ramazzini Institute in Italy. According to ICNIRP, although both studies used  
20 large numbers of animals, best laboratory practice, and exposed animals for the whole of  
21 their lives, they also have inconsistencies and important limitations that affect the  
22 usefulness of their results for setting exposure guidelines. Of particular importance is that  
23 the statistical methods employed were not sufficient to differentiate between  
24 radiofrequency-related and chance differences between treatment conditions;  
25 interpretation of the data is difficult due to the high body core temperature changes that  
26 resulted from the very high exposure levels used; and no consistency was seen across  
27 these two studies.

28 A large number of epidemiological studies of mobile phone use and cancer risk have been  
29 performed. Most have focused on brain tumours, acoustic neuroma and parotid gland  
30 tumours, although some studies have also been conducted on other types of tumours  
31 (leukaemia, lymphoma, uveal melanoma, pituitary gland tumours, testicular cancer, and  
32 malignant melanoma). With a few exceptions, the studies have used a case-control design  
33 and have relied on retrospectively collected self-reported information about mobile phone  
34 use history. Only two cohort studies with prospective exposure information are available.  
35 No cohort studies (which unlike case control studies are not affected by recall or selection  
36 bias) report a higher risk of glioma, meningioma, or acoustic neuroma among mobile  
37 phone subscribers or when estimating mobile phone use through prospectively collected  
38 questionnaires. The only study available on mobile phone use in children and brain tumour  
39 risk showed no increased risk of brain tumours.

40 Studies of exposure to environmental RF EMF, for example from radio and television  
41 transmitters, have not provided evidence of an increased cancer risk either in children or  
42 in adults. The ICNIRP concludes that no effects of RF EMF on the induction or development  
43 of cancer have been substantiated.

#### 44 **4.2.3 WHO Survey on Priority Outcomes**

45 Given the large number of health endpoints that have been studied, WHO wanted to  
46 prioritise those that would merit systematic reviews (Verbeek *et al.*, 2021). They  
47 developed a survey listing of 34 health endpoints reported in the literature organised in  
48 eight broad categories:

- 49 – Health effects due to temperature increase
- 50 – Cancer
- 51 – Fertility and birth outcomes

- 1 – Symptoms affecting health
- 2 – Neurological impairments and disorders
- 3 – Neuroendocrine effects
- 4 – Immunological effects
- 5 – Haematological effects

6 They asked 300 RF EMF experts and researchers to prioritise these health effects for  
7 systematic review following the GRADE approach. They asked the respondents to use a  
8 scale from 1 to 9, where 1–3 meant unimportant, 4–6 meant important but not critical for  
9 decision-making and 7–9 meant critical for decision-making. For ratings above 3, the  
10 respondents were asked to provide a rationale for their rating based on one or more of  
11 the following five categories: (1) evidence from human studies, (2) evidence from animal  
12 studies, (3) evidence from *in vitro* studies, (4) possible public health impact, (5) public  
13 concern. An open-ended answer was also provided, where the respondent could list other  
14 outcomes not included the list. To include an outcome in a systematic review, the WHO  
15 team used a cut-off at around 30% of the participants answering that this outcome was  
16 critical for decision making.

17 Of the 300 RF EMF experts queried, 164 (54%) responded to the online questionnaire in  
18 the period between 29 May 2018 and 24 June 2018. They rated cancer, heat-related  
19 effects, adverse birth outcomes, electromagnetic hypersensitivity, cognitive impairment,  
20 adverse pregnancy outcomes and oxidative stress as the most critical outcomes regarding  
21 RF EMF exposure. WHO has recently commissioned systematic reviews on ten of these  
22 outcomes through an open call for expression of interest. A selection committee convened  
23 by WHO ranked the teams based on the criteria related to qualifications and skills  
24 mentioned in the calls, including expertise in systematic review methodology, RF EMF  
25 expertise and expertise in the outcome of interest. All team members were assessed for  
26 conflicts of interest, as per WHO's requirements. Some protocols for the systematic  
27 reviews have already been published in Elsevier's *Environment International*, and more  
28 are expected to follow:

- 29 – The protocol to conduct the systematic review of *in vivo* and *in vitro* experimental  
30 studies to analyse and synthesize the available evidence on oxidative stress induced by  
31 RF exposure has been already published (Henschenmacher *et al.*, 2021), while the  
32 systematic review is in progress.
- 33 – A protocol for a systematic review on the effects of exposure to radiofrequency  
34 electromagnetic fields on cognitive performance in human experimental studies was  
35 published (Pophof *et al.*, 2021). If the data basis permits, evidence will be reviewed  
36 separately for seven domains of cognitive performance: (1) Orientation and attention,  
37 (2) Perception, (3) Memory, (4) Verbal functions and language skills, (5) Construction  
38 and motor performance, (6) Concept formation and reasoning, and (7) Executive  
39 functions.
- 40 – The protocol for the systematic review of human observational studies on the effects of  
41 RF EMF exposure on tinnitus, migraine, and non-specific symptoms in the general and  
42 working population has been published by Rösli *et al.* (2021).
- 43 – The effects of RF EMF exposure on human self-reported symptoms studied in human  
44 experimental studies will be systematically reviewed with a protocol published by  
45 Bosch-Capblanch *et al.* (2022).
- 46 – The protocol for the systematic review of effects on male fertility and pregnancy and  
47 birth outcomes has been published by Pacchierotti *et al.* (2021).

#### 48 **4.2.4 Differences in methodology from SCENIHR (2015)**

49 In the six-year period between the 2009 and 2015 SCENIHR Opinions, about 2700 articles  
50 on RF and health effects were published, according to a search in the EMF-PORTAL  
51 (<https://www.emf-portal.org/en>), which is the internet information platform of the RWTH  
52 Aachen University summarising systematically scientific research data on the effects of

1 EMF. (All information is made available in both English and German.) In the six-year period  
2 between 2015 and 2020, a further 3270 articles were published. Due to the increased  
3 number of meta-analyses and systematic reviews, it was decided to address the Terms of  
4 Reference of the current Opinion using mainly meta-analyses and systematic reviews,  
5 since they can efficiently handle the heterogeneity of individual studies resulting in an  
6 improved reliability of the level of evidence. When there was a lack of meta-analyses  
7 and/or systematic reviews on a biological/health effect, other reviews or research papers  
8 that fulfilled the required quality criteria were used for risk assessment (SCHEER, 2018).

9

## 10 **5 ASSESSMENT**

### 11 **5.1 Exposure to RF EMF**

#### 12 **5.1.1 Wireless communication technologies**

##### 13 **5.1.1.1 Typical exposure of population**

14 In a systematic literature review, Sagar *et al.* (2017) assessed RF EMF exposure in  
15 everyday microenvironments in Europe. The authors systematically searched the ISI Web  
16 of Science for relevant literature published between 30 April 2015 and 1 January 2000.  
17 Twenty-one published studies met their eligibility criteria, of which 10 were spot  
18 measurements studies, five were personal measurement studies with trained researchers  
19 (microenvironmental), five were personal measurement studies with volunteers and one  
20 was a mixed methods study combining data collected by volunteers and trained  
21 researchers. The mean total RF EMF exposure for spot measurements in European  
22 "Homes" and "Outdoor" microenvironments was 0.29 and 0.54 V/m, respectively. In the  
23 studies of personal measurements by trained researchers, the mean total RF EMF exposure  
24 was 0.24 V/m in "Home" and 0.76 V/m in "Outdoor". In the personal measurement studies  
25 with volunteers, the population-weighted mean total RF EMF exposure was 0.16 V/m in  
26 "Homes" and 0.20 V/m in "Outdoor". Among all European microenvironments in  
27 "Transportation", the highest mean total RF EMF of 1.96 V/m was found in trains in  
28 Belgium during 2007 (more than 95% of exposure was contributed by uplink). There were  
29 considerable differences between studies according to the type of measurements  
30 procedures, which prevented cross-country comparison or evaluating temporal trends.

31 Jalilian *et al.* (2019) updated the systematic review mentioned above. They reported that  
32 mean RF EMF values in homes, schools and offices were between 0.04 and 0.76 V/m. Mean  
33 outdoor exposure values ranged from 0.07 to 1.27 V/m, with downlink signals from mobile  
34 phone base stations being the most relevant contributor to environmental EMF. Exposure  
35 tended to increase with increasing urbanity. The values of EMF exposure in public transport  
36 (bus, train and tram) and cars were between 0.14 and 0.69 V/m. The highest levels, up to  
37 1.97 V/m, were measured in public transport stations with downlink as the most relevant  
38 contributor. In line with previous studies, RF EMF exposure levels were highest in the  
39 transportation systems, followed by outdoor and private indoor environments. According  
40 to the authors, there has been no noticeable increase in everyday RF EMF exposure since  
41 2012, despite increasing use of wireless communication devices.

42 In an attempt to assess RF EMF exposure in the general population, van Wel *et al.* (2021)  
43 took an integrative approach (distinguishing the contribution of various sources) for  
44 individual exposure assessment at the organ scale. They developed the Integrated  
45 Exposure Model (IEM), which combines energy absorbed due to use of and exposure to RF  
46 EMF sources and applied it to a sample of the general population to derive population RF  
47 EMF estimates. The IEM used SAR transfer algorithms to provide RF EMF daily dose  
48 estimates (mJ/kg/day) using source-specific attributes (e.g., output power, distance),  
49 personal characteristics and usage patterns. Information was obtained from an  
50 international survey performed in four European countries with 1755 participants. The  
51 model-obtained median whole-body and whole-brain doses were 183.7 and 204.4

1 mJ/kg/day, respectively. Main contributors to whole-brain dose were mobile phone near  
 2 the head for calling (2G networks) and far-field sources, whereas the latter together with  
 3 multiple other RF EMF sources were main contributors for whole-body dose. For other  
 4 anatomical sites, 2G phone calls, mobile data and far-field exposure were important  
 5 contributors.

6 Using an integrated exposure model, Birks *et al.* (2021) estimated the daily RF dose in the  
 7 brain (whole-brain, cerebellum, frontal lobe, midbrain, occipital lobe, parietal lobe,  
 8 temporal lobes) and the whole body in 8358 children (ages 8–12) and adolescents (ages  
 9 14–18) from the Netherlands, Spain, and Switzerland during 2012–2016. The integrated  
 10 model estimated RF dose from near-field sources (digital enhanced communication  
 11 technology (DECT) phone, mobile phone, tablet, and laptop) and far-field sources (mobile  
 12 phone base stations via 3D modelling or RF measurements). The results of the study show  
 13 that adolescents were more frequent mobile phone users and experienced higher modelled  
 14 RF doses in the whole-brain (median 330.4 mJ/kg/day) compared to children (median  
 15 81.8 mJ/kg/day). Children spent more time using tablets or laptops compared to  
 16 adolescents, resulting in higher RF doses in the whole-body (median whole-body dose of  
 17 81.8 mJ/kg/day) compared to adolescents (41.9 mJ/kg/day). Among brain regions,  
 18 temporal lobes received the highest RF dose (medians of 274.9 and 1786.5 mJ/kg/day in  
 19 children and adolescents, respectively) followed by the frontal lobe. In most children and  
 20 adolescents, calling on 2G networks was the main contributor to RF dose in the whole-  
 21 brain (medians of 31.1 and 273.7 mJ/kg/day, respectively). This study of RF dose to the  
 22 brain and body of children and adolescents shows that mobile phone calls on 2G networks  
 23 are the main determinants of brain dose, especially in temporal and frontal lobes, whereas  
 24 whole-body doses are mostly determined by tablet and laptop use.

25 Since pattern of use is the main determinant for the dose produced by mobile phone  
 26 devices, recent studies have also focused on the exposure assessment of specific groups  
 27 by examining use patterns within these groups. Langer *et al.* (2017) reported the pattern  
 28 of cellular phone use among young people in 12 countries during the Mobi-Expo study.  
 29 Participants in the study were 534 young people (10–24 years) who installed a specifically  
 30 designed software application on their smartphones to collect data on the use of wireless  
 31 telecommunications devices (Table 1). The role of gender, age, maternal education,  
 32 calendar period, and country was evaluated through multivariate models mutually  
 33 adjusting for all variables. Call number and duration were higher among females compared  
 34 to males (geometric mean (GM) ratio 1.17 and 1.42, respectively), among 20–24 year  
 35 olds compared to 10–14 year olds (GM ratio 2.09 and 4.40, respectively), and among  
 36 lowest compared to highest social classes (GM ratio 1.52 and 1.58, respectively). The  
 37 number of SMS was higher in females (GM ratio 1.46) and the middle-age group (15–19  
 38 year olds: GM ratio 2.21 compared to 10–14 year olds) and decreased over time. Mobile  
 39 data use was highest in the oldest age group, whereas Wi-Fi use was highest in the middle-  
 40 age group. Both data and Wi-Fi use increased over time. Large differences in the number  
 41 and duration of calls, SMS, and data/Wi-Fi use were seen by country, with country and  
 42 age accounting for up to 50% of the variance. Hands-free and laterality of use did not  
 43 show significant differences by sex, age, education, study period, or country.

44 Table 1. Data on the use of wireless telecommunication devices (adapted from Langer *et*  
 45 *al.*, 2017)

Variable	Mean (SD)	Median (IQR)
Number of calls per week	30.6 (32.0)	20.9 (29.0)
Total duration in minutes per week	60.8 (80.1)	34.3 (65.3)
Number of SMS sent and received per week	106.3 (251.7)	26.6 (80.5)
Data use per week (Mb)	121.4 (246.8)	36.1 (116.4)
Wi-Fi use per week (Mb)	768.1 (1352.4)	249.2 (733.5)
% hands-free of total call time	18.8 (20.3)	10.6 (18.1)

% right-handed laterality of call time near head	63.8 (25.3)	70.8 (37.2)
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### 2 **5.1.1.2 Dosimetry in epidemiological studies**

3 The problem of dosimetry in epidemiological studies was also highlighted in the SCENIHR  
4 Opinion of 2015. Here we summarize the studies that have since been published.

5 It is difficult to interpret the epidemiological studies on health effects from mobile phone  
6 use because of uncertainties in the exposure assessment. A newly developed smart phone  
7 application (XMobiSense) is used to validate self-reported mobile phone use and behaviour  
8 among adults in (Goedhart *et al.*, 2015). XMobiSense was used by 107 adults recruited in  
9 the Netherlands. Participants with no (n=5) or less than 3 weeks (n=6) of data recorded  
10 by the app were excluded from the analyses, leaving a final sample of 96 participants for  
11 the analyses. For participants with a long period of data recording (n=5), data were  
12 truncated at 6 weeks. Recorded outgoing calls included both successful and unsuccessful  
13 (ie, no connection) calls, while the self-reported information most likely only included the  
14 successful calls. Sensitivity analyses were performed to explore the impact of excluding  
15 recorded outgoing calls of 10 s or less (potentially unsuccessful). Recorded data transfer  
16 was calculated in megabytes (MB) per week, while self-reported total time spent using the  
17 Internet was calculated in minutes per week. The recorded variables laterality (right/left  
18 side), hands-free device usage and 'other hands-free usage' were recalculated from  
19 seconds per call to percentage over the total call time, thereby accounting for call duration.

20 An important finding was the significant impact of the level of phone use on the recall,  
21 that is, participants with a higher level of reported phone use were more likely to  
22 overestimate their number and duration of calls, while underestimation was more likely  
23 among participants who reported lower levels of use. The same trend was observed in the  
24 INTERPHONE study.

25 This has important implications for epidemiological studies on mobile phone use, as it will  
26 most likely lead to an underestimation of the risk, if any, for adverse health outcomes. RF  
27 dose models based on the recalled number and duration of calls should therefore account  
28 for differential recall errors by level of phone use.

29 Although the location of RF exposure from data transfer (frontal lobe of the brain and/or  
30 other parts of the body) and the distance to the body is different from voice calls, the  
31 enormous increase in data transfer due to the arrival of smart phones makes it an  
32 important source to consider in defining RF dose from mobile phones. People are often  
33 unaware of the data transfer on their mobile phone, possibly by applications that run in  
34 the background (push messages).

35 A study was devoted to recall of mobile phone usage (Goedhart *et al.*, 2018). The authors  
36 observed differences in recall by country, age, maternal educational, and amount of  
37 reported phone use. Differences by country were not observed in the CEFALO validation  
38 study (2 countries) (Aydin *et al.*, 2011a), but were seen in the Interphone validation study  
39 among adults (11 countries; (Vrijheid *et al.*, 2006a, Vrijheid *et al.*, 2006b)). In the  
40 Goedhart *et al.* study, where, as in the Interphone one, the same protocol and software  
41 app were applied in each country, the authors cannot easily explain the different ratios  
42 between self-reported and recorded use (ranging from 0.31 to 0.96 for number of calls  
43 and from 0.56 to 3.61 for duration of calls) found between the countries, other than  
44 cultural differences in the way people recall their use. It might be important to take these  
45 differences into account in future studies and in exposure studies.

46 Toledano *et al.* (2018) investigated the validity of self-reported mobile phone use in a  
47 subset of 75 993 adults from the international prospective cohort study of mobile phone  
48 users and health (COSMOS). Agreement between self-reported and operator-derived  
49 mobile call frequency and duration for a 3-month period was assessed using Cohen's  
50 weighted Kappa ( $\kappa$ ). Sensitivity and specificity of both self-reported high ( $\geq 10$  calls/day  
51 or  $\geq 4$  h/week) and low ( $\leq 6$  calls/week or  $< 30$  min/week) mobile phone use were

1 calculated, as compared to operator data. For users of one mobile phone, agreement was  
2 fair for call frequency ( $\kappa=0.35$ , 95% CI: 0.35, 0.36) and moderate for call duration  
3 ( $\kappa=0.50$ , 95% CI: 0.49, 0.50). Self-reported low call frequency and duration demonstrated  
4 high sensitivity (87% and 76% respectively), but for high-call frequency and duration  
5 sensitivity was lower (38% and 56% respectively), reflecting a tendency for greater  
6 underestimation than overestimation. Validity of self-reported mobile phone use was lower  
7 in women, younger age groups and those reporting symptoms during/shortly after using  
8 a mobile phone. This study highlights the ongoing value of using self-report data to  
9 measure mobile phone use. Furthermore, compared to continuous scale estimates used  
10 by previous studies, categorical response options used in COSMOS appear to improve  
11 validity considerably, most likely by preventing unrealistically high estimates from being  
12 reported.

13 The issue of epistemic uncertainty is reviewed and interpreted in the context of the  
14 MoRPhEUS, ExPOSURE and HERMES cohort studies which investigate the effect of  
15 radiofrequency electromagnetic radiation from mobile phones on memory (Brzozek *et al.*,  
16 2018). These uncertainties are derived from a wide range of sources including human  
17 error, such as data transcription, model structure, measurement and linguistic errors in  
18 communication. Research into this field has found inconsistent results due to limitations  
19 from a range of epistemic sources. Potential analytic approaches are suggested based on  
20 quantification of epistemic error using Monte Carlo simulation. It is recommended that  
21 future studies investigating the relationship between radiofrequency electromagnetic  
22 radiation and memory performance pay more attention to the treatment of epistemic  
23 uncertainties as well as further research into improving exposure assessment. Use of  
24 directed acyclic graphs is also encouraged to display the assumed covariate relationship.

25 On the issue of dosimetry for epidemiological studies on potential health effects of mobile  
26 phones, the SCHEER can conclude that

- 27 - the assessment of the exposure should be based on objective measurements, not on  
28 the personal recalls or provider's information originating mainly from the bills paid  
29 (unsuccessful calls are not paid but the EMF emission is there while the customer  
30 waits);
- 31 - estimation of the EMF dose received should reflect the differences observed (both self-  
32 reporting and the app usage – the solid angle of the EMF flux depends on the device  
33 location with respect to human body/head);
- 34 - validity can be improved considerably by preventing unrealistically high estimates  
35 from being considered from self-reports;
- 36 - epistemic or reducible uncertainties can also affect the total error in results in addition  
37 to statistical variability usually considered as the main source of errors; these  
38 uncertainties must be derived from a wide range of sources including human error,  
39 such as data transcription, model structure, measurement and linguistic errors in  
40 communication.

### 41 **5.1.2 Exposure from emerging technologies**

42 Smart meters and sensor networks (the Internet of Things, IoT) are becoming increasingly  
43 popular in all environments. Measurements of the RF EMF emitted from such devices in  
44 the residential environment have shown that residential levels of RF EMF exposure are  
45 low. Some residential devices can significantly increase the exposure if their duty cycles  
46 are high enough (>10%), especially when held or used close to the body. Individual smart  
47 meters, on the other hand, contribute little in general, despite emissions of up to 20 V/m  
48 at 50 cm, due to their low duty cycles (maximum 1%) and locations (Aerts *et al.*, 2019).  
49 So, in addition to the continuous exposure to environmental EMF, wireless access points  
50 (due to frequent use) and especially mobile phones and other personal communication  
51 devices (due to their use close to the body) continue to represent the bulk of the RF EMF  
52 exposure in the smart home.



1 The fifth generation (5G) of broadband cellular networks technology is a key enabling  
 2 technology for the proliferation of the IoT (Dangi *et al.*, 2022). It uses devices within  
 3 frequency range 1 (FR1) (< 6 GHz) and frequency range 2 (FR2) (24 – 54 GHz), that is a  
 4 range of higher frequencies than those used in 4G (fourth generation) networks. The result  
 5 is that some 5G signals do not travel large distances (over a few hundred meters), unlike  
 6 4G or lower frequency 5G signals (sub 6 GHz). The use of the higher frequency band (FR2)  
 7 requires positioning 5G base stations every few hundred meters.

8 Millimetre waves are very weak in their ability to connect two devices, which is why 5G  
 9 needs something called 'small cells' to give full, uninterrupted coverage. Small cells are  
 10 essentially miniature cell towers that would be placed 250 meters apart throughout cities  
 11 and other areas needing coverage. The small cells are necessary as emissions (or signals)  
 12 at this higher frequency/shorter wavelength have more difficulty passing through solid  
 13 objects and are even easily intercepted by rain. The small cells could be placed on anything  
 14 from trees to streetlights to the sides of businesses and homes to maximise connection  
 15 and limit 'dead zones' (areas where connections are lost) (Al-Falahy & Alani, 2017).

16 The fastest 5G speeds would be in the millimetre wave band and can reach 4 Gbit/s with  
 17 carrier aggregation and MIMO (multiple-input multiple-output) technology.

18 Another novel feature in 5G that triggers health concerns among the public is MIMO  
 19 adopted in 5G Base Stations (BS). In fact, MIMO and beamforming techniques have also  
 20 been considered in 4G networks. However, there are two substantial differences compared  
 21 to previous networks, *i.e.*, higher maximum output power and dynamic pencil beam  
 22 forming with a larger number of antenna elements. The maximum transmitted power by  
 23 a 5G BS can reach up to 200 W, almost double the corresponding value for a 4G BS. This  
 24 increase in power can trigger the population's concern about potential health risks  
 25 (Ericsson, 2018). Since the radiation pattern with massive MIMO varies over time and  
 26 space, traditional assessment of compliance procedures to quantify the exposure can be  
 27 misleading. These classical methods rely on conservative assumptions, *e.g.*, all the users  
 28 are in the same location that coincides with the testing point. These assumptions over-  
 29 estimate the exposure from 5G BSs, leading to a lower maximum allowable power and a  
 30 larger exclusion zone (Baracca *et al.*, 2018; Chiaraviglio *et al.*, 2021). However, stochastic  
 31 dosimetry approaches offer a solution to exposure characterisation in 5G MIMO networks  
 32 (Al Hajj *et al.*, 2020; Bonato *et al.*, 2021).

### 33 **5.1.3 Factors affecting exposure to RF EMF**

34 The factors that determine exposure to RF EMF (mainly from cellular networks) have been  
 35 detailed with the introduction of the Exposure Index (EI) concept, which looks at the  
 36 exposure of a population during a given time frame in a given area incurred by a wireless  
 37 cellular network as a whole, aggregating downlink (DL) exposure induced by base stations  
 38 and access points and the uplink (UL) exposure incurred by all individual wireless  
 39 communication devices, including devices operated by other users nearby. To assess the  
 40 realistic exposure of a population, many factors need to be considered: age (adult and  
 41 child exposure are different), posture, usage, technology, environment, and more (Varsier  
 42 *et al.*, 2015).

43 The EI is given by the formula:

$$EI^{SAR} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_t^{N_T} \sum_p^{N_P} \sum_e^{N_E} \sum_r^{N_R} \sum_c^{N_C} \sum_l^{N_L} \sum_{pos}^{N_{pos}} \int_{t,p,e,r,l,c,pos} f_{t,p,e,r,l,c,pos} \left[ \sum_u^{N_U} (d^{UL} \bar{P}_{TX}) + d^{DL} \bar{S}_{inc} + d^{DL,closeddevices} S_{inc}^{DL,closed devices} \right] \left[ \frac{W}{kg} \right]$$

44 where:

45  $N_T$  is the number of Time periods within the time frame T, *e.g.*, a single day;

46  $N_P$  is the number of Population categories;

47  $N_E$  is the number of Environments;

- 
- 1  $N_R$  is the number of Radio access technologies (RAT);  
2  $N_C$  is the number of Cell types;  
3  $N_U$  is the number of Usages with devices;  
4  $N_L$  is the number of user Load profiles;  
5  $N_{pos}$  is the number of considered Postures;  
6  $\bar{P}_{TX}$  (W) is the mean transmission (TX) power by the users' devices during period  $t$ , in  
7 usage mode  $u$ , connected to RAT  $r$ , in environment  $e$ . A TX power values map is given for  
8 the whole considered geographical area and the average value is taken into account for EI  
9 evaluation;  
10  $\bar{S}_{inc}$  (W/m<sup>2</sup>) is the mean incident power density on the human body during period  $t$ , induced  
11 by RAT  $r$ , in environment  $e$ . A distribution of the incident power density for the whole  
12 considered geographical area is considered and the average value over this area is taken  
13 into account for EI evaluation;  
14  $S_{inc}^{DL,closeddevices}$  (W/m<sup>2</sup>) is incident power density on the human body during period  $t$ , induced  
15 by a wireless device connected to RAT  $r$  of a user in proximity to environment  $e$ . This term  
16 will be significant for people in proximity of users of a wireless device; for instance, in a  
17 crowded meeting room, in public transportation, etc.;  
18  $d^{UL}$  (J/kg/W),  $d^{DL,closeddevices}$  (J/kg/(W/m<sup>2</sup>)) and  $d^{DL}$  (J/kg/(W/m<sup>2</sup>)) are normalised raw dose  
19 values for UL, DL from the user in the proximity, and DL from base stations and access  
20 points, respectively, all multiplied by time spent in configuration; and  $f_{t,p,e,r,l,c,pos}$  is the  
21 fraction of the total population that corresponds to population category  $p$ , user load profile  
22  $l$ , in posture  $pos$ , connected to RAT  $r$ , for cell type  $c$ , in environment  $e$ , during time period  
23  $t$ .  
24 In more detail, for a given geographical area, EI takes the following into account: time  
25 period: configurations of the network and of usages depend on time of day (power density  
26 will be higher during rush hours); population: segmented in different categories, as  
27 different population categories will have different life segmentations and different usages  
28 of wireless devices, e.g., children (less than 15 years old), young people (15–29), adults  
29 (30–59), and seniors (60 and older); different user load profiles: wireless device usages  
30 will be dramatically different depending on the profile, and as repartitions of user profiles  
31 will also differ depending on the population category (e.g., heavy, medium, light, or non-  
32 users); environment: indoor (office, home), outdoor, and in transportation (bus, car,  
33 subway etc.); different available Radio Access Technologies (RATs): e.g., 2G (900 and  
34 1800 MHz), 3G, 4G, WiFi; the number of considered RATs depends on the scenario;  
35 different cell types: macro, micro, pico, and femto cells; the accessibility to different cell  
36 types depends on scenario; posture: sitting, standing; different body postures will lead to  
37 different absorption rates in the human body; and usage: a device (e.g., mobile, PC,  
38 laptop) and its usage (e.g., voice call, data) (Varsier *et al.*, 2015).  
39 As technology progresses, the spectrum of wireless devices broadens (e.g., wireless virtual  
40 reality devices) (Liorni *et al.*, 2020), more information is collected on 'life segmentation'  
41 (*i.e.*, people's activities and the way they spend their time) and other factors (e.g.,  
42 sex/gender) that define the usage of these wireless devices (van Wel *et al.*, 2021). It is  
43 clear by now that near-field exposure is related not only to the RAT but also to the mobile  
44 application (*i.e.*, the software) running on the wireless terminal (Paljanos *et al.*, 2016). At  
45 the same time the computational and experimental techniques for assessing exposure to  
46 EMF are advancing, allowing for increasingly accurate exposure characterisation and  
47 dosimetry (Hirata *et al.*, 2021).

## 48 **5.2 Interaction mechanisms**

### 1 **5.2.1 Thermal effects**

2 Tissue heating is an important effect of RF EMF exposure of biological organisms that has  
3 been unequivocally demonstrated. The amount and distribution of the energy absorbed in  
4 a biological object exposed to RF energy is related to the internal electric and magnetic  
5 fields. As the incident wave penetrates a biological object, the fields interact at the various  
6 tissue interfaces resulting in a complex distribution of the local fields. These internal fields  
7 are related to a number of parameters including frequency, dielectric properties of the  
8 tissues, geometry and orientation of the object with respect to the incident field vectors,  
9 and whether the exposure is in the near or far field of the source. The resulting distribution  
10 of energy can be described in terms of the specific absorption rate (SAR), *i.e.*, the time  
11 derivative of the incremental energy absorbed by (dissipated in) an incremental mass  
12 contained in a volume element of a given density (Adair and Petersen, 2002).

13 As frequency increases, the penetration depth of the field decreases<sup>15</sup>. For muscle (tissues  
14 with high water content) it reduces from about 3.5 cm at 1 GHz to about 0.3 mm at  
15 100 GHz (millimetre waves). As a result, energy absorption becomes superficial and can  
16 lead to surface heating. Heat transport near the skin surface is dominated by thermal  
17 conduction into the tissue due to the high temperature gradients at the skin, and only a  
18 small fraction of the absorbed energy is lost back into the surrounding environment. The  
19 increase in surface temperature is determined by the rate of heat generation in the layer  
20 near the surface where most of the RF radiation is absorbed, the rate of diffusion of heat  
21 out of the region of high SAR (a relatively fast process due to the small thickness of this  
22 layer), and the rate of removal of heat to the body core by blood perfusion (a much slower  
23 process). Heat rapidly diffuses from the thin layer where most RF energy at millimetre  
24 wave frequencies is absorbed, but if energy is pushed into it sufficiently rapidly (*i.e.*, if the  
25 incident power density is high), significant temperatures increases can develop (Hirata *et*  
26 *al.*, 2021). Short pulses of millimetre waves at high fluence can induce large transient  
27 increases in surface temperature (Foster *et al.*, 2018; Neufeld and Kuster, 2018) as can  
28 pulsed narrow beams (Neufeld *et al.*, 2020).

29 It has been shown that the surface temperature elevation strongly correlates the  
30 transmitted or absorbed power density (APD) across the millimetre wave range (30–300  
31 GHz), whereas the SAR remains a good metric for skin temperature rise for exposure at  
32 frequencies lower than 3 GHz (Li *et al.*, 2019).

### 33 **5.2.2 Cellular interaction mechanisms**

34 The preamble to the IARC Monographs on the Identification of Carcinogenic Hazards to  
35 Humans, has given new emphasis and highlighted the importance of mechanistic studies  
36 in corroborating evidence and providing biological plausibility to other types of studies,  
37 and the possibility that they could provide strong evidence in case of consistent findings  
38 demonstrated across a number of different systems and in different species. Given the  
39 increasing emphasis on mechanistic data, the IARC Preamble also recognises the  
40 importance of evaluating the quality of the study design, exposure assessment methods  
41 and biological assay validity (IARC 2019).

42 Several studies have investigated potential cellular mechanisms that can operate at RF  
43 exposure levels found in the everyday environment. Here we focus on *in vitro* studies that  
44 can provide essential information on specific cell properties, and allow a more rapid, cost-  
45 effective and well-controlled approach to molecular and mechanistic studies than  
46 conventional laboratory animal models. Several cellular endpoints have been analysed as  
47 presented in a recent metanalysis by Halgamuge *et al.* (2020) which included data from  
48 *in vitro* studies published between 1990 and 2015 and investigating effects of weak RF  
49 EMF from mobile phones.

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<sup>15</sup> Penetration depth in a medium is the distance from the boundary of a medium to the point at which the field strengths have been reduced to  $1/e$  of their initial boundary value in the medium.

1 To date the most investigated critical conditions that could provide evidence of a  
2 mechanism by which RF exposure might affect human health are oxidative stress,  
3 genotoxicity, epigenetics effects, effects on calcium signalling pathways and on apoptosis.  
4 It is worth mentioning that for these studies to be effective in providing mechanistic  
5 understanding, methodological quality is mandatory but it still is a critical issue since the  
6 majority of studies do not comply with quality criteria which include adequate attention to  
7 dosimetry, inclusion of sham control, positive control, blind evaluation and temperature  
8 control (Zeni and Scarfi, 2012; Simko *et al.*, 2016; Vijayalaxmi and Foster, 2021)  
9 Moreover, in the majority of review papers, the study inclusion criteria did not take into  
10 account the aspects of quality of experimental methods, which have been widely  
11 demonstrated to affect the results (Simko *et al.*, 2016; Vijayalaxmi and Foster, 2021).

### 12 **5.2.2.1 Oxidative stress**

13 Oxidative stress is a critical condition that could provide evidence of a mechanism by which  
14 RF exposure might affect human health. It occurs when the production of oxidants  
15 overrides the antioxidant capability of the cells. As a result, the oxidants react with  
16 macromolecules like proteins, lipids and nucleic acids giving raise to alteration in cellular  
17 functions related to several diseases like cancer and neurodegenerative diseases.

18 In many studies, experimental evidence has been accumulated that RF exposure may  
19 affect biomarkers of oxidative stress at exposure level close to or above the ICNIRP  
20 guidelines but there are no systematic reviews or meta-analysis available. In 2020, the  
21 WHO commissioned a systematic review of *in vivo* and *in vitro* experimental studies to  
22 analyse and synthesise the available evidence on oxidative stress induced by RF exposure  
23 (see 4.2.3 above). For this reason, we focus here on narrative reviews. Most of the  
24 identified narrative reviews do not apply a systematic literature search and include studies  
25 that do not adhere to basic quality criteria defined a priori and have a high risk of bias.  
26 Therefore, these reviews are not informative enough to conclude on oxidative stress  
27 mechanisms induced by RF exposure, and thus are not useful for the purpose of this  
28 Opinion.

29 The most comprehensive and informative narrative review is the one co-authored by  
30 Schuermann and Mevissen (2021). It includes information sources and, although the  
31 authors did not set quality criteria for the inclusion of studies, they discussed the  
32 importance of sham control and temperature control together with the quality of the  
33 dosimetry analysis to determine the actual SAR level experienced by the animals and the  
34 cultured cells. This review reports on key experimental findings on oxidative stress deriving  
35 from *in vivo* (animals, 70 studies) and *in vitro* (cells, 56 studies) studies published in the  
36 last decade. The results are discussed in the context of molecular mechanisms that can be  
37 relevant for human health. The authors grouped the studies for the impact on nervous  
38 system, on reproduction, and on blood and immune system. Also, a correlation with  
39 functional analysis is included to look for temporary or persistent effects. They concluded  
40 on the increased oxidative stress due to RF EMF as from the majority of animal studies  
41 and from half of the cellular studies, but they pointed out that some studies were subjected  
42 to methodological uncertainties or weakness or were not very comprehensive regarding  
43 exposure time, SAR level, number and quantitative analysis of the endpoints analysed.  
44 The trend the authors evidenced is that, even at low dose exposure, RF can affect cellular  
45 oxidative balance that can also lead to an adaptation mechanism after a recovery phase,  
46 thus not leading to health effects. Authors evidenced that standardised conditions are  
47 mandatory to better understand and confirm their conclusions.

### 48 **5.2.2.2 Genetic and epigenetic effects**

49 The DNA integrity and epigenetic mechanisms (the regulation of genes by environmental  
50 influence) are crucial for human health. Genotoxicity is one of the key biological indicators  
51 of carcinogenicity and the most common characteristics of established carcinogens (Smith  
52 and Guyton, 2020), while the epigenome is well known to be susceptible to every kind of  
53 environmental influence including the exposure to non-mutagenic carcinogens (Feil and

1 Fraga, 2012). The biological effects of RF EMF on epigenetic factors are less investigated  
2 with respect to the genotoxic effects and, in both cases, there are no systematic reviews  
3 available in the period of interest of this Opinion.

4 Genotoxicity is mainly evaluated by analysing the effects on primary (chromosomal  
5 aberrations, micronuclei, sister chromatid exchanges, aneuploidy, or mutation) and  
6 secondary (single and double strand breaks, chromatin condensations) endpoints, which  
7 are biomarkers of irreversible and repairable damage, respectively.

8 From recent narrative review papers, it appears that results are mainly inconsistent, with  
9 many experimental (*in vitro* and *in vivo*) studies showing significant genotoxicity and  
10 others reporting absence of an effect from RF exposure at intensities similar to those in  
11 the public environment. The effects, when present, are a function of frequency, amplitude,  
12 and modulation, and in most cases are not replicated in follow-up studies. (Lai, 2021;  
13 Karidipis *et al.*, 2021; Kocaman *et al.*, 2018; Jagetia, 2022). One of the most important  
14 agents explaining the genotoxic effects of RF are the reactive oxygen species (ROS), since  
15 the energy level of RF EMF is not sufficient to break the intermolecular chemical bonds,  
16 and the intracellular effects of RF appear indirectly, the effect of free radicals being the  
17 most relevant (Kocaman *et al.*, 2018).

18 Most of these review papers also highlight the importance of the methodological quality of  
19 the experimental studies. Thus, in order to consider the available genotoxicity results  
20 concerning exposure to RF EMF, it is important to check if quality control measures were  
21 included in the experiments, as the absence of the latter introduce a methodological bias.  
22 The SCHEER noted that based on the review by Vijayalaxmi and Prihoda (2019), the  
23 percentages of publications reporting no significant difference (NSD) in genetic damage  
24 between RF-exposed and control cells were positively correlated with the increase in the  
25 number of quality control measures/score adopted in the investigations. On the other  
26 hand, the number of publications reporting increased genetic damage (INC) in RF-exposed  
27 animal and human cells was negatively correlated with the number of quality control  
28 measures/score used in the investigation. The meta-analysis data also highlighted the  
29 existence of publication bias. Moreover, the comprehensive review of quality assessment  
30 made in this study also revealed that when exposure to RF energy was at a high SAR level,  
31 there was increased damage due to a thermal phenomenon or due to the presence of  
32 highly localised hot spots.

33 The same authors, in a previously carried out meta-analysis, showed that the mean indices  
34 for chromosome aberration, micronuclei, and sister-chromatid exchanges in RF-exposed  
35 and sham-exposed/unexposed controls were within the spontaneous levels reported in a  
36 large database. Studies, published from 1990 to 2011, addressing genetic damage in  
37 animal and human cells exposed *in vitro* to RF EMF were included in that meta-analysis  
38 (Vijayalxmi and Prihoda, 2012).

39 The SCHEER noted that in 2021 a protocol for a quality-based systematic review of  
40 experimental studies investigating genotoxic effects induced by RF EMF in *in vitro* cell  
41 models was published. It is worth noting that WHO did not commission this protocol, but  
42 the systematic review that will follow will surely contribute to providing a mechanistic  
43 understanding with respect to the genotoxic potential of RF EMF. The importance of  
44 conducting genetic damage investigations is supported by the fact that most genotoxic  
45 agents are carcinogens. Since no single genetic damage test is capable of detecting all  
46 genotoxic agents, the recommendation is to conduct a battery of *in vitro* and *in vivo* tests  
47 for genetic damage assessment (Sasaki *et al.*, 2000).

### 48 **5.2.2.3 Calcium signalling**

49 A role for calcium as a molecular mechanism underlying the non-thermal interaction of RF  
50 EMF has been hypothesised due to the involvement of calcium signalling pathways in the  
51 regulation of many essential cellular processes.

1 A well-conducted narrative review has been co-authored by Wood and Karidipis (2021).  
2 As a result of a transparent bibliographic search, 30 *in vitro* and *in vivo* papers dealing  
3 with the effect of RF exposure on Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels have been analysed to see whether a  
4 consistent picture can be drawn. To analyse effects in the single papers, the authors  
5 computed the effect size (ES) defined as the difference between the means of the exposed  
6 and sham groups divided by the standard deviation of the sham group. Moreover, they  
7 assigned a quality score to each paper based on the attention given to aspects like  
8 dosimetry, sham control, positive controls and blinding. In 60% of the analysed papers, a  
9 change in intracellular calcium was reported with the number of papers reporting an  
10 increase approximately equal to the papers reporting decrease. The greatest proportion  
11 (40%) reported no changes. Analysis of effects size (ES) vs. carrier frequency and  
12 modulation type did not evidence any significant relationship. The majority of the studies  
13 with a higher quality score did not report an effect. There was no consistent evidence of  
14 PD or SAR windows although the authors pointed out that estimation of exposure is to be  
15 used with caution since in some cases the procedure for exposure levels is not clearly  
16 described. Moreover, they evidenced that the direction of the effect moved from  
17 cytoplasmic loss to cytoplasmic gain as methods for estimating calcium levels have  
18 become more sophisticated. The papers in which the voltage-gated calcium channels  
19 (VGCCs) were investigated by direct measurement of cell Ca<sup>2+</sup> current are particularly  
20 interesting since such channels have been suspected to be susceptible to RF fields due to  
21 the coupling of RF to cells and the demodulation of extremely low frequency modulations  
22 from the RF carrier (Pall M., 2013; Pall M., 2014). These papers did not show significant  
23 effect due to RF exposure and thus do not support the claim that VGCCs are particularly  
24 sensitive to environmental RF exposure. Based on the overall results of these reviews, the  
25 authors concluded that future good quality experiments are needed to support the claim  
26 that calcium levels are affected by RF exposure.

#### 27 **5.2.2.4 Apoptosis**

28 Apoptosis is an important cell death programme, highly conserved within multicellular  
29 organisms and genetically controlled, which is responsible for the removal of damaged,  
30 dysfunctional or no longer necessary cells to promote homeostasis and the survival of  
31 organisms.

32 A scoping review (Romeo *et al.*, 2022) has been recently published that systematically  
33 maps the research regarding the effects of RF EMF on apoptosis in mammalian cells. A  
34 systematic literature search was performed, and the review was restricted to studies that  
35 adhere to basic quality criteria defined a priori (sham control, at least three independent  
36 experiments, appropriate dosimetry analysis and temperature monitoring). The authors  
37 concluded that most retrieved papers failed in complying with the presence of sham  
38 controls and dosimetry analysis, or of appropriate methods for dosimetry analysis.  
39 Moreover, most of the included studies did not find significant alterations of the apoptotic  
40 process due to RF EMF exposure. The authors pointed out that the scoping review laid the  
41 ground for a quantitative analysis of the papers included and addressing mainly questions  
42 on the direction of the effect (induction or suppression of apoptosis), effect size, possible  
43 dose-response relationship, possible major capability of certain exposure parameters to  
44 exert an effect.

#### 45 **5.2.3 Conclusions on interaction mechanisms**

46 Thermal effects of RF EMF are well established and have been extensively studied.  
47 Computational and experimental studies have shown that by limiting recently introduced  
48 dosimetric quantities, like absorbed power density (APD), it is possible to control the  
49 superficial and fast tissue heating that might result from emerging applications using  
50 millimetre waves.

51 Reviews dealing with the effects of RF exposure on oxidative stress, genetic and epigenetic  
52 effects, and calcium signalling have been considered here to provide evidence of a cellular  
53 mechanism operating at RF exposure levels found in the everyday environment.

1 There are no systematic reviews and meta-analyses available for oxidative stress,  
2 epigenetic effects and calcium signalling.

3 The current scientific evidence, based on the narrative reviews, suggests that the cellular  
4 oxidative balance may likely be affected, although its correlation with possible adverse  
5 effects is not clear.

6 The interaction mechanisms causing genotoxicity and epigenetic effects are not fully  
7 understood. The induction of increased levels of ROS (reactive oxygen species) measured  
8 in cells and tissues has been used as a marker of DNA impairment. In this sense, it is  
9 anticipated that exposure over time to RF EMF might result in building up ROS and  
10 disruption of homeostasis with epigenetic effects.

11 There are no consistent effects on calcium signalling or on apoptosis.

12 In all cases, methodological quality arises as a critical issue that needs to be taken into  
13 account both in the case of individual studies and for the inclusion of studies in review  
14 papers.

15 In conclusion, there is no consistent evidence of biological effects involving oxidative  
16 balance, genetic and epigenetic effects, and calcium signalling that can support and  
17 strengthen the evidence from epidemiological and *in vivo* studies on RF exposure, following  
18 the WoE assessment of health risks.

## 19 **5.3 Health effects**

### 20 **5.3.1 Neoplastic diseases**

#### 21 **5.3.1.1 Epidemiological studies**

22 Results from several epidemiological studies on the association between use of mobile  
23 phones and the development of brain cancer are ambiguous. In the following paragraphs,  
24 a presentation and discussion of findings from systematic reviews and meta-analysis are  
25 presented.

26 In one of the first meta-analyses in the field conducted in 2016, Prasad *et al.* (2017)  
27 analysed information from 14 case control studies (that were conducted from 1996-2016);  
28 This showed no significant increase in the risk of brain tumours due to mobile phone use  
29 [OR 1.03 (95% CI 0.92–1.14)]. However, for mobile phone use of 10 years or longer (or  
30 >1640 h), the authors concluded that the overall result of the meta-analysis showed a  
31 significant 1.33-times increased risk. Meta-regression analysis indicated that the observed  
32 effect was significantly associated with methodological study quality, but no relationship  
33 between source of funding and the pooled effect was evident.

34 In 2016, Wang and Guo published a meta-analysis that aimed to evaluate the association  
35 between mobile phone use and glioma risk through pooling the published data from 2001  
36 to 2008. They screened the open access published case-control or cohort studies about  
37 mobile phone use and glioma risk. After searching the relevant databases, they included  
38 11 studies. The combined data showed that there was no association between mobile  
39 phone use and glioma odds (OR = 1.08, 95% confidence interval 0.91–1.25); but a  
40 significant association was found between mobile phone use of more than 5 years and  
41 glioma risk (OR = 1.35, 95% CI: 1.09–1.62). Thus, the authors concluded that long-term  
42 mobile phone use may increase the risk of developing glioma. Another, more recent meta-  
43 analysis (Wang *et al.*, 2018) also evaluated wireless phone use risk of glioma. Ten studies  
44 on the association of wireless phone use and risk of glioma were included. The combined  
45 odds ratio of adult gliomas associated with “ever use of wireless phones”, as reported by  
46 the participants, was 1.03 (95% confidence interval 0.92, 1.16), with high heterogeneity  
47 (I<sup>2</sup> 54.2%). In subgroup analyses, no significant association was found between tumour  
48 location in the temporal lobe and adult glioma risk. A significant association with risk of  
49 glioma was more prominent in long-term users (>10 years) with odds ratio of 1.33 (95%  
50 CI 1.05-1.67). The authors concluded that “ever use of wireless phones” was not

1 significantly associated with risk of adult glioma, but there could be increased risk in long-  
2 term users.

3 In line with the aims of the previous meta-analysis, the objective of Yang *et al.*, (2017)  
4 study was to investigate the potential association between mobile phone use and  
5 subsequent glioma risk using meta-analysis. They performed a systematic search for  
6 studies reporting relevant data on mobile phone use and glioma in the period 1980 to  
7 2016. This meta-analysis included 11 studies comprising a total of 6,028 cases and 11,488  
8 controls. There was a significant positive association between long-term mobile phone use  
9 (> 10 years) and glioma incidence (OR = 1.44, 95% CI 1.08-1.91), and a significant  
10 positive association between long-term ipsilateral mobile phone use and the risk of glioma  
11 (OR = 1.46, 95% CI 1.12-1.92). Moreover, long-term mobile phone use was associated  
12 with 2.22 times greater odds of low-grade glioma incidence (OR = 2.22, 95% CI 1.69-  
13 2.92). It is notable that mobile phone use of any duration was not associated with the  
14 odds of high-grade glioma. Contralateral mobile phone use was not associated with glioma  
15 regardless of the duration of use. Similarly, this association was not observed when the  
16 analysis was limited to high-grade glioma. In another meta-analysis by Bortkiewicz *et al.*  
17 (2017), which included 24 case-control studies (26,846 cases, 50,013 controls) that were  
18 published before the end of March 2014, a significantly higher risk of an intracranial  
19 tumour (all types) was noted for the period of mobile phone use over 10 years (odds ratio  
20 (OR) = 1.324, 95% CI: 1.028–1.704), and for the ipsilateral location (OR = 1.249, 95%  
21 CI: 1.022–1.526). The authors concluded that findings support the hypothesis that long-  
22 term use of mobile phone increases the risk of intracranial tumours, especially in the case  
23 of ipsilateral exposure.

24 In a more recent meta-analysis of 46 case-control studies, Choi *et al.* (2020) investigated  
25 whether cellular phone use was associated with increased risk of tumours. Compared with  
26 never or rarely having used a cellular phone, regular use was not associated with tumour  
27 risk in the random-effects models. However, in the subgroup meta-analysis by research  
28 group, there was a statistically significant positive association (harmful effect) in the  
29 Hardell *et al.* studies (OR, 1.15, 95% CI: 1.00-1.33, n = 10), a statistically significant  
30 negative association (beneficial effect) in the INTERPHONE-related studies (case-control  
31 studies from 13 countries coordinated by the International Agency for Research on Cancer  
32 (IARC); (OR, 0.81, 95% CI: 0.75-0.89, n = 9), and no significant association in other  
33 research groups' studies. The authors concluded that cellular phone use with cumulative  
34 call time more than 1000 h significantly increased the risk of tumours; however, the  
35 heterogeneity on the findings should be further explored. In addition, the later meta-  
36 analysis triggered significant criticism. Brzozek *et al.* (2021) underlined important  
37 methodological issues and incorrect interpretations in their commentary. In particular,  
38 Brzozek *et al.* noted that the authors of the meta-analysis mentioned that the  
39 INTERPHONE group was unfairly and repeatedly criticised for being funded by the cellular  
40 phone industry, even whilst acknowledging agreements that guaranteed the study's  
41 complete scientific independence. Secondly, the authors of the meta-analysis argued that  
42 the Hardell subset of studies were of higher quality compared to the INTERPHONE studies.  
43 Although the Hardell studies were like the INTERPHONE studies, there were subtle  
44 methodological differences in recruitment, subject age and status, exclusion criteria, data  
45 collection, definition of regular phone use etc., which could account for the different  
46 results. According to Brzozek *et al.*, a closer look at the methodological differences does  
47 not show the Hardell studies to be of higher quality than the INTERPHONE studies.  
48 Moreover, the Hardell studies included a wider age range (20–80 years) compared to the  
49 INTERPHONE studies (generally 20–69 years); it could be hypothesised that a greater age-  
50 range although increasing the sample size of the study, it did not add to statistical power  
51 and may lead to the inclusion of tumours with recognizably different aetiology. Moreover,  
52 exposure misclassification remains a prominent issue in both groups of studies with Hardell  
53 defining "any use" as regular phone use. This is questionable because it includes casual  
54 phone users. If mobile phones truly cause cancer, but only at higher exposures, employing  
55 such a definition of regular use means that the effect might be weakened. Finally, Brzozek  
56 *et al.* noted that the meta-analysis which pooled different types of case-control studies



1 and tumour types together was limited, as these tumours may have different aetiologies  
2 and no viable biological mechanism to how a cellular phone use exposure could cause  
3 these various tumours. Moreover, de Vocht and Rösli (2021) also made significant  
4 criticism of the meta-analysis by Choi *et al.*; they underlined that the observational  
5 epidemiological studies used were susceptible to various biases that can result in under-  
6 or over-reporting of the true effects. De Vocht and Rösli suggest that in-depth evaluation  
7 is needed to understand why the studies by the Hardell group provide different results  
8 than most other case-control studies. In the absence of direct evidence for any causes of  
9 these differences, triangulation of epidemiological studies susceptible to different types of  
10 biases, as well as with evidence from animal and laboratory studies is warranted. Although  
11 some uncertainties remain, de Vocht and Rösli concluded, most notably for highest  
12 exposed users, that we can be reasonably sure that the current evidence has converged  
13 to somewhere in the range of an absence of excess risk to a moderate excess risk for a  
14 subgroup of people with highest exposure.

15 Intracranial tumours are rare diseases, with their incidence rates varying between 7 to 10  
16 per 100,000. Current epidemiologic evidence suggest that the most frequently reported  
17 histology is meningioma, followed by gliomas, pituitary gland tumours, and nerve sheath  
18 tumours. In a meta-analysis published in 2019 by Rösli *et al.*, mobile phone use and risk  
19 of intracranial and salivary gland tumours was evaluated. The meta-analysis included both  
20 case-control and cohort studies published up to the end of 2017. Glioma was the most  
21 frequently studied type of tumour in relation to mobile phone use; results of the meta-  
22 analysis showed no indication for an increased risk of glioma (pooled RR 1.11, 95%CI 0.85  
23 to 1.46, n =7), acoustic neuroma (pooled RR 1.19, 95%CI 0.80 to 1.79, n =6),  
24 meningioma (pooled RR 1.03, 95%CI 0.90 to 1.17, n =6), pituitary (pooled RR 1.07,  
25 95%CI 0.64 to 1.77, n =4) and salivary gland tumours (pooled OR 0.74, 95%CI 0.48 to  
26 1.15, n =6). Authors of the meta-analysis also underlined that the inconsistencies in their  
27 findings with some other meta-analyses might be due to methodological reasons, such as  
28 multiple counting of the same individual data or combined different disease entities and  
29 recall bias, particularly in case-control studies. Especially for glioma and acoustic neuroma,  
30 the pooled effect estimates of the meta-analysis were mainly driven by the pooled Orebro  
31 studies (Hardell and Carlberg, 2015; Hardell *et al.*, 2013), which produced excess pooled  
32 estimates of risk that are hardly ever observed in clinical setting.

33  
34 In another meta-analysis of three case-control studies that evaluated the association  
35 between mobile phone use and parotid gland tumours, authors reported that cell phone  
36 use was associated with greater odds (OR = 1.28, 95%CI: 1.09-1.51) to develop salivary  
37 gland tumours. It is noted that an ecological study by Karipidis *et al.* (2021) exists, in  
38 which the investigators performed analyses of incidence time trends to estimate the annual  
39 percentage change of salivary gland cancers of all available national registration data from  
40 1982 to 2016, in Australia. Their results did not indicate that mobile phone use was  
41 correlated with the incidence of parotid or other salivary gland cancers across time.  
42 However, these findings should be interpreted in light of several methodological issues  
43 that such designs carry, like ecological bias, residual confounding, and effect modification  
44 of exposure-related factors.

45  
46 Finally, in a recently published large-scale observational prospective study that was  
47 conducted during 1996-2001 with follow up in 2011, among 1.3 million women born  
48 between 1935-1950, and followed up via record linkage to National Health Services  
49 databases, no significant associations were observed of "ever mobile phone use" with  
50 incident brain tumours, meningioma, pituitary tumours, and acoustic neuroma, as  
51 compared to "never users" (Schüz *et al.*, 2022). Specifically, compared with never-users,  
52 no significant associations were found, overall or by tumour subtype, for daily cellular  
53 telephone use or for having used cellular telephones for at least 10 years. However, the  
54 authors acknowledged a number of limitations which the SCHEER also considered, namely,  
55 that the exposure to mobile phones assessment was very simple, there was a lack of  
56 detailed cellular telephone use history and lack of information on the type of cellular

1 telephone technology used. Moreover, misclassification may have also occurred in the first  
2 years of follow-up, especially due to the rapid grow of mobile phones use observed in the  
3 later years. Although this was an observational study with known limitations, the SCHEER  
4 has presented its results here because of its methodological merits in the recruitment of  
5 participants.

### 6 **5.3.1.2 In vivo studies**

7 Between 2015 and 2021, in total five carcinogenicity studies published in three papers  
8 (NTP, 2018a; NTP, 2018b; Falcioni *et al.*, 2018), one pilot study (de Seze *et al.*, 2020)  
9 and one co-carcinogenicity study were identified (Lerchl *et al.*, 2015).

10 Several aspects of the NTP and Falcioni *et al.* studies were already commented on  
11 elsewhere (e.g., ARPANSA 2018; Belpoggi *et al.*, 2021; BERENIS, 2018; Elwood & Wood,  
12 2019; FDA, 2020; Garofalo *et al.*, 2020; ICNIRP, 2020; Kuhne *et al.*, 2020; Lin, 2019;  
13 Melnick, 2020; SSM, 2019).

14 Results from four extensive carcinogenesis studies conducted by the National Toxicology  
15 Program (NTP), USA, were published in two reports (NTP, 2018a; NTP, 2018b). Hsd:  
16 Sprague Dawley SD rats were exposed to 900 MHz GSM- or CDMA-modulated signals at  
17 whole-body specific absorption rates (wbSAR) of 1.5, 3 or 6 W/kg (NTP, 2018a), and  
18 B6C3F1/N mice to 1900 MHz GSM- or CDMA-modulated signals at wbSARs of 2.5, 5 or 10  
19 W/kg (NTP, 2018b). Each sham and exposure group consisted of 90 males and 90 females.  
20 The animals were exposed daily in an intermittent 10-min field on, 10 min-field off scheme.  
21 Exposures were interrupted from 7 to 11 a.m. and from 2 to 3:40 p.m. which led to a  
22 cumulative exposure of 9 h 10 min per day. Average wbSARs were kept constant during  
23 animals' entire life. Rats' exposure began in utero (on gestation day 5) and continued for  
24 107 weeks after birth. In mice, it started at 5-6 weeks of age and continued for 106 and  
25 108 weeks in males and females respectively.

26 The prominent finding was an increased incidence of malignant schwannomas in the heart  
27 of male rats. It occurred with a statistically positive trend (GSM,  $p=0.041$ ; CDMA,  
28  $p=0.011$ ) with increasing wbSAR. In 1.5, 3, and 6 W/kg exposed males the malignant  
29 heart schwannomas (GSM 2/90 [ $p=0.297$ ], 1/90 [ $p=0.540$ ], and 5/90 [ $p=0.080$ ],  
30 respectively; CDMA 2/90 [ $p=0.273$ ], 3/90 [ $p=0.175$ ], and 6/90 [ $p=0.030$ ], respectively)  
31 were increased compared to sham exposed rats (0/90). Thus, it may be concluded that  
32 the observation of malignant heart schwannomas in male rats is considered to be  
33 significant at the highest dose level (6 W/kg wbSAR) tested in CDMA.

34 Overall, NTP's summarising conclusions were: In male SD rats "for both GSM- and CDMA-  
35 modulated RFR, we conclude that exposures increased the number of animals with  
36 tumours in the heart. Tumours of the brain were also considered to be related to exposure;  
37 and increased numbers of male rats with tumours of the adrenal gland were also related  
38 to exposure. We are uncertain whether occurrences of prostate gland, pituitary gland, and  
39 pancreatic islet tumours in male rats exposed to GSM-modulated RFR and pituitary gland  
40 and liver tumours in male rats exposed to CDMA-modulated RFR were related to RFR  
41 exposures. This was also the case with female rats, where we conclude that exposure to  
42 GSM- or CDMA-modulated RFR may have been related to tumours in the heart. For females  
43 exposed to CDMA-modulated RFR, occurrences of brain and adrenal gland tumours may  
44 have been related to exposure" (NTP, 2018a).

45 "For GSM-modulated RFR, we conclude that exposure to RFR may have caused tumours  
46 in the skin and lungs of male B6C3F1/N mice and malignant lymphomas in female mice.  
47 For CDMA-modulated RFR, we conclude that exposure to RFR may have caused tumours  
48 in the liver of male mice and malignant lymphomas in female mice" (NTP, 2018b).

49 The strengths of the NTP studies are:

- 50 • study reports with all study details are publicly available (NTP, 2018a,b),
- 51 • detailed dosimetry (Capstick *et al.*, 2017; Gong *et al.*, 2017),

- 1 • testing two species as it is usual practice when interpreting cancer results for
- 2 application to humans (Elwood & Wood, 2019),
- 3 • three exposure levels used in each study,
- 4 • GLP, animal facility accredited by AAALAC International,
- 5 • sentinel animal programme,
- 6 • single cage housing (one animal per cage), *i.e.*, no shielding by other animals in
- 7 the cage
- 8 • complete histopathology including peer review and standardized pathology
- 9 nomenclature,
- 10 • availability of published historical control data (NTP 2020),
- 11 • group size above average.

12 Limitations are:

- 13 • no temperature measurements but strong evidence on thermoregulatory stress in
- 14 the "high dose" groups (wbSAR of 6 W/kg) of male rats (Kuhne *et al.*, 2020),
- 15 • differences in body weight development and survival between sham and exposed
- 16 males,
- 17 • only one concurrent sham control group per species,
- 18 • no cage control group.

19 The controversial discussion about the results of the rat studies is mainly based on

- 20 • the lack of tumours in the sham controls, while there were tumours in the historical
- 21 controls (NTP, 2020), and
- 22 • the strong evidence on significant temperature fluctuations in exposed aged male
- 23 rats, likely causing lower body weights and probably effecting survival and tumour
- 24 incidences.

25 This results in a considerable uncertainty about how to interpret the results of the NTP rat

26 studies (SSM, 2019) whereas the mouse studies showed equivocal results describing

27 background fluctuations of the observed tumours "and not an increase caused by exposure

28 to RF radiation" (FDA, 2020).

29 A fifth large rat carcinogenicity study reporting heart schwannomas was conducted by

30 Falcioni *et al.* (2018). Already in 2005 starting the experiment, they exposed 2,448 male

31 and female of the Institute's own Sprague-Dawley rats prenatally from the 12th day of

32 gestation until their natural death for 19 h/day to a 1800 MHz GSM far field signal which

33 was reported to be 0.001, 0.03 or 0.1 W/kg wbSAR. After weaning, five rats per cage

34 (1025 cm<sup>2</sup> floor area) were irradiated. Histopathology data were reported for brain and

35 heart only.

36 In-life data of mean water and food consumption, body weight development or survival

37 did not differ between sham and exposed groups, either in male or female rats. Compared

38 to sham controls the incidence of heart schwannomas in male rats exposed at the highest

39 wbSAR (0.1 W/kg) increased significantly (0/412 vs. 3/207). In addition, increased

40 incidences of heart Schwann cell hyperplasia in males (3/412 vs. 5/207) and females

41 (2/405 vs. 2/202) and malignant glial tumours in females only (2/405 vs. 3/202) were

42 reported, but these were not statistically significant.

43 Strengths of the study are

- 44 • the group sizes (n >>200 per group and sex),
- 45 • three exposure levels,
- 46 • survival time of animals, and
- 47 • standardised pathology nomenclature.

48 Limitations are

- 49 • the lack of dosimetry,
- 50 • crowded cages resulting in rats' shielding each other and potentially stressed
- 51 animals (hierarchy conflicts and fights, particularly in males),

- 1 • missing data on potential loss of animals due to group housing,
- 2 • no sentinel programme regarding animals' hygienic status (microbiology,
- 3 parasitology) reported,
- 4 • very limited tumour data due to incomplete histopathology (two organs only were
- 5 evaluated),
- 6 • no reference for historical control data given, and
- 7 • overall, a lot of study details according to OECD 451 and GLP guidelines are not
- 8 publicly available.

9 By contrast to the authors' conclusion, the results are not consistent with those of the NTP  
10 study, where no increased tumour incidences were found with the exposure level of 1.5  
11 W/kg (SSM, 2019). In addition, selective reporting of specific tumours is not state of the  
12 art. The authors may overcome this shortcoming with a further publication presenting all  
13 tumour data and adequate dosimetry data.

14 Finally, de Seze *et al.* (2020) tested in male Sprague Dawley rats the effects of nanosecond  
15 high power pulsed microwaves (ns HPM). In a complex experimental design, a pilot study  
16 addressing cancer was included. Twenty-four rats were sham-exposed, another 24 animals  
17 were exposed to 3.7 GHz ns HPM. HPM were produced by a superradiance generator in  
18 the S band at 3.7 GHz with pulses of 2.5 ns. The exposure lasted 26 min/day (2 x 8 min  
19 with 10 min interval), 5 days/week for 8 weeks. The peak E-field was 0.56 MV/m.  
20 Calculations of peak SAR revealed 3.33 MW/kg and an average SAR of 0.83 W/kg.  
21 Following the 8 weeks-exposure all 48 rats were observed up to two years of age. All  
22 (tumour) masses detected in-life and during necropsy were histopathologically examined.  
23 HPM exposure caused a 4-month decrease of lifespan compared to sham controls (median  
24 lifespan of 590 days compared to 722 days). The exposed group consisted of 17 tumour-  
25 bearing rats compared to 3 in the sham group. Most of the tumours were diagnosed as  
26 (subcutaneous) fibroma, fibroadenoma and fibrosarcoma. Unfortunately, the tumour  
27 reporting did not follow international standards, and tumour statistics were not presented.  
28 But the other study limitations were discussed by the authors:

- 29 • missing numerical and experimental dosimetry and thermometry, *i.e.* SAR values  
30 were calculated,
- 31 • 0.8 Gy residual X-rays (20 mGy/d) emitted from the exposure device.

32 Summarising, the obtained results need to be proven in further state-of-the-art cancer  
33 studies, using different species and both sexes, different exposure levels, and including a  
34 positive control exposed at 0.8 Gy.

35 Addressing co-carcinogenicity, Lerchl *et al.* (2015) performed a replication of the study by  
36 Tillmann *et al.* (2010) testing the same UMTS signal but at different exposure levels and  
37 using more animals per group. Tillmann *et al.* had found an increased incidence and  
38 multiplicity of lung carcinomas as well as more liver tumours in ENU-induced and up to 24  
39 mo. (20 h/d) RF-exposed female mice compared with animals treated ENU alone. The  
40 effects on liver tumours were discounted due to possible confounding caused by bacterial  
41 (*Helicobacter* sp.) infection. UMTS exposure alone had no tumourigenic effect. Due to  
42 limitations in the design, Tillmann *et al.* rated their experiment as a pilot study which  
43 showed some co-carcinogenic effect of lifelong UMTS exposure (4.8 W/m<sup>2</sup>) in female  
44 B6C3F1 mice (SCENIHR, 2015).

45 In the study of Lerchl *et al.* (2015), ENU was administered to pregnant mice on day 16  
46 post conception (pc), which remain, starting on day 6 pc, to be exposed to a UMTS signal  
47 for 19.5 h per day during the entire pregnancy, and the offspring continued to be exposed  
48 up to a total exposure period of 72 weeks. Nominal wbSAR were 0 (sham), 0.04, 0.4 and  
49 2 W/kg and 96 females per group were used, added by a (non-ENU) cage control group.  
50 Increased incidences of bronchoalveolar and hepatic tumours and lymphomas were  
51 reported, but without an exposure-response pattern. Bronchoalveolar carcinomas and  
52 lymphomas were only increased with 0.4 W/kg, while bronchoalveolar adenomas were

1 more increased with 0.04 and 0.4 W/kg then with 2 W/kg. Hepatocellular carcinomas were  
2 increased in all exposure groups about 10 -16 % compared to sham controls.

3 With three exposure levels, group sizes of  $n = 96$  and an extensive statistical evaluation  
4 Lerchl's study offers some major advantages. On the other hand, there was no  
5 temperature monitoring, no RF only control, no data which was "either simulated or  
6 measured that correlated E-field with the desired treatment levels of whole-body SAR"  
7 (FDA, 2020), and no sentinel programme, except Helicobacter testing after one year only.

8 Nevertheless, Lerchl's experiment resulted in similar findings as described by Tillmann *et*  
9 *al.* (2010). But the results are inconsistent in that they did not demonstrate a clear dose  
10 response (SSM, 2019; FDA, 2020). Furthermore, the study was designed with very specific  
11 experimental conditions which cannot directly be extrapolated to human exposures (SSM,  
12 2019). But such studies testing potential tumour promoters may be useful as long as  
13 humans are simultaneously exposed to several tumour promoting agents and tumour  
14 initiating carcinogens, e.g., cigarette smoke (BERENIS, 2018).

### 15 **5.3.1.3 Conclusions on neoplastic diseases**

16 There is a weak weight of evidence on the interaction mechanisms causing genotoxicity  
17 and epigenetic effects, due to the severe data gaps that do not allow these mechanisms  
18 to be fully understood.

19  
20 Regarding carcinogenicity in animals, there is an overall uncertain weight of evidence due  
21 to

- 22 • the inconsistencies and partial inaccuracies in the rat studies,
- 23 • the different tumour responses in the (NTP) mouse studies compared to the rat studies  
24 (lack of species consistency in terms of observed effects), which increases uncertainty  
25 about the relevance of these effects to humans.

26 For the pilot study at present a weighing of evidence is not possible. But results should be  
27 confirmed or refuted, since the (pilot study) rats repeatedly exposed to extremely high  
28 intensity microwave pulses<sup>16</sup> with an average SAR level below the thermal threshold of 4  
29 W/kg demonstrated a tumour response.

30 Regarding co-carcinogenicity, the studies so far do not provide any further insight towards  
31 a carcinogenic risk, because mouse-specific tumours may have been promoted, but  
32 without an exposure-response pattern. Therefore, there is weak weight of evidence for the  
33 co-carcinogenicity of exposure to RF EMF, due to data gaps.

34 Several methodological issues of the reviewed meta-analyses of epidemiological studies  
35 could be identified, such as the number of independent studies included in the meta-  
36 analyses which varies considerably from very few, *i.e.*, 3, to several, *i.e.*, 15 studies. In  
37 addition, the heterogeneity of some of the meta-analyses was high, suggesting diversity  
38 in the design of the enrolled studies. For example, the variety in the period covered (e.g.,  
39 some historical studies might introduce issues concerning varying data quality), or the  
40 recruitment criteria of the participants in the individual studies and the challenges of  
41 quantification of exposure (e.g., never used, frequent user, long term user- potentially  
42 different definitions in different studies and dependent on personal recall) could be possible  
43 sources of bias and lead to additional uncertainty.

44 Regarding carcinogenicity in humans, based on the available information provided in meta-  
45 analyses, and individual studies, the weight of evidence for adverse health effects from  
46 exposure to RF EMF is uncertain.

47 In conclusion, there is overall uncertain to weak weight of evidence that exposure to RF  
48 EMF increases the risk of neoplastic diseases.

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<sup>16</sup> around 1 MV/m, "comparable to those that have in part been used in the Gulf War" (de Seze *et al.*, 2020)

## 1 **5.3.2 Neurological and neurobehavioural effects**

### 2 **5.3.2.1 Epidemiological studies**

3 There are some studies that have also focused on the impact of radio frequency EMF  
4 exposure on neurological and neurobehavioral effects.

#### 5 Neurodegenerative diseases

6 No systematic review papers or meta-analyses could be identified regarding  
7 neurodegenerative effects of RF EMF. The Health Council of the Netherlands report (2020a,  
8 2020b) underlines the limited number of studies. Indeed, only one clinical study was used  
9 for neurodegenerative diseases (13 were rejected) and 13 animal studies were considered.  
10 According to the report it is "not possible to make a statement on a relation between  
11 exposure to radiofrequency electromagnetic fields and neurodegenerative diseases" based  
12 on human studies. However, in some of the animal studies "an increased level of  
13 neurodegeneration was found, but (that) the endpoints used are widely varying. The  
14 conclusion for the frequency range of 700-2200 MHz is that effects are possible."

#### 15 Neuropsychiatric conditions

16 No systematic review papers or meta-analyses with robust design (*i.e.*, solid research  
17 hypothesis, transparent literature search, adequate number of studies included with  
18 specific inclusion and exclusion criteria), could be identified regarding the potential effects  
19 of mobile phone use on neuropsychiatric conditions.

#### 20 Neurodevelopmental disorders (e.g., autism, attention deficit, etc.)

21 No systematic review papers or meta-analyses with robust design could be identified  
22 regarding the potential effects of mobile phone use on neurodevelopmental disorders,  
23 either.

24 As a result, there are no new reviews on neuropsychiatric conditions or  
25 neurodevelopmental disorders meeting SCHEER criteria of the level of evidence, in addition  
26 to the ones included in the SCENIHR report of 2015 (SCENIHR, 2015).

### 27 **5.3.2.2 Neurophysiological and neuropsychological human studies**

#### 28 Introduction

29 Effects of RF EMF exposure can be considered/analysed at various levels. Effects on the  
30 brain, which is largely disconnected from the environment and unresponsive to exogenous  
31 stimulation, can be investigated during sleep. Three approaches can be used: 1) self-  
32 assessment of sleep quality (which belongs to the section 5.3.3), 2) objective parameters  
33 of sleep initiation, sleep maintenance, and sleep structure as derived from  
34 polysomnographic measures, and 3) quantitative measures of the sleep EEG like power  
35 spectral values. As stated earlier (see sections 4.2.1.3. and 4.2.2.2) effects have been  
36 shown repeatedly for the power spectra of the sleep and the waking EEG. The resting state  
37 waking EEG, which is usually dominated by waves in the alpha frequency range, is  
38 physiologically completely different from the sleep EEG, where slower waves prevail, *i.e.*  
39 waves in the theta and delta frequencies ranges. When the brain is challenged by external  
40 stimuli it responds with specific response patterns, *i.e.* with event-related potentials (e.g.  
41 slow cortical potentials, evoked potentials). If a reaction to the stimulus is required or a  
42 cognitive task has to be processed effects on behavioural measures like reaction times,  
43 number of correct responses etc. can also be assessed. Brain physiology and function thus  
44 encompass a large number of independent outcome parameters. Despite the importance  
45 of brain function as a target parameter in studies of effects of radiofrequency exposure,  
46 the number of systematic reviews and meta-analyses, respectively, is comparatively  
47 small.

#### 48 Cognitive function

1 For cognitive functions there is one meta-analysis (Zubko *et al.*, 2017) that addresses the  
2 effects of EMF emitted by GSM phones on working memory, which is one of several  
3 cognitive domains that can be considered. Working memory is a domain that is of special  
4 interest in normal and pathological age-related cognitive decline. The meta-analysis  
5 included 10 studies in which working memory was assessed in one or more of three tasks;  
6 n-back (0-back – 3-back), subtraction, and digit span task. Based on three to five studies,  
7 meta-analyses were performed separately for accuracy and reaction times of the four n-  
8 back tasks as well as for accuracy of the digit span task, and the reaction time of the  
9 subtraction task. The authors concluded that there is no evidence that short-term exposure  
10 has an effect on working memory.

11 In a narrative review, Curcio (2018) summarised the results of 43 experimental studies in  
12 volunteers which investigated effects of mobile phone-like signals on attention. Attention  
13 is another cognitive domain and covers selective, sustained, and divided attention. The  
14 studies are quite heterogeneous with regard to methodology, dosimetry, and statistical  
15 analyses. Thirty one studies did not report a statistically significant difference in attention  
16 between the sham and the RF exposure, nine observed a partial improvement, *i.e.* in speed  
17 of performance and/or in accuracy, while three showed inconsistent results or a worsening  
18 in performance.

19 The lack of evidence for exposure effects on attention and working memory are in line  
20 with the last SCENIHR Opinion (SCENIHR 2015). Based on criteria for inclusion, which are  
21 the same than those used by the WHO (2014), the Health Council of the Netherlands  
22 (2020a, 2020b) identified 48 experimental human studies investigating RF EMF effects on  
23 cognitive functions in the frequency ranges 700 – 2200 MHz (46 studies), 2.2 to 5.0 GHz  
24 (two studies), and 20-40 GHz (no study). Thirty-one of the 46 experimental studies  
25 identified for the frequency range 700-2200 MHz did not find an effect of exposure, seven  
26 studies reported an unfavourable effect of exposure on cognitive function while eight  
27 observed a favourable effect. One of the two studies for the frequency range 2.2 – 5.0  
28 GHz showed no effect while the other observed an unfavourable effect. Without  
29 differentiation between cognitive domains, the Health Council of the Netherlands  
30 concluded that both frequency ranges, for which data are available, favourable and  
31 unfavourable effects of RF EMF exposure are possible.

#### 32 Event-related potentials

33 SCENIHR (2015) concluded that for event-related potentials (including slow cortical  
34 potentials) results were inconsistent. Since there is no meta-analysis and no systematic  
35 review available for ERPs, the following assessment is based on the report of The Health  
36 Council of the Netherlands (2020b). The Health Council of the Netherlands (2020b)  
37 identified 27 studies, addressing effects of RF EMF exposure on event-related potentials in  
38 the frequency range 700 – 2200 MHz: For the other frequency ranges no studies were  
39 found. All studies are listed under brain electrical activity. Nineteen investigated healthy  
40 adults, three children and five patients with different neurological diseases. Approximately  
41 50% (14 out of 27) observed an effect (two of the studies in children, 4 of the studies in  
42 patients and eight in healthy subjects). For all studies in which effects were observed, it  
43 is not clear whether these are favourable or unfavourable.

#### 44 Resting-state waking EEG

45 SCENIHR (2015) concluded that mobile phone RF EMF exposure might affect brain  
46 activities as reflected by EEG studies during wake and sleep. Due to various methodological  
47 issues, it was, however, not possible to derive firm conclusions. The Health Council of the  
48 Netherlands summarised 20 studies investigating the waking EEG (700 – 2200 MHz: 19;  
49 2.2 – 5.0 GHz: 1). Overall, four studies did not observe an effect while 16 did, including  
50 the one referring to exposure at the higher frequency range. The latter observed an  
51 unfavourable effect of exposure while for all others the effect could not clearly be classified  
52 as favourable or unfavourable. Furthermore, the assessment did not take into account  
53 whether RF EMF exposure led to an increase or a decrease of the EEG spectral power.

1 Additionally, two narrative reviews were published that looked at the resting state waking  
2 EEG studies in more detail. Based on the following four inclusion criteria. 1) blind condition  
3 (single or double blind) with a crossover design, 2) EEG technique as experimental  
4 approach, 3) investigation of the waking spontaneous EEG, and 4) radiofrequency range  
5 related to MP technologies Wallace and Selmaoui (2019) identified 30 studies. Most of the  
6 studies (80%) observed an effect of RF EMF exposure on the EEG, 47% found an effect  
7 exclusively in the alpha frequency band while 30% found an effect in the alpha frequency  
8 band and other frequency bands (delta, theta, beta and gamma) as well. However, not all  
9 studies considered all frequency ranges. Studies on adolescents did not indicate that this  
10 age group had any higher degree of sensitivity than adults. On the other hand, four studies  
11 in epileptic patients showed an effect of RF EMF exposure from 2G on the EEG. The authors  
12 conclude that a direct and clear comparison of the main findings obtained so far is not  
13 easy due to the considerable differences in the experimental protocols and methods, like  
14 the nature of the RF EMF signal, its modulation, exposure duration, position of the  
15 exposure device and characteristics of the participants. The authors emphasise that future  
16 studies should use a randomised and counterbalanced double-blind cross-over design.  
17 Furthermore, studies should be carried out with a detailed dosimetry and standardised  
18 protocol criteria controlling the variability of the physiological state of the brain between  
19 participants, e.g., by performing test sessions at the same time of the day.

20 Almost at the same time, Danker-Hopfe *et al.* (2019) published a paper deriving at very  
21 similar results and recommendations. Based on a continuous monitoring of the literature  
22 published between 1997 and 2016, 39 studies investigating RF EMF effects on the resting  
23 state waking EEG were identified. Excluded were studies that were not published in English  
24 language, not published in peer-reviewed journals, where EEG was recorded for an interval  
25 of milliseconds prior to event-related potentials that did not provide sufficient description  
26 of the sample and results, or that did not explicitly investigate EEG power. Applying these  
27 criteria, 22 studies remained in the analysis. All investigated the alpha frequency band,  
28 the number of studies considering other frequency bands was lower (theta and beta: 19,  
29 delta: 17 and gamma: 7). In 64% of these studies, variation of EEG power in the alpha  
30 frequency band was observed, while in 36% no effect was observed. However, of the 14  
31 studies that showed an effect, 10 observed an increase in alpha power while four observed  
32 a decrease. All other frequency bands were also affected in at least in one (theta) up to  
33 seven (beta band) studies. As for the alpha frequency band, increases and decreases in  
34 the band specific power were observed (delta and beta). Danker-Hopfe *et al.* (2019)  
35 described in detail how various factors (e.g., age, sex, individual basic EEG rhythm,  
36 recording of the EEG in an eyes open or an eyes closed condition, topographic aspects,  
37 control of vigilance, control of consumption of stimulating substances) affect the EEG.  
38 Furthermore, technical aspects of EEG recording (e.g., control of EMF interferences  
39 between the recording device and the electromagnetic field, when EEG is measured during  
40 exposure) and evaluation might affect EEG parameters. Finally, Danker-Hopfe *et al.*  
41 (2019) described how these factors as well as methods of statistical evaluation differ  
42 between studies.

43 Similarly to Wallace and Selmaoui (2019), Danker-Hopfe *et al.* (2019) emphasised that  
44 heterogeneous study protocols and different methodologies prevent a scientifically sound  
45 statement on the impact of RF EMF on human brain activity in the resting-state EEG. As in  
46 SCENIHR (2015), both studies strongly recommended more standardised study protocols  
47 that follow basic quality criteria in further research.

#### 48 Sleep

49 With regard to RF EMF exposure effects on sleep, SCENIHR (2015) concluded that half of  
50 the studies looking at the macrostructure of sleep (especially those with a longer duration  
51 of exposure) observed effects. However, the results were not consistent with regard to the  
52 affected sleep parameters. Studies investigating effects of RF EMF exposure on the power  
53 spectra of the sleep EEG are quite heterogeneous with regard to several factors, e.g. the  
54 applied field, the duration of exposure, the timing of exposure (prior to or during sleep),  
55 the number of considered EEG leads, control of electromagnetic interference, the affected



1 frequency band, the affected sleep stage, and time frames of investigation (e.g. whole  
2 night, first 20 or 30 min of NREM sleep or NREM stage 2 sleep, first or later sleep cycles,  
3 4th NREM episode). Furthermore, studies vary with regard to statistical analysis. Effect  
4 sizes and/or a priori sample size calculations are usually not reported. Given all these  
5 heterogeneities, SCENIHR (2015) concluded that it was not possible to derive firm  
6 conclusions on RF EMF effects on sleep.

7 No meta-analysis or systematic literature review were published. The Health Council of  
8 the Netherlands (2020b) identified 18 human sleep studies (all refer to the 700 – 2200  
9 MHz frequency range). Three investigated effects of a mobile phone base station signal,  
10 two of them observed an effect. Of 15 studies, that investigated effects of mobile phone  
11 exposure (healthy adults: 13, patients: two), nine found an effect, including one study in  
12 patients. This review does not differentiate between effects on the macro- and the  
13 microstructure of sleep. It was not possible to clearly classify any of the studies that  
14 observed a RF EMF exposure effect on sleep as either favourable or unfavourable. Animal  
15 studies

16 Similar to human studies, systematic reviews are very rare.

17 Sienkiewicz and van Rongen (2019) published a systematic review of 62 animal (rodent)  
18 studies related to spatial learning and place memory. A total of 17 papers were excluded,  
19 primarily due to improper description of exposure or missing dosimetry. Overall, the  
20 remaining 45 reviewed studies between 1993 and 2017 are highly heterogenous. Morris  
21 water maze test was mostly used (66 %), followed by radial arm maze (27%) and others.  
22 No consistent outcome was seen. Both impairments (21) and no effects (20) were  
23 demonstrated, and four studies reported behavioural improvements. The range of  
24 frequencies included 900, 1800 and 2450 MHz, continuous and pulsed fields, and the  
25 wbSARs were in the range of 0.1 mW/g up to >10W/kg.

26 The Health Council of the Netherlands (2020b) classified the outcome of experimental  
27 animal studies as those with *no effect*, *unfavourable effect*, and *favourable effect*. In  
28 addition, excluded studies were listed and the reason for exclusion given. The three  
29 frequency ranges 700-2200 MHz, 2.2-5.0 GHz, and 20-40 GHz were discriminated but  
30 papers for the 20-40 GHz were not found. Neurological and neurobehavioural effects were  
31 divided in six subcategories.

- 32 1) Behavioural studies tested explorative behaviour, recognition of objects, anxiety and  
33 effects on learned behaviour. The Health Council concluded that an effect is possible  
34 for both frequency ranges of 700-2200 MHz, 2.2-5.0 GHz.
- 35 2) Cognitive studies looked at effects on memory, reaction speed and responsiveness. It  
36 was concluded that both favourable or unfavourable effects are possible for 700-2200  
37 MHz, 2.2-5.0 GHz.
- 38 3) Brain neurotransmission. An effect is possible for both frequency ranges.
- 39 4) Brain electrical activity. The Health Council concluded that for 700-2200 MHz a  
40 (favourable or unfavourable) effect is likely, and is possible for 2.2-5.0 GHz.
- 41 5) Blood brain barrier (BBB) is protecting the brain against harmful substances in the  
42 blood. For both frequency ranges an effect is possible.
- 43 6) Neurodegeneration. It was concluded that effects are possible for 700-2200 MHz.

44 Summarising, the Opinion of SCENIHR (2015) still holds true that the weight of evidence  
45 for neurobehavioural findings in animal studies is uncertain and replication studies should  
46 be performed under much more stringent conditions (exposure and dosimetry, blinding,  
47 controls).

### 48 **5.3.2.3 Conclusions on neurological and neurobehavioural effects**

49 There is only limited evidence from meta-analyses on human studies concerning cognitive  
50 function.

51 Electrophysiological effects on the EEG spectra repeatedly appear in studies but they show  
52 contradictory results (either increasing or reducing the EEG power). However, there are

1 methodological issues that need to be taken into consideration before reaching a  
2 conclusion about potential health effects. Such issues include (a) the effect of multiple  
3 testing, which is or can be particularly high in EEG studies depending on the number of  
4 electrodes considered and whether the analysis is based on EEG frequency bands or bins;  
5 (b) the high physiological variability of EEG power spectra, e.g., within a day or with intake  
6 of activating substance like caffeinated beverages; and (c) the lack of strictly standardised  
7 protocols. Therefore, it is suggested to include a negative control, e.g., analysis of  
8 differences between two sham conditions. So far, the physiological variations observed  
9 under RF EMF exposure for some of the outcome parameters (which may constitute a  
10 potential biological effect) do not indicate any adverse health effect.

11 Recent studies emphasise that heterogeneous study protocols and different methodologies  
12 prevent a scientifically sound statement on the impact of RF-EMF on human brain activity,  
13 in the resting-state EEG as one example. SCHEER conclusions are based on a small number  
14 of reviews, one of which is the review by the Health Council of the Netherlands (2020a,  
15 2020b). As in SCENIHR (2015), recommendations of more standardised study protocols  
16 that follow basic quality criteria are needed in further research.

17 Across the various studies (and meta reviews considered), it is clear that there is a wide  
18 heterogeneity in findings both within and across studies, including differences in the  
19 protocols, sample size, etc. A systematic review on effects of exposure to radiofrequency  
20 electromagnetic fields on cognitive performance in human experimental studies was one  
21 of the systematic reviews commissioned recently by WHO (see section 4.2.3).

22 For animal studies the Opinion of SCENIHR (2015) still holds true that the weight of  
23 evidence for neurobehavioural findings is uncertain and replication studies should be  
24 performed under much more stringent conditions (exposure and dosimetry, blinding,  
25 controls).

26 Thus, in the interim, the SCHEER cannot update the original SCENIHR (2015) conclusions  
27 but looks forward to the new systematic WHO review.

### 28 **5.3.3 Symptoms**

29 Schmiedchen *et al.* (2019) published a systematic review to evaluate methodological  
30 limitations in experimental studies on symptom development in IEI-EMF individuals. They  
31 included blinded experimental studies that exposed individuals with IEI-EMF to different  
32 EMF exposure levels and queried the development of symptoms during or after each  
33 exposure trial. The exposure in the studies surveyed was not limited to RF EMF but included  
34 ELF electric and/or magnetic fields. The most common limitations were related to the  
35 selection of study participants, the counterbalancing of the exposure sequence and the  
36 effectiveness of blinding. Many studies further lacked statistical power estimates. The  
37 authors noted that methodically sound studies indicated that an effect of exposure was  
38 unlikely, and that, overall, the evidence pointed towards no effect of exposure.

39 A study in Taiwan performed by Huang *et al.* (2018), which also includes a survey of the  
40 international literature, has reported that on the basis of a sample of 3303 participants,  
41 the prevalence rate of IEI-EMF in Taiwan declined from 13.3% to 4.6% over a period of 5  
42 years. The literature review also found the prevalence rates in other countries to be  
43 decreasing instead of increasing as had been predicted previously. The meta-analysis of  
44 the data from the literature showed that women were more likely to have IEI-EMF than  
45 men, with an odds ratio of 1.19 (95% CI: 1.01-1.40).

46 Leszczynski (2021) published a review of the scientific evidence on the individual  
47 sensitivity to EMF, in which he included both provocation and observational (survey)  
48 studies, although cross-sectional observational studies cannot provide evidence for  
49 causality between subjective or objective symptoms and exposure to EMF. Moreover, the  
50 review does not provide the criteria use for literature selection or a description of the  
51 methodological approach for reviewing the studies that were eventually selected.  
52 Leszczynski (2021) concludes that most of the studies did not find any causal link between

1 EMF and electromagnetic hypersensitivity (EHS), at least as far as acute effects were  
2 concerned, since the studies “did not have capability to examine delayed EMF responses”.  
3 The author identifies several methodological shortcomings of the hitherto studies and  
4 proposes the use of both subjective symptoms and objective biomarkers to research for  
5 causality “because the scientific research data is of insufficient quality to be used as a  
6 proof of the lack of causality” (between EMF exposure and EHS).

### 7 **5.3.3.1 Conclusions on symptoms**

8 SCENIHR (2015) concluded that the results from multiple double-blind provocation studies  
9 gave a strong overall weight of evidence that such effects are not caused by RF exposure,  
10 and that the evidence from observational studies weighed against a causal effect between  
11 EMF exposure and non-specific symptoms (IEI-EMF). The SCHEER finds that this  
12 conclusion is still valid. Given the methodological limitations of the research in this area  
13 so far, the SCHEER is of the opinion that future research should always include objective  
14 measures (physical/biochemical/biological markers) of the response to EMF exposure  
15 together with other types of psychological measures or subjective reports.

### 16 **5.3.4 Other health effects**

#### 17 **5.3.4.1 Cardiovascular diseases**

18 A meta-analysis that investigated the effects of using a GSM900 mobile phone on heart  
19 rate variability (HRV) has concluded that the minutes of exposure (minutes of speaking  
20 on the mobile phone) do not affect the autonomic nervous system of the heart or its  
21 sympathovagal balance (Geronikolou *et al.*, 2018). This result is in agreement with the  
22 conclusion of the review conducted by the Health Council of the Netherlands (2020a,  
23 2020b) that no effects of exposure to radiofrequency electromagnetic fields on the  
24 cardiovascular system and the autonomic nervous system have been found in the  
25 frequency range of 700-2200 MHz.

26 The SCHEER is of the opinion that there is strong evidence for the lack of effects on the  
27 cardiovascular system in the above frequency range (700-2200 MHz), but weighing of  
28 evidence is not possible for other frequencies of RF EMF.

#### 29 **5.3.4.2 Immune System**

30 The immune system is a complex network of special cells, tissues, organs, and the  
31 substances they produce that, through a series of steps called the immune response, work  
32 together in fighting infections and other diseases. This network allows the immune system  
33 to keep its dynamic equilibrium through activating and inhibitory signals and, at the same  
34 time, to adapt the response to environmental hints. A healthy immune system permits the  
35 organism to interact with the environment in a safe way, keeping invading agents under  
36 control.

37 There are no systematic reviews or meta-analysis available in the literature to determine  
38 whether RF EMF exposure may affect immune system. Narrative reviews with robust  
39 methodological design are also lacking.

40 In 2013, a review paper was published by Szmigielski in which the effects of *in vitro* and  
41 *in vivo* exposure to RF fields on several immune functions such as phagocytosis,  
42 lymphocyte proliferation and antibodies production were discussed. The general conclusion  
43 of the author was that in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies RF exposure may induce  
44 measurable weak effects in the number and/or activity of immune-competent cells.  
45 However, the results were incoherent (for instance, a number of lymphocyte functions  
46 resulted in being both enhanced and weakened under similar RF exposure conditions within  
47 single studies) and difficult to replicate. The author also pointed out the existence of certain  
48 indications of a temporary immunological stimulation after short term RF exposure, while  
49 prolonged exposure inhibited the same functions, although not substantiated by threshold  
50 effects (Szmigielski, 2013).

1 A review paper (Piszczeck *et al.*, 2021) was recently published which reports on immunity  
2 and electromagnetic fields including RF. The authors focused on both *in vivo* and *in vitro*  
3 studies reporting on the effects on immune cell types involved in the innate and adaptive  
4 immunity. The general conclusion of the authors was that RF seems to be a promising tool  
5 for modulation of immune cell signaling pathways, although it is not possible to identify  
6 an intracellular mechanism.

7 Both of the above review papers, however, lack the criteria for literature selection and  
8 characterisation of methodological quality of the individual included studies.

9 There are also several papers in the literature reporting the enhancement of immune  
10 system after millimetre-wave exposure. These papers are included in a couple of review  
11 articles in which the advantages of millimetre-waves therapy, which is widely used for the  
12 treatment of several diseases in many Eastern European countries, are highlighted. In  
13 these papers, the modulation of the immune system is mentioned as a plausible  
14 mechanism by which millimetre-waves can produce systemic whole-body effects after  
15 localized application. As a matter of fact, components of the immune system are present  
16 in the dermis portion of the skin and are, thus, accessible to millimetre-waves, at least at  
17 locations where the epidermis is thin and subcutaneous fat is sparse. Furthermore,  
18 millimetre-waves therapy, when used in combination with chemotherapy, is capable of  
19 protecting the immune system from the toxicity of chemotherapy without exerting toxicity  
20 of its own. Moreover, it has also been shown that the combination of millimetre-waves and  
21 chemotherapy is capable of reducing the tumour metastasis and tumour resistance to  
22 chemotherapeutic drugs (Logani *et al.*, 2011; Mattsson *et al.*, 2018).

23 Therefore, the SCHEER finds that the weight of evidence for any (beneficial and  
24 detrimental) effects of RF EMF on the immune system is uncertain due to the conflicting  
25 information from various studies.

#### 26 **5.3.4.3 Reproductive and Developmental effects**

27 In accordance with the PRISMA guidelines, Kim *et al.* (2021) conducted a systematic  
28 review and a meta-analysis to determine whether the exposure to RF EMF affects human  
29 sperm quality. The outcome considered were motility, viability, and concentration, which  
30 are the most frequently used parameters in clinical settings to assess fertility. The authors  
31 evaluated 18 studies that included 4280 samples. They found that exposure to mobile  
32 phones was associated with reduced sperm motility, viability, and concentration, but the  
33 decrease in sperm quality after RF EMF exposure was not significant, even when the mobile  
34 phone usage increased. However, the SCHEER notes that many of the studies included in  
35 the meta-analysis did not provide adequate information on dosimetry. Moreover, at least  
36 one study was included in the meta-analysis that had been excluded from risk assessment  
37 in the SCENIHR (2015) Opinion due to methodological/quality issues. The same problem,  
38 of including in the analysis studies with insufficient dosimetry, uncontrolled exposure, and  
39 other methodological problems (some of these studies had been excluded from or criticised  
40 in the SCENIHR (2015) Opinion), exists for the other reviews scoping the impact of RF  
41 EMF exposure on the male reproductive system (Jaffar *et al.*, 2019; Maluin *et al.*, 2021;  
42 Sciorio *et al.*, 2022). Nevertheless, it should be noted that Sciorio *et al.* (2022)  
43 comprehensively present the limitations of the studies on RF EMF exposure and the  
44 reproductive system, like controlling confounders, assessing exposure, and using  
45 standardised methods for sperm analysis.

46 On the issue of male reproductive hormones, Maluin *et al.* (2021) concluded that existing  
47 animal and human data on the effect of RF EMF emitted from wireless devices on male  
48 reproductive hormones were inconsistent and difficult to evaluate due to the heterogeneity  
49 of study design. However, according to the authors, most studies were consistent with the  
50 assertion that long-term exposure to RF EMR from mobile phones and Wi-Fi devices could  
51 disrupt male reproductive hormones, particularly testosterone.

52 In these reviews (Jaffar *et al.*, 2019; Kim *et al.*, 2021) two potential mechanisms are  
53 mentioned for the effect of RF EMF on the reproductive system: tissue heating and

1 oxidative stress. However, Santini et al. (2018), in their scoping review about oxidative  
2 stress caused by EMF on both the female and the male reproductive systems, conclude  
3 that based on the current literature, the analysis of ELF-EMF and RF impact on the  
4 maintenance of male and female fertility potential reports contradictory results. The  
5 authors suggest that the main reason for these discrepancies may be the lack of uniformity  
6 in the experimental design, including the use of different models and the extremely  
7 variable exposure sources and protocols. Moreover, since ROS levels can be influenced by  
8 temperature, a possible criticism to many of these works is the lack of control of this  
9 parameter during EMF exposure. A further criticism emerging from the literature is the  
10 difficulty to understand whether EMF-induced fertility abnormalities are caused by direct  
11 gonadal damage or by disruption of the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis. On the other  
12 hand, the authors see growing evidence that damage induced by EMF to reproductive cells  
13 and organs is caused by deregulation of redox homeostasis due mitochondrial dysfunctions  
14 and ROS overproduction.

15 Mahaldashtian *et al.* (2022) reviewed the literature on the effect of cell phone radiation on  
16 mammalian embryos and fetuses and concluded that it is difficult from the available  
17 animal studies to confidently document the role of RF EMF exposure on human embryo  
18 development, both *in vivo* and *in vitro*. The SCHEER agrees with general methodological  
19 limitations of studies about developmental effects of RF EMF identified by the authors, but  
20 notes that they had included in their review studies with insufficient dosimetry,  
21 uncontrolled exposure, and other methodological problems.

22 The meta-analyses and reviews available since the SCENIHR (2015) Opinion show that  
23 the weight of evidence for reproduction and developmental effects is uncertain, due to  
24 conflicting information.

#### 25 **5.3.4.4 Auditory and thermoelastic effects**

26 Electromagnetic waves can be seen in the frequency range of visible light, but they can  
27 also be heard, if they are pulsed. Initially, the auditory perception of microwave pulses  
28 was thought to be an interaction of pulsed radiation directly with the auditory nerves or  
29 neurons along the auditory neurophysiological pathways of the central nervous system.  
30 However, experimental and theoretical studies have shown that 'microwave hearing' (aka  
31 'microwave auditory effect' or 'Frey effect') arises from the thermoelastic theory:  
32 Microwave pulses, upon absorption by soft tissues in the head, launch a thermoelastic  
33 wave of acoustic pressure that travels by bone conduction to the inner ear, where it  
34 activates the cochlear receptors via the same process involved in normal hearing (Lin and  
35 Wang, 2007; Lin, 2022).

36 Microwave hearing is an acute effect and occurs for as long as the head of a subject is  
37 exposed to pulsed RF EMF of specific frequency and pulse width. In the previous ICNIRP  
38 guidelines (ICNIRP, 1998) constraints had been imposed to the specific absorption from  
39 pulses to avoid microwave auditory effects, since "repeated or prolonged exposure to  
40 microwave auditory effects may be stressful and potentially harmful". In the latest ICNIRP  
41 guidelines (ICNIRP, 2020), a specific restriction to account for microwave hearing is not  
42 considered because "there is no evidence that microwave hearing in any realistic exposure  
43 scenarios can affect health". However, in a study about rigger safety in the  
44 telecommunications industry (Boulais, 2016), about 75% of the riggers who had  
45 experienced the microwave effect reported it as a distraction: as explained in the study,  
46 such a distraction poses an occupational risk that may result in indirect health damage.

47 Moreover, recently, there has been a discussion whether pulsed RF EMF can be weaponised  
48 (Lin, 2021; Dagro *et al.*, 2021; Foster *et al.*, 2021; Lin, 2022) to create a health syndrome  
49 with clinical symptoms resembling those of concussion. According to Foster *et al.* (2021),  
50 existing microwave systems can produce pulses with sufficient fluence to induce  
51 unexpected and perhaps frightening auditory sensations, but the equipment is large, e.g.,  
52 the obsolete AN/FPS-67B radar system at 1.3 GHz. On the other hand, millimetre waves  
53 equipment is smaller and can be located close to a subject, allowing higher exposure levels

1 than those considered by Dagro *et al.* (2021), if the problem of shallower penetration can  
2 be overcome. Dagro *et al.* (2021) conclude that the required power densities to induce  
3 neuropathological effects to the brain are orders of magnitude larger than most real-world  
4 exposure conditions, but can be achieved with devices meant to emit high-power  
5 electromagnetic pulses in military and research applications.

6 The SCHEER is of the opinion that, although the power densities necessary to induce brain  
7 damage with pulsed RF EMF are feasible with current technology, they are unlikely to occur  
8 in a real-life exposure situation. However, pulsed RF EMF can induce microwave hearing,  
9 causing distraction in occupational settings that may jeopardize occupational safety.  
10 Therefore, occupational training of RF workers should include awareness about the  
11 microwave hearing effect and its management.

## 12 **6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE WORK**

13 The SCHEER welcomes the development of a number of WHO protocols for systematic  
14 reviews that will strengthen the level of evidence about health effects from RF EMF  
15 exposure. The SCHEER suggests that any future policy changes on the matter of EMF  
16 health effects should consider the conclusions of the systematic reviews that will result  
17 from these protocols.

18 There is a need for more research in the higher frequency bands of the RF spectrum (*i.e.*,  
19 millimetre waves) and their adverse, beneficial or lack of health effects.

20 Additional hypothesis-driven experiments on the interaction mechanisms of RF EMF (other  
21 than tissue heating) are necessary, but under strict methodological quality criteria about  
22 experimental design, exposure control and assessment, statistics and results analysis. The  
23 SCHEER notes that several experimental studies have been considered in meta-analyses  
24 and reviews, although they had not fulfilled these criteria.

25 The methodological limitations of the research performed in the area of symptoms call for  
26 the inclusion of objective measures (physical/biochemical/biological markers) of the  
27 response to EMF exposure, together with other types of psychological measures or  
28 subjective reports.

29

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## **8 GLOSSARY OF TERMS, UNITS**

APD	Absorbed Power Density (W/m <sup>2</sup> )
SAR	Specific Absorption Rate (W/kg)

## **9 LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

BS	Base Station
EEG	Electroencephalogram
EHS	Electromagnetic Hypersensitivity (IEI-EMF)
EI	Exposure Index
ELF	Extremely Low Frequency
EMF	Electromagnetic Field(s)
GRADE	Grading of Recommendations, Assessment, Development and Evaluations
GSM	Global System for Mobile communications
ICNIRP	International Commission on Non-Ionizing radiation Protection
IEI-EMF	Idiopathic Environmental Intolerance attributed to EMF
IoT	Internet of Things
IQR	Interquartile Range
MIMO	Multiple-input multiple-output
PRISMA	Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses
RAT	Radio Access Technology
RF	Radiofrequency
RFR	Radiofrequency radiation
ROS	Reactive Oxygen Species
SCENIHR	Scientific Committee on Emerging and Newly Identified Health Risks
SD	Standard Deviation
UMTS	Universal Mobile Telecommunications System
WHO	World Health Organization