(tradename Librium), given 30 minutes before a session, was established. This function showed that the responding rate rose with increased drug dose up to 10 mg/kg, attaining two-to-three times the baseline rate at that dose. At still higher doses, the responding rate decreased with dose, attaining zero at 40 mg/kg. The rats were then exposed to 2.45-GHz pulsed RFR at 1-W/cm^2 peak, 1-mW/cm^2 average (0.2 W/kg) during the 30 minutes before each bar-pressing session, which was started right after drug injection. RF exposure yielded the same shape of effect-versus-dose function, but the magnitudes were generally higher by a factor of about 2. However, RF exposure in the absence of any drug injection produced no difference in responding rate.

The results of this investigation are unequivocal, but the mechanisms are obscure. For example, although average power density and whole-body SAR were low, local SARs in brain regions that are the target areas for central actions of chlordiazepoxide may have been sufficiently high for a thermally potentiating effect. It is also conceivable that with the pulse parameters used, the pulses may have been perceived (RFR-hearing effect) during the 30-minute pre-session period. If so, however, it is not clear whether or how any influence of this effect would have carried over into sessions during which the RFR was absent.

Thomas and Maitland (1979) also trained 6 food-deprived rats to depress a lever on a different behavioral schedule. After such training, 3 of the rats were dosed with the psychoactive drug d-amphetamine once a week and exposed for 30 minutes (single-exposure condition) to the 2.45-GHz pulsed RFR (0.2 W/kg). Their behavior was observed for 1 hour right after exposure for any direct drug-RFR interaction. For seeking cumulative action of the RFR, the other 3 rats were dosed with d-amphetamine once a week and exposed for 4 days a week, 30 minutes per day (multiple-exposure condition), except on drug-injection days. On those days, their behavior was observed for 30 minutes after injection. The sessions were conducted for 13 weeks, and included sham exposures and saline injections for all 6 rats.

For the single-exposure condition, the mean response rates (in total responses per minute) after saline injection and sham exposure, and after saline injection and RF exposure, were comparable to baseline performances. However, when those 3 rats were given d-amphetamine and sham-exposed, their mean response rates increased with drug dose to a maximum at 2.0 mg/kg, with consequent reductions in the frequency of correct responses that yielded reinforcement. At higher drug doses, the mean response rates dropped sharply, to zero for 4.5 mg/kg. By contrast, their mean response rates after dosing with the drug and exposure to RFR increased to values significantly higher than for the corresponding doses with sham exposure, with maximum at 0.5 mg/kg. Those results indicate that RF exposure after injection of a given dose of d-amphetamine yielded behavior similar to that with a larger dose and no RF exposure. For the rats studied under the multiple-exposure condition, the dose-response functions with and without multiple RF exposures were qualitatively similar to those with and without single RF exposures.

Thomas et al. (1980) described similar research with the drugs diazepam and chlorpromazine. Diazepam (tradename Valium) has been widely prescribed as a tranquilizer and muscle relaxant. Chlorpromazine is used as a sedative and as an antiemetic. Four food-deprived rats of two strains were trained on a schedule of reinforcement. After training, dose-effect functions for diazepam were determined in one strain and for chlorpromazine in the other strain. For all 4 rats given Chlorpromazine, performance decreased with increasing dose. The response rates stayed within the baseline variability for doses up to about 1 mg/kg and declined for higher doses. For those given diazepam, the drug caused slight increases in response rate at doses up to about 2.5 mg/kg, with decline at higher doses. The authors then exposed each rat for 30 minutes to 2.8-GHz pulsed RFR at 0.2 W/kg right after administering each drug, and tested the rats at

exposure end. The RFR did not alter the effects of chlorpromazine or diazepam, as contrasted with chlordiazepoxide and d-amphetamine. The differences in findings are difficult to reconcile.

Pappas et al. (1983) exposed rats to 2.7-GHz pulsed RFR for 45 minutes (SAR 0.75, 2.23 and 3 W/kg), to determine whether the RFR would affect stereotypy (persistent senseless movements) produced by injection of pentylenetetrazol alone. During a 1-hour session after exposure and starting 4 minutes after pentylenetetrazol injection, each rat was observed for the normal behaviors (immobility, rearing, forward walking) and for 3 abnormal behaviors (backward walking, circling, head swaying) for 1 minute every 5 minutes. The difference in average score for each of the six behaviors between RFR and sham groups was nonsignificant.

Lai et al. (1984) described experiments to determine any effects in rats of the RFR used by Pappas et al. (1983) on ethanol-induced hypothermia and ethanol consumption. For the first experiment, 15 rats were RFR-exposed and 14 rats were sham-exposed for 45 minutes in separate waveguides. Right after exposure of each rat, its colonic temperature was measured, it was injected with an ethanol solution (3 g/kg of body weight in 25% of water by volume), and its colonic temperature was measured again at 15-minute intervals for 120 minutes. The mean colonic temperatures of the RFR-exposed and sham-exposed rats right after exposure (and before ethanol injection) were 38.2°C and 38.3°C, a nonsignificant difference, as would be expected at the low RFR level used (0.6 W/kg). Within 5 minutes after ethanol injection, ataxia developed but the righting reflex was not affected. The mean temperature reductions versus time after ethanol injection for the two groups showed that the alcohol-induced hypothermia had occurred in the RFR group at a slower rate than in the sham group. One could speculate that the RFR had affected the thermoregulatoy system so as to partly compensate for the hypothermic effects of ethanol in a time-dependent manner related to the rate of ethanol metabolism.

In the ethanol-consumption experiments, drinking water was removed from the home cages, and 24 hours later, the rats were given 90-minute sessions daily for 9 days. On session days 1, 2, and 3, the rats were inserted in the waveguides for 45 minutes with the RFR source on "standby". At this time, a bottle containing a 10% sucrose solution was inserted in each waveguide and the amount consumed during the remaining 45 minutes was measured. The day-4 procedure was the same except that half the rats (24) were selected randomly and exposed to the RFR for the full 90 minutes, and the other 24 rats were similarly sham exposed. On days 5-7, the procedure was the same as on days 1-3, except that a 15% ethanol + 10% sucrose solution was used to render the ethanol more palatable. On day 8, 24 randomly-selected rats (group I) were exposed to RFR, the other 24 rats (group II) were sham exposed for 90 minutes, and the amounts of the sucrose-ethanol solution consumed during that period were measured. On day 9, the group roles were reversed: group I was sham exposed, group II was RFR exposed, and fluid consumption was noted.

For days 1, 2, and 3 (during which all 48 rats were sham-exposed and offered the sucrose solution), mean sucrose consumption rose significantly each successive day. On day 4, however, (when half were RFR exposed and the others sham exposed for 90 minutes), the mean sucrose consumptions for the 2 groups did not differ significantly from each other or from the day-3 value.

For days 5, 6, and 7 (when all 48 rats were sham-exposed and offered the sucrose-ethanol solution), the mean sucrose-ethanol consumption varied up and down with time. For day 8 (when group I was exposed to RFR and group II was sham exposed), the sucrose-ethanol consumption by group II did not change significantly but that of group I significantly increased. For day 9 (when group II was RFR exposed and

group I was sham exposed), consumption by group II significantly increased. Thus, although the RF exposure had no apparent effect on consumption of sucrose alone, it apparently increased consumption of the sucrose-ethanol mixture.

In summary, the investigations that sought synergisms between RFR and psychoactive drugs such as diazepam, chlorpromazine, chlordiazepoxide, and dextroamphetamine, yielded unclear or inconsistent results. In some studies, the changes in drug dose-response relationship were subtle and not necessarily induced by the RFR. In most of the studies that yielded RFR-induced changes in drug response, whole-body SARs of 0.6 W/kg or average power densities of 1 mW/cm^2 or higher coupled with relatively high drug dosages were necessary. In still other studies, the results were negative (no effects). At relatively low RFR levels, the role of thermoregulation in the results is unclear and the occurrence of relatively high local SARs in the brain cannot be ruled out.

Noteworthy were the negative findings of synergistic effects between alcohol consumption and exposure to RFR except at relatively high doses of alcohol. Specifically, the normalized ethanol doses given rats (3-g/kg of body weight in 25% of water by volume), if consumed by humans, would render them extremely inebriated. An exception is the apparently RFR-related higher sucrose-ethanol consumption for reasons not yet understood, reported in the study by Lai et al. (1984). In general, it seems unlikely that the effects of psychoactive drugs prescribed by physicians or the effects of recreationally consumed alcohol would be altered by exposure to environmental levels of RFR.

4.11 CELLULAR AND SUBCELLULAR EFFECTS--STRUCTURES AND CONSTITUENTS OF MICROORGANISMS AND OTHER SINGLE-CELL SYSTEMS

Various studies of cellular and subcellular effects of RFR have been discussed above under other specific topics such as the BBB, immunology, and hematology. Described in this section are findings related to other possible RFR effects on cells and their constituents

Many of the early studies on microorganisms produced results that were taken as evidence of nonthermal effects of RFR. The existence of resonances at frequencies above 30 GHz was postulated on theoretical grounds, and several studies by Webb and coworkers were conducted that appeared to confirm that hypothesis. However, later studies by Cooper and Amer (1983) and by Gandhi et al. (1988), in which more sophisticated engineering and biological techniques were used and artifacts were reduced significantly, yielded results that did not confirm earlier findings of resonances or other evidence of nonthermal effects at such frequencies.

The apparent absorption resonances in the range of 2 to 9 GHz reported by Swicord and Davis (1983) for aqueous solutions of DNA molecules derived from *E. coli* were regarded as indicative of direct action of RFR with such molecules. Later attempts by Edwards et al. (1985) and Gabriel et al. (1987) to reproduce such findings, however, yielded negative results. Moreover, analytical and experimental results were obtained indicating that such resonances were most likely artifactual, associated with the probes and measurement methodology used.

In general, research on possible RFR effects on microorganisms or cells derived from macroorganisms is important for eliciting possible mechanisms of direct interaction of RFR with such biological entities or their constituents at levels that can be characterized as nonthermal. However, the relevance of such findings (negative or positive) to possible effects of exposure of intact animals to RFR and ultimately the

significance of such findings with regard to possible hazards of RFR to humans has not been established. Such research to date has not provided any scientific evidence that humans chronically exposed to low-level RFR would experience cellular effects.

5.0 UNRESOLVED ISSUES

The potential biological effects of RFR at frequencies up to 300 GHz have been assessed from representative peer-reviewed studies published in the scientific literature. The preponderance of evidence indicates that chronic exposure of the general public to the RFR levels prevailing in the environment is not hazardous to human health. Nevertheless, there are several basic uncertainties, summarized below, regarding biological effects of RFR.

(1) Many of the epidemiologic studies seeking possible bioeffects of RFR were extensive and well done, but contained flaws or uncertainties in varying degrees, such as imprecise assignment of individuals to exposure and control groups; frequent difficulties in obtaining accurate medical records, death certificates, or responses to health questionnaires for individuals included in both the exposure and control groups; and most important, the uncertainties about the RFR frequencies, levels, and exposure durations for those selected for inclusion in exposure groups and the amount of exposure received by those selected for inclusion in control groups.

(2) Applying results on laboratory animals to humans, though essential, is an expedient that contains fundamental problems and uncertainties due to the basic differences between humans and other species, particularly non-primates. Investigations with nonhuman primates could narrow some of the interspecies gaps considerably, but often at prohibitive costs, thus limiting the number and extent of such experimental investigations. Large reductions in such problems and uncertainties seem unlikely in the near future.

(3) The results of many experimental investigations indicate existence of threshold levels of RFR for various bioeffects. These thresholds provide confidence that exposure to levels that are appreciably below them are most unlikely to be deleterious. However, most experimental data that indicate the existence of thresholds were obtained by the use of single or repetitive exposures of relatively short durations and/or time periods. Although it is difficult to conceive of mechanisms whereby RF exposures at well below threshold values over a long time could be cumulative, and the few theories that have been proposed have not been experimentally verified, relatively few investigations have been done in which animals were continuously exposed to such low levels during most of their lifetimes. The high costs of such chronic-exposure studies and the low probability that any positive effects will be found are important reasons why such studies are not given high priority by funding agencies.

(4) Some of the basic mechanisms of interaction of RFR with various biological entities are not yet fully understood. A few effects at low RFR levels have been characterized by some investigators as nonthermal, but other investigators have not been able to experimentally confirm the existence of such effects. Whatever the nature of such reported effects, the gap between them and possibly hazardous effects on humans or animals from exposure to such low RFR levels is extremely wide. Factors such as large body masses and dimensions relative to the RFR wavelengths, penetration depths and internal field distributions of the RFR, and changes in orientation or configuration of the body during exposures to RFR can vastly moderate such interactions or remove them entirely. Moreover, life processes per se are extremely complex. For these reasons, this gap is not likely to be reduced to any great extent in the foreseeable future.

6.0 MISCONCEPTIONS

Popular media often do not make the important distinction between RFR (nonionizing radiation) and ionizing radiation, so concern is frequently raised in the general public, with no scientific basis, that RFR can give rise to hazardous effects known to be caused by ionizing radiation. In essence, any quantum of ionizing radiation absorbed by a molecule yields up enough energy to expel an electron from the molecule (ionize it), leaving it positively charged and thus strongly enhancing the interactions of the molecule with its neighbors. Such interactions can alter the functions of biological molecules fundamentally and irreversibly in living organisms. Moreover, the damage caused by ionizing radiation can be cumulative.

By contrast, the energy in a quantum of RFR is so much smaller than in a quantum of ionizing radiation that the primary effect of RFR quanta is to agitate molecules rather than ionize them. The absorption of RFR quanta at very high rates (in large numbers per unit time) is necessary to produce physiologically significant heat. Moreover, such RFR molecular agitation begins to diminish immediately on cessation of exposure. For the latter reason, exposure to low levels of RFR (well below thresholds) is not cumulative.

Within the class of nonionizing radiations, there is also a basic difference in interaction between RFR (3 kHz to 300 GHz) and electric and magnetic fields at extremely low frequencies (ELF), such as those used in the transmission of electric power from generating stations to substations and thence to the ultimate consumers of electricity (usually 60 Hz in the U.S.). As noted in Section 2.3, the wavelength corresponding to 60 Hz is more than 3,100 miles. By contrast, the wavelength corresponding to 734 MHz (the top frequency of the Sutro Tower Digital TV transmitters) is only 1.3 feet. Thus, people near a powerline are in its induction zone (meaning at distances of only a tiny fraction of a wavelength), within which terms "propagation" or "radiation" do not apply. Rather, the electric and magnetic fields from such a source may induce currents in the body, and the effects of each field need to be considered separately

It is also necessary to distinguish between an effect and a hazard. For example, a person's metabolism can be increased harmlessly by mild exercise. Analogously, an effect produced at RFR intensities that yield heat that can be easily accommodated within the thermoregulatory capabilities of a person may not necessarily be deleterious. Also, any effects produced thereby are generally reversible. However, the thermoregulatory capabilities of any given species may be exceeded at high RFR intensities, so compensation for such effects may be inadequate. Thus, exposure at such intensities can cause thermal distress or even irreversible thermal damage. Likewise, non-thermal exposures might produce an effect, but it would remain to be shown if there was a hazard associated with any such effect.

It is also important to note that it is not scientifically possible to guarantee absolutely that exposure to RFR at low levels that do not cause deleterious effects for relatively short exposures will not result in the appearance of deleterious effects many years in the future. As noted above, however, the large body of experimental data indicate the existence of threshold levels for various RFR bioeffects and that low-level exposures are not cumulative.

7.0 GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The IEEE/EMBS Committee on Man and Radiation report states: "Although a substantial body of data exists on the presence or absence of biological effects of RFEM, the IEEE realizes that some controversy still remains, and it is generally acknowledged that the data base is incomplete . . . In summary, since there is a continuing increase in the beneficial uses of RFEM fields, there remains a need for continued

research to ensure that human exposures at levels specified in present exposure standards are safe. The position of the IEEE Committee on Man and Radiation is that there is no cause for concern regarding the environmental levels of RFEM fields to which the general population are routinely exposed. Based on present knowledge, human exposure at or below the permissible levels recommended by the IEEE and other organizations is not harmful to human health.

7.1 EXPOSURE OF HUMAN BEINGS

Assessments of risk to human beings must give weight to findings of well performed studies involving actual or presumed human exposure to RFR despite the limitations of such studies. The importance of human experience is emphasized by problems and uncertainties created by the need to extrapolate both exposure and biological responses from various animal species to human beings.

In the specific case of RFR from the proposed Sutro Tower Digital TV broadcasting, there are no studies involving precisely this technology nor is there an extensive body of evidence from studies of exposures to the general population from broadcasting towers. This review considered several epidemiological studies with varying degrees of relevance. For the purposes of this report, relevance is assessed by the frequency of transmissions, modulation type, and power density of exposures to members of the general public. Although accurate information on these parameters is often lacking, these criteria serve, for example, to distinguish exposures to military radar from exposure to radio and television broadcasting, and to distinguish occupational exposures, which may involve some high level overexposures, from exposures to the general public.

The three epidemiological studies of greatest relevance are in recent studies by Hocking (1996) and Dolk et al. (1997a; 1997b) which investigated cancer incidence, but no other health effects, in the general public near broadcasting towers. The Dolk et al. (1997a; 1997b) research on British TV and FM broadcasting towers provided conflicting evidence for adult leukemia incidence when one tower site was evaluated in comparison with data from twenty other sites. This experience indicates that caution is needed for interpretation of the Australian study (Hocking, 1996) which found excess leukemia among residents near broadcasting towers in one locale. There are other contradictions: unlike the finding in Australia of a stronger correlation with childhood leukemia, neither British study indicated a statistically significant excess risk for childhood cancer. The conclusions drawn from these few studies, whether positive or negative, are limited by the relatively small numbers of cases. These three studies indicate no consistent disease pattern among residents near broadcasting towers and therefore support the conclusion that no such association is likely. However, these studies stimulate questions which, it can be anticipated, will be addressed in future research.

Two more studies concern general population exposures near broadcasting towers. The first study, which was not published in a scientific journal, concerned Hawaii residents living near broadcast towers operating at unspecified frequencies (State of Hawaii Department of Health, 1986). The second study examined cancer among residents near a transmitter operating at a frequency of 23.4 KHz, a frequency lower than DTV broadcast frequencies (Maskarenic et al., 1994). The report of positive correlations with all cancer, but not leukemia, in one of these studies, and a correlation with leukemia in the other, illustrates an apparent inconsistency between these two studies. For this reason, and because one study involves a cancer cluster which ended more than a decade ago, and because of limitations in exposure assessment, and in light of additional epidemiological concerns discussed in section 3.1, these studies are not valuable for assessing potential risks from Sutro Tower RFR.

The several occupational studies reviewed in this report are limited in ways already described. Some reported evidence for a possible increase in cancer risks for occupational exposures, particularly those involving exposures to military personnel. These exposures include many types of RFR including various forms of pulse-modulated fields used for radar. These latter exposures are different in modulation and power density from exposures to DTV signals to the public near the Sutro Tower. In most studies, excess risks, where noted, were small in magnitude and required further investigation to assess the possible influence of those factors which can lead to erroneous results in epidemiological investigations.

A study by Lester and Moore (1982) which sought to assess potential risk to the general population living near radar installations on Air Force bases was flawed and no useful conclusion could be drawn. There has not been, so far as known, a follow-up investigation on this topic.

Epidemiological studies of the general population and workers have not provided reliable evidence of harmful health effects from RFR exposures characterized by the frequency, modulation pattern, and power density associated with Sutro Tower DTV emissions. Neither the available epidemiologic research, nor studies with human volunteers, provided scientifically reliable evidence that chronic exposure to RFR at levels within the ANSI/IEEE (1992) or FCC (1996) exposure guidelines have detrimental health effects

7.2 STUDIES WITH ANIMALS

Taken collectively, most of the experimental investigations of the effects of RF exposure in animals indicate that effects do occur, but at levels that were associated with the heat produced by the RFR, and that exposure to relatively low RFR levels such as the allowable maxima specified in the ANSI/IEEE (1992) or FCC (1996) guidelines, are not likely to produce any health effects in humans.

Animal studies have been done with continuous wave, pulse-modulated RFR, and, rarely, amplitude modulated RF. There is no consensus that modulation is an important factor in effects on animals. In some studies, the microwave hearing effect may explain apparent differences in the outcomes of experiments with continuous wave versus pulsed RFR, but it remains a possibility that some outcomes differ with modulation.

7.3 STUDIES WITH ANIMAL CELLS AND TISSUES

Studies of effects in vitro support the influence of temperature change but also indicate that some experimental tests appear sensitive to modulation characteristics. In other research studies there was no difference between effects of continuous wave or modulated RFR of the same SAR. Studies of the calcium efflux effect and related phenomena indicated a dependence on amplitude modulation frequency, power density and signal duration ("coherence time"). In vitro studies are of unquestioned importance for an understanding of the mechanisms of interaction. However, in the absence of demonstrations of hazardous exposure conditions related to modulation characteristics in man or animals, and in the absence of a deleterious effect directly related to effects observed in vitro, it must be concluded that the research done in vitro has not demonstrated any likely health hazards for exposures to specific frequencies, waveforms or modulation patterns. Furthermore, in vitro research has not demonstrated any deleterious effects with continuous wave and pulsed RFR in the absence of temperature increases of several degrees. In vitro studies have not identified non-thermal mechanisms of interaction which appear to be related to potential hazards to animals and human beings.

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