David Bennett
Vice President,
Regulatory Affairs & General Counsel

FortisBC Inc.
Suite 100 - 1975 Springfield Road
Kelowna, BC V1Y 7V7
Ph: 250 717 0853
Fax: 866 605 9431
regulatory@fortisbc.com
www.fortisbc.com

May 29, 2008

Via Email
Original via Courier

Ms. Erica M. Hamilton
Commission Secretary
BC Utilities Commission
Sixth Floor, 900 Howe Street, Box 250
Vancouver, BC V6Z 2N3

Dear Ms. Hamilton:

Re: *FortisBC Inc. ("FortisBC") Okanagan Transmission Reinforcement (OTR) Project*
         No. 3698488

Please find attached FortisBC's response to BCUC IR2 Q78.1 and should be inserted after page 50 of Exhibit B-8. BCUC Attachment A78.1 includes two documents: *BC Hydro Recommended Project Inflation Rates* dated May 16, 2008 and *BC Hydro Construction Cost Trends And Outlook,* prepared by MMK Consulting Inc. (Spring 2008).

Also attached is the document referred to as Appendix R of BCTC's Interior to Lower Mainland Transmission Project CPCN Application in the response to BCUC IR1 Q57.3. The document is titled *EMF and Health: Review and Update of the Scientific Research* should be inserted in the Appendices section of Exhibit B-3 as Appendix 57.3.

Sincerely,

David Bennett
Vice President, Regulatory Affairs
and General Counsel

cc: Registered Intervenors

BChydro

EARG

Reliable power, at low cost, for generations

RECOMMENDED PROJECT INFLATION RATES

16 MAY 2008

BACKGROUND

The rapid growth in B.C. in both the residential and non-residential construction sectors has caused construction costs to increase at rates not seen since the early 1980's. Between 1991 and 2001, the B.C. Consumers Price Index (CPI) allowed our budgets and estimates to keep up with actual market conditions; however, in about 2001, the CPI and the non-residential construction indices began to diverge. By 2004 the divergence had become significant, and Engineering has in recent years been including an additional construction inflation allowance in our estimates. This allowance is now being expressed as a task activity in INFO_PM.

Estimating the rate of inflation into the future has proved to be difficult, especially on multi-year projects. To keep up with construction inflation, a concerted effort has and is being made by EARG to reflect this in our estimating practices.

In January 2007, Engineering awarded MMK Consulting (a Vancouver-based firm specializing in economic and financial consulting) a contract to prepare a report every six months to forecast construction inflation in the non-Residential Construction sector as it relates to BC Hydro and BCTC Capital works. In February 2008 the Engineering Divisional Managers asked that the report be enhanced to reflect Global Impacts, adding indices outside of North America, as well as providing additional information on local market conditions. The third of four reports was received on April 4, 2008 and is the basis of this briefing note.

KEY FINDINGS IN MMK SPRING 2008 REPORT

Some of the key findings in MMK's third report are:

- Statistics Canada's Vancouver industrial construction index increased 3.7% in the last 6 months of 2007 (second quarter 2007 to fourth quarter 2007). This rate of increase is down from the 6.3% recorded for the previous six month period

- Statistics Canada's Canadian electric utility construction indices indicate that the transmission price index increased 3.2% between 2007 and 2006, while the distribution price index increased 3.6% and the stations index increased 5.7%. These increases are less than half of the rate of the broader industrial construction price index.

- Similar construction price trends were also experienced in the US, based on US Bureau of Reclamation (USBR) indices.

- US equipment price indices for electric power and specialty transformer manufacturing (in US dollars) also continued their strong upward trend, rising 12% in 2007 following increases of approximately 25% in the prior two years. By contrast, price trends have been relatively flat for generation (turbine and power transmission) equipment manufacturing.

- In Japan and Korea, domestic price indices for electrical transformers increased by 2.9% and 2.4% respectively. Generator price index trends were more modest, increasing 1.7% in Japan while remaining flat in Korea.

- Price trends for commodities were mixed during the second half of 2007, with less volatility than in 2005 and 2006.

- Regional BC, data on construction activity levels (building permit values, construction industry employment trends) indicate that market (activity levels) pressures are being experienced in most BC regions, including some interior regions showing flatter trends in previous reports.

- BTY Group has recently projected that construction costs (including residential) in the BC Lower Mainland will increase 7% in 2008, 6% in 2009, 5% in 2010 and 3% thereafter.

- B.C. Ministry of Transportation's current policy on major projects is to estimate cost escalation impacts on a project-by-project basis. For other projects, cost escalation allowances are 5% annually for the next two years, 3% annually thereafter.

- MMK is recommending an inflation rate allowance of 4% to 6% from 2008 to 2010, and 3% to 4% from 2011 onward, for all BCHydro construction projects.

RECOMMENDED ALLOWANCES

Based on the MMK report, discussions with other Utilities (Manitoba Hydro and Hydro Quebec), other owners' recommended rates (e.g. YVR and MOTH) and our own experiences, we are recommending as a guide for cost estimating our projects the following cost inflation allowances be used:

Fiscal Year	% Inflation
FY09	5%
FY10	5%
FY11	4%
FY12	3%
FY13 and beyond	3%

These allowances are unchanged from those of September 2007, and reflect the mixed market signals reported by MMK (lower price index trends, coupled with higher reported activity levels)..

It is also recommended that these rates be applied for projects with less than two years of construction and dollar values less than $10 million. For long term projects and projects greater than $10 million, cost components and inflation rates should be analyzed in more detail.

CONCLUSION

Project/construction costs are still increasing at rates that far exceed B.C. CPI. The recommended allowances are based on the entire Capital program we manage, and should not be adopted blindly. The inflationary outlook in the construction sector of our economy continues to be uncertain but there is evidence the rate of increase is beginning to soften. So stay tuned again for the next report in six months.

John Boots

MMK CONSULTING

— BC HYDRO —

CONSTRUCTION COST TRENDS

AND OUTLOOK

--- SPRING 2008 ---

Prepared for:

BC Hydro
Mr. John Boots, P. Eng.
Principal Engineer
Estimating & Scheduling Engineering
BC Hydro
6911 Southpoint Drive (B03)
Burnaby BC V3N 4X8

Prepared by:

MMK Consulting Inc.
- Stuart MacKay
- Angela Rey

April 23, 2008

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Contents

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1. Introduction and Executive Summary

This report reviews non-residential and industrial construction cost trends in British Columbia, and the implications for BC Hydro's cost inflation allowances on its major construction projects. This edition (Spring 2008) is the third of four semi-annual reviews being performed by MMK Consulting for BC Hydro during 2007 and 2008.

1.1 General price and activity level trends

During the second half of 2007, there was a moderate easing of upward price pressures for the BC industrial construction industry. As illustrated in Exhibit 1a, the industrial construction price index rose 3.7% during the six-month period. While this rate of increase was the lowest in the past two years, it still represents a significantly higher rate of increase than long-term trends prior to 2004.

With regard to activity levels, the value of industrial building permits in BC in the last six months of 2007 was also down from the first six months, continuing the trend of the previous six months. Industrial construction activity levels are still much higher than pre-2004 levels, and strong demand in Alberta continues to put pressure on prices in BC.

While the statistical evidence indicates a moderate weakening of cost inflation pressures during 2007, a number of industry sources (especially suppliers) have recently indicated that industrial construction activity levels in early 2008 are up from the same time in 2007.

Exhibit 1a — Changes in non-residential construction price indices in the past four six-month periods - Greater Vancouver

Percentage Change for Non-Residential Construction Price Indices in Greater Vancouver, Six-month Trends

Commercial: 5.5%, 7.2%, 6.2%, 4.0%
Industrial: 5.3%, 7.0%, 6.3%, 3.7%
Institutional: 5.3%, 7.0%, 6.0%, 3.4%

Legend: 4th Qrt 05 to 2nd 06 | 2nd Qrt 06 to 4th 06 | 4th Qrt 06 to 2nd 07 | 2nd Qrd 07 to 4th 07

Price Index 1997 = 100
Source: StatCan Table 327-0039 - Price indexes of non-residential building construction, by class of structure, quarterly

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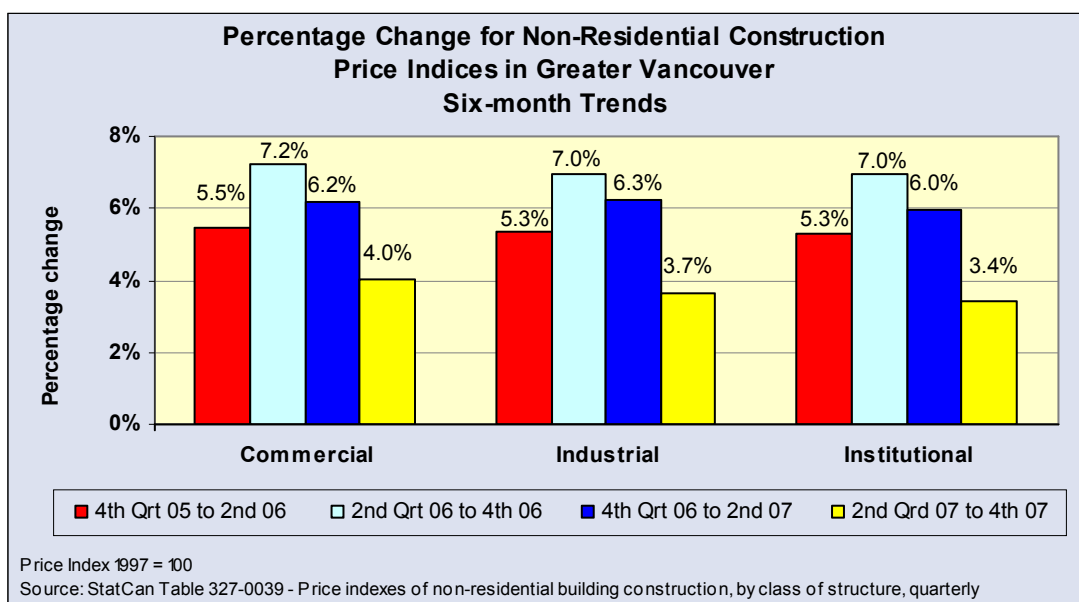
1.2　Trends in the electric utility industry

1.2.1　Canadian electric utility construction trends

As measured by Statistics Canada, the twelve-month increase in Canadian price indices for 2007 over 2006 was 3.2% for transmission lines, 3.6% for distribution lines, and 5.7% for substations. (Part-year data are not available.) Over the past four years, electric utility price indices have risen at less than half the rate of the broader industrial construction price index.

1.2.2　US construction and equipment price trends[1]

For electric utility construction, price indices (US Bureau of Reclamation) for switchyards/substations and steel tower transmission lines increased by 4.9% and 4.2% respectively, while declining 0.8% for wood pole transmission lines, between 2006 and 2007. US industry publications are forecasting high levels of transmission and distribution construction activity over the next few years.

For electric utility production, producer price indices (US Bureau of Labor Statistics) indicate a 3.8% increase in the electric power generation index, and a 3.4% increase in the electric power transmission, control, and distribution index, between 2006 and 2007.

Equipment price indices (US Bureau of Labor Statistics) for electric power and specialty transformer manufacturing (in US dollars) have continued their upward trends, rising 12% in 2007, following increases of approximately 25% in the prior two years. By contrast, price trends have been relatively flat with respect to turbine and power transmission equipment manufacturing.

1.2.3　Overseas equipment price trends

In Japan and Korea, domestic price indices for electrical transformers increased by 2.9% (Japan) and 2.4% (Korea) in 2007. Generator price index trends were more modest, increasing by 1.7% in Japan while remaining flat in Korea.

Hydro's equipment purchasing staff also indicate that they have experienced significant increases in international equipment prices over the past few years. Strong international demand for electric utility equipment is resulting in both upward price pressures and deferred production/delivery schedules.

1.3　Price trends by component cost

Price trends for component costs have been mixed during the second half of 2007, with far less volatility than in 2005 and 2006. Commodity prices (such as fuel and metals) are still generally very high compared to pre-2006 levels.

Component cost trends are highly visible, and as such are important indicators of cost inflation trends in the BC industrial construction industry. However, they do not account for some "soft" cost factors (such as engineering and construction management), nor do they account for supply and demand factors within the industry.   Thus, they are only partial indicators of overall price trends.

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[1] In US dollars.

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1.4 Regional trends in BC

While direct price index data are not available on a regional basis in BC, construction activity indicators provide an indirect measure of regional cost inflation pressures.

The available data on construction activity levels (building permit values, construction industry employment trends) indicate that market (activity level) pressures are being experienced in most BC regions, including interior regions.

1.5 Other agencies' estimates and forecasts

Other agencies have a wide range of approaches to estimating and forecasting construction cost inflation. For example, BTY Group has recently projected that construction costs (including residential) in the BC Lower Mainland will increase by 7% in 2008, 6% in 2009, 5% in 2010, and 3% in 2011. Other agencies' approaches are also described in the main report.

1.6 Recommended construction cost inflation allowances

Our September 2007 report noted that while "...there is some evidence of weakening of some cost component indices, general construction price indices themselves do not yet show a significant weakening of upward price pressures for industrial construction in general." Since then, this weakening has been observed, as the rate of increase in the Metro Vancouver industrial construction price index has declined from 6.3% (13% annualized) in the first half of 2007 to 3.7% (7.5% annualized) in the second half.

On balance, we expect that price inflation will continue throughout 2008, at rates similar to those recorded in the second half of 2007. While high US demand is expected to put price pressure on transmission and distribution equipment, international competition and the strong Canadian dollar will assist in mitigating these impacts.

Actual trends since our previous September 2007 report have been in line with expectations. Accordingly, as illustrated in Exhibit 1b, our recommended cost inflation allowances are unchanged. These recommended allowances are for "hard" construction costs only, and do not include "soft" costs such as design and project management. They also assume that BC Hydro takes appropriate measures to dampen the impact of construction cost inflation through procurement strategies, value engineering, and other cost mitigation initiatives.

The recommended allowances are based on the general assumption that the strong construction market in BC between 2003 and 2008 will continue through 2010, and that the market will have a "soft landing" in 2011 and beyond, as market demand and supply forces come more into balance.

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Exhibit 1b — Recommended construction cost inflation allowances

Previous reports vs. this edition		2008 to 2010	2011 to 2015
Mar. 2007	• Generation (heavy construct.)	4% to 6%	2.5% to 4%
	• Utility transmission/distribut.	2% to 4%	2% to 4%
Sep. 2007	• All construction projects	4% to 6%	3% to 4%
Apr. 2008	• All construction projects	4% to 6%	3% to 4%

All projections and forecasts are by nature uncertain, and we cannot represent that any of the projections contained in this report will be achieved in whole or in part.

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2.   General Price and Activity Level Trends

This chapter presents overall price and activity level trends for non-residential and industrial construction.

2.1   Non-residential construction price index

a)   *Annual trends*

Non-residential construction price index[1] trends for Greater Vancouver, as well as the composite index for seven Canadian metropolitan areas, are illustrated in Exhibit 2a. For Vancouver, price index trends were stable between 1992 and 2003, increasing approximately 1.9% per year. However, the situation changed dramatically starting in 2004, and the Vancouver non-residential price index has increased by an average of approximately 10% per year over the past four years.

The seven Canadian Metropolitan Areas (CMA) price index increased more rapidly than the Vancouver index between 1999 and 2003, but has increased less rapidly since 2003.

Exhibit 2a — Long-range construction cost trends in the non-residential sector

**Long-Term Trends for Non-Residential Construction Price Indices -
Seven[1] Census Metropolitan Areas and Greater Vancouver
Four-Quarter Annual Average - 1990-2007**

- - -■- - - Seven Census Metropolitan Area Composite   ——▲—— Greater Vancouver

1. Halifax, Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, Edmonton, Calgary, Vancouver
Source: StatCan Table 327-0039 - Price indexes of non-residential building construction, by class of structure, quarterly

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[1] The non-residential construction price index (NRBCPI) is defined by Statistics Canada as "...a quarterly series measuring the changes in contractors' selling prices of non-residential building construction (i.e. commercial, industrial and institutional)". It includes both general and trade contractors' work, but excludes the cost of land, land assembly, design, development and real estate fees.

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b)   Quarterly trends

Exhibit 2b illustrates price index trends for non-residential construction, for both Vancouver and the seven-city CMA composite[1]:

- Between the first quarters of 2005 and 2006, both indices show similar upward trends, with quarterly price index increases in the range of 1.3% to 2.1%.

- Between the first quarter of 2006 and second quarter of 2007, upward pressures further intensified, with quarterly increases ranging from 2.0% to 4.0%. Rates of increase were particularly high for the Vancouver index.

- Between the second and fourth quarters of 2007, rates of increase have declined. Between the third and fourth quarter of 2007, rates of increase were in the range of 1.0%-1.2%.
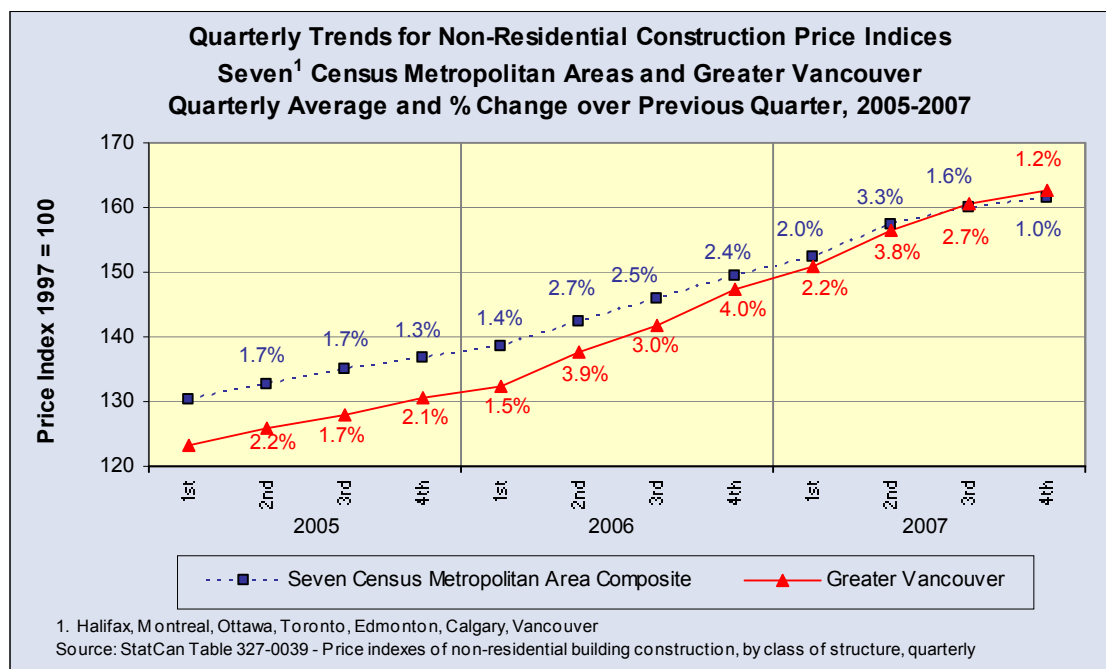
Exhibit 2b — Short-term quarterly trends for non-residential construction price indices

Quarterly Trends for Non-Residential Construction Price Indices
Seven[1] Census Metropolitan Areas and Greater Vancouver
Quarterly Average and % Change over Previous Quarter, 2005-2007

1. Halifax, Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, Edmonton, Calgary, Vancouver
Source: StatCan Table 327-0039 - Price indexes of non-residential building construction, by class of structure, quarterly

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[1] For BC Hydro, the Vancouver index in more relevant to smaller Lower Mainland projects, while the seven-City CMA composite (Halifax, Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, Edmonton, Calgary, Vancouver) is more relevant to larger nationally-sourced projects.

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c) *Six-month trends (since previous report)*

Between the second quarter of 2007 and the fourth quarter of 2007, the Vancouver non-residential price index increased 3.9%, and the CMA composite price index increased 2.6% over six months.

These rates of increase were significantly lower than for any other six-month period over the past two years.

Exhibit 2c — Changes in non-residential construction price indices in the past four six-month periods

Percentage Change for Non-Residential Construction Price Indices
Seven[1] Census Metropolitan Areas and Greater Vancouver
Six-month trends

Seven Census Metropolitan Area Composite:
- 4th Qrt 05 to 2nd 06: 4.1%
- 2nd Qrt 06 to 4th 06: 5.0%
- 4th Qrt 06 to 2nd 07: 5.4%
- 2nd Qrd 07 to 4th 07: 2.6%

Greater Vancouver:
- 4th Qrt 05 to 2nd 06: 5.4%
- 2nd Qrt 06 to 4th 06: 7.1%
- 4th Qrt 06 to 2nd 07: 6.1%
- 2nd Qrd 07 to 4th 07: 3.9%

Legend: ■ 4th Qrt 05 to 2nd 06   ■ 2nd Qrt 06 to 4th 06   □ 4th Qrt 06 to 2nd 07   □ 2nd Qrd 07 to 4th 07

Price index 1997 = 100
1. Halifax, Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, Edmonton, Calgary, Vancouver
Source: Table 327-0039 - Price indexes of non-residential building construction, by class of structure, quarterly

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2.2   Commercial, industrial, and institutional

a)   Annual trends

Statistics Canada's non-residential construction price index may be broken out into (1) commercial, (2) institutional/government and (3) industrial construction (of most interest to BC Hydro). Exhibit 2d(i) illustrates long-term annual trends for each of these subgroups, for both Greater Vancouver and the seven-city CMA composite.

Over the past decade, industrial construction price index upward trends have been slightly greater for industrial construction than for commercial and institutional/government construction.

Exhibit 2d(i) — Non-residential construction price index trends, by sector

Long-Term Trends for Construction Costs — Seven[1] CMAs and Greater Vancouver
Commercial, Industrial, Institutional Structures
Four-Quarter Annual Average: 1990-2007

1. Halifax, Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, Edmonton, Calgary, Vancouver
Source: StatCan Table 327-0039 - Price indexes of non-residential building construction, by class of structure, quarterly
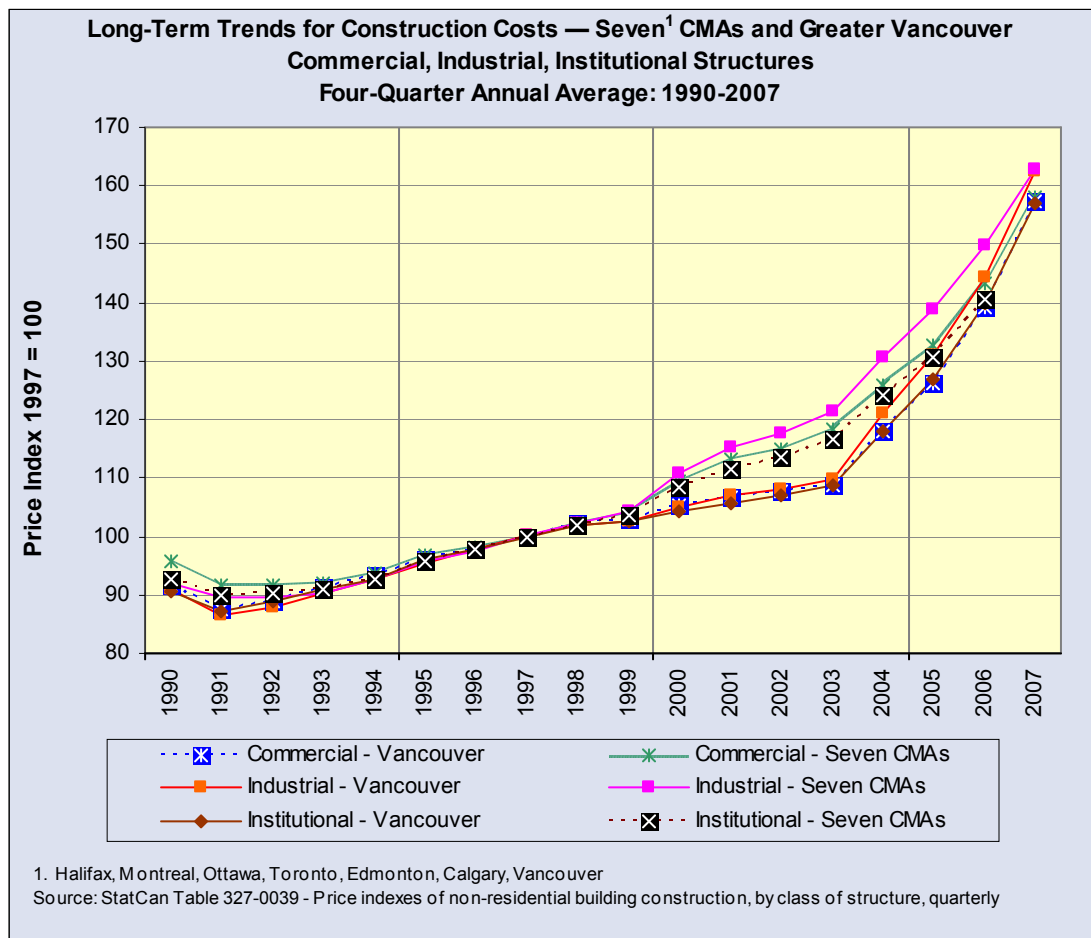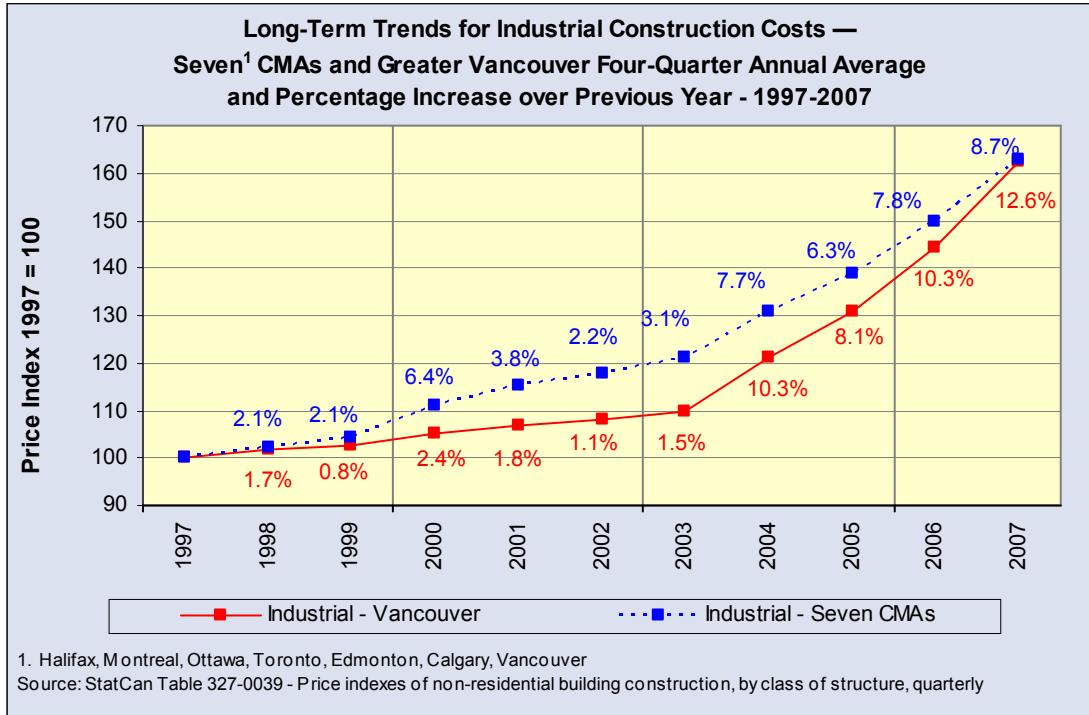
Exhibit 2d(ii) focuses on the specific results for industrial construction, also illustrating the annual percentage increase over the preceding year.

Price trends are generally similar to those for the overall non-residential construction sector index, with the significant change in trends occurring between 2003 and 2004. As for the overall non-residential index, upward price index trends

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in industrial construction were stronger for the CMA composite between 1997 and 2003, and have been stronger for Vancouver since 2003.

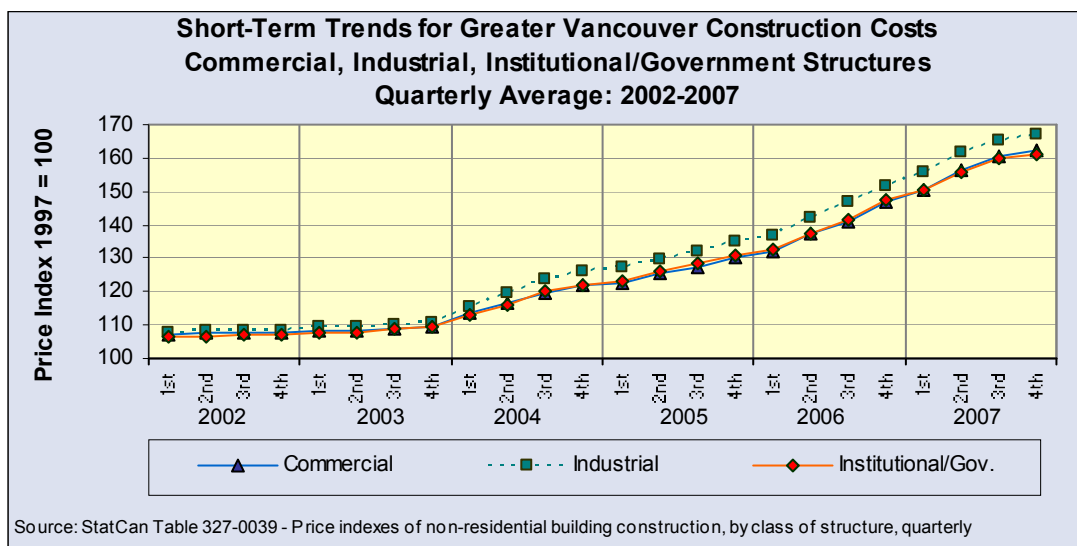**Exhibit 2d(ii) — Industrial construction price index trends**

Long-Term Trends for Industrial Construction Costs —
Seven[1] CMAs and Greater Vancouver Four-Quarter Annual Average
and Percentage Increase over Previous Year - 1997-2007

1. Halifax, Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, Edmonton, Calgary, Vancouver
Source: StatCan Table 327-0039 - Price indexes of non-residential building construction, by class of structure, quarterly

b) Quarterly trends

As illustrated in Exhibit 2e, quarterly price index trends have been similar for all three categories of non-residential construction over the past three years.

Exhibit 2e — Short-term quarterly trends for different types of building structure

Short-Term Trends for Greater Vancouver Construction Costs
Commercial, Industrial, Institutional/Government Structures
Quarterly Average: 2002-2007

Source: StatCan Table 327-0039 - Price indexes of non-residential building construction, by class of structure, quarterly

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c) *Six-month trends (since previous report)*

As illustrated in Exhibit 2f, six-month price index trends have been fairly similar for all three types of non-residential construction, with industrial construction price index trends (3.7% in six months) being in the mid-range. Rates of increase have declined in the second half of 2007, and are the lowest 6-month increase in the past two years.

Exhibit 2f — Changes in non-residential construction price indices in the past four six-month periods - Greater Vancouver

Price Index 1997 = 100
Source: StatCan Table 327-0039 - Price indexes of non-residential building construction, by class of structure, quarterly

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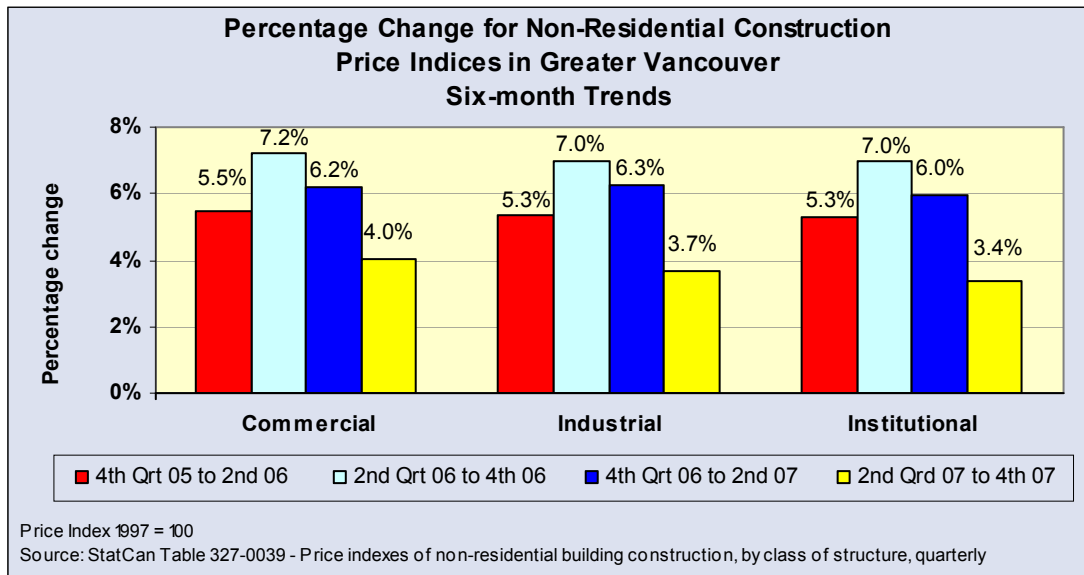
## 2.3   Building construction activity levels

a)   Annual trends

As illustrated in Exhibit 2g, the value of building permits has increased dramatically in BC since 2001, driven in initial years by residential construction, and also in more recent years by commercial construction[1]. However, for industrial construction, the value of building permits has been fairly stable between 2003 and 2007, ranging between $324 million and $358 million.

Exhibit 2g — Value of BC building permits ($ million) by sector, 2001 to 2007

	Annual trends								Six-month data		
								Change 06-07 (%)	Jan- Jun 07	Jul- Dec 07	6-mth change (%)
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007				
Residential	2,830	3,888	4,514	5,869	6,979	7,621	8,612	13.0%	4,366	4,246	-2.8%
- as % of total	57.1%	68.7%	70.6%	73.9%	68.5%	66.0%	68.6%		66.6%	70.9%	
Non-residential											
▪ Industrial	221	230	244	328	346	358	324	-9.6%	148	176	18.6%
- as % of total	4.5%	4.1%	3.8%	4.1%	3.4%	3.1%	2.6%		2.3%	2.9%	
▪ Commercial	1,171	1,117	1,130	1,228	1,886	2,494	2,648	6.2%	1,544	1,104	-28.5%
- as % of total	23.6%	19.7%	17.7%	15.5%	18.5%	21.6%	21.1%		23.6%	18.4%	
▪ Institut./Govt	732	424	506	514	980	1,068	961	-10.0%	495	467	-5.7%
- as % of total	14.8%	7.5%	7.9%	6.5%	9.6%	9.3%	7.7%		7.5%	7.8%	
BC Total	4,955	5,659	6,394	7,939	10,191	11,541	12,545	8.7%	6,553	5,992	-8.6%

Source: StatCan Table: 26-0006 - Building permits, by type of structure and area, seasonally adjusted, monthly.

Value of Building Permits in British Columbia — 2000-2007 ($ millions)

Source: StatCan Table 26-0006: Building permits, by type of structure and area, seasonally adjusted, monthly

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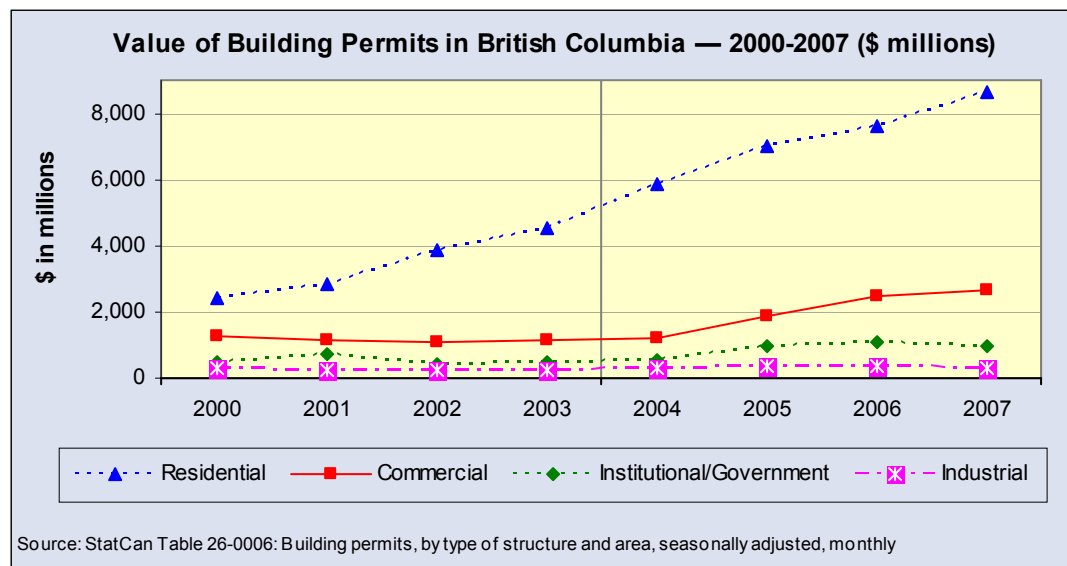
[1] BC Hydro and some other agencies (MoTH, BCTC, etc.) do not require building permits for industrial construction, so statistics do not include these types of project.

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b) *Quarterly trends – Commercial, institutional, industrial*

As shown in Exhibit 2h, the value of non-residential building permits in BC has varied significantly on a quarterly basis for commercial construction, and to a lesser extent for institutional/government construction.

Exhibit 2h — Quarterly trends in BC non-residential building permit values, by type of structure

Value of Building Permits in British Columbia — Non-Residential by Type of Structure
Quarterly Totals 2003-2007 ($ millions)

Source: StatCan Table 26-0006: Building permits, by type of structure and area, seasonally adjusted, monthly
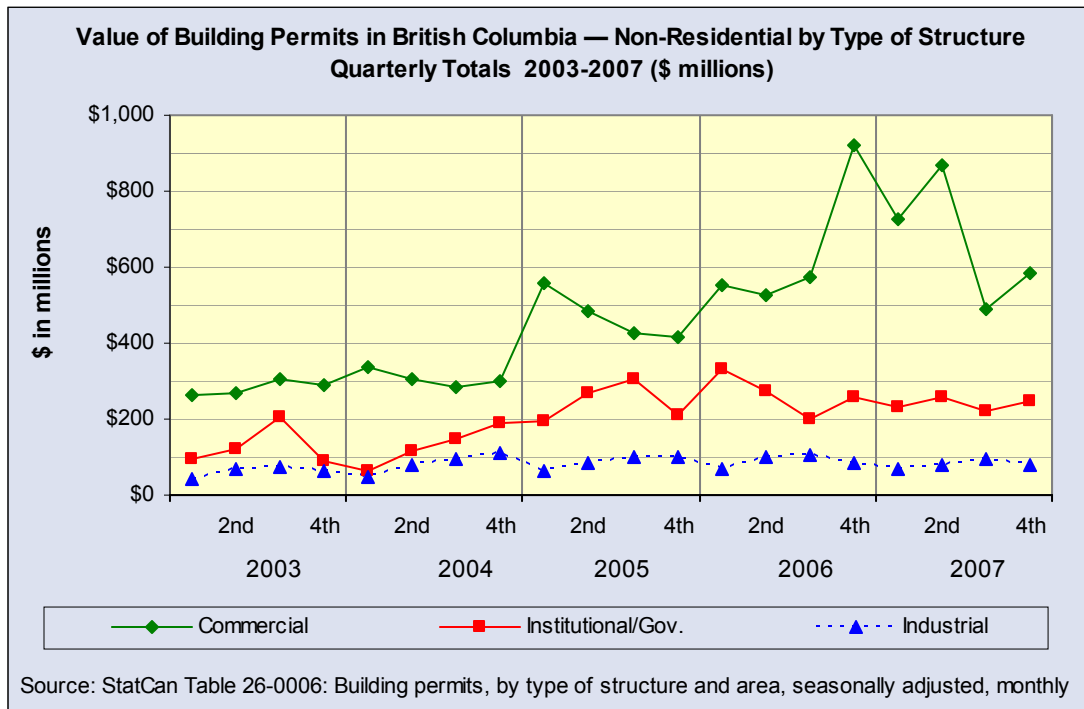
Industrial building activity, the sector most relevant to BC Hydro, has shown the greatest stability on a quarterly basis.

c) *Six-month trends (since previous report)*

As illustrated in Exhibits 2g and 2h, commercial construction activity continues to dominate the non-residential market, but has slowed down in recent months, with the value of commercial building permits in BC down by 28% between the first and second half of 2007.

By contrast, industrial building permit values in BC increased by 19% between the first and second half of 2007, mainly as a result of high third-quarter values.[1] This finding is consistent with anecdotal evidence from BC Hydro's suppliers, who indicate generally strong industrial construction markets in early 2008.

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[1] Caution should be exercised in interpreting the significance of quarterly and semi-annual values in assessing general trends, since results may be impacted by seasonal factors and the potential impact on overall results of a small number of relatively large industrial building projects.

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2.4 Price and activity trends — BC vs. Ontario/Alberta

BC Hydro's bidders for major projects tend to be large firms that operate at the national and international levels. All significant industrial contractors in BC are affected, directly or indirectly, by industrial construction trends in other national and provincial jurisdictions, particularly in Ontario and Alberta.

2.4.1 Price index trends — Toronto, Calgary and Vancouver

a) Annual trends

Exhibit 2i compares annual price index trends for non-residential construction in Toronto, Calgary and Vancouver:

- Vancouver experienced the greatest price index increases in 2004 and 2005, and the rate of increase has been even greater in 2006 and 2007

- In Calgary, price indices have increased dramatically over the past two years, reaching 17.6% between 2006 and 2007

- In Toronto, price indices have also increased in recent years, but at lower rates than in Calgary and Vancouver.

Exhibit 2i — Annual non-residential construction price index trends— Toronto, Calgary, Vancouver

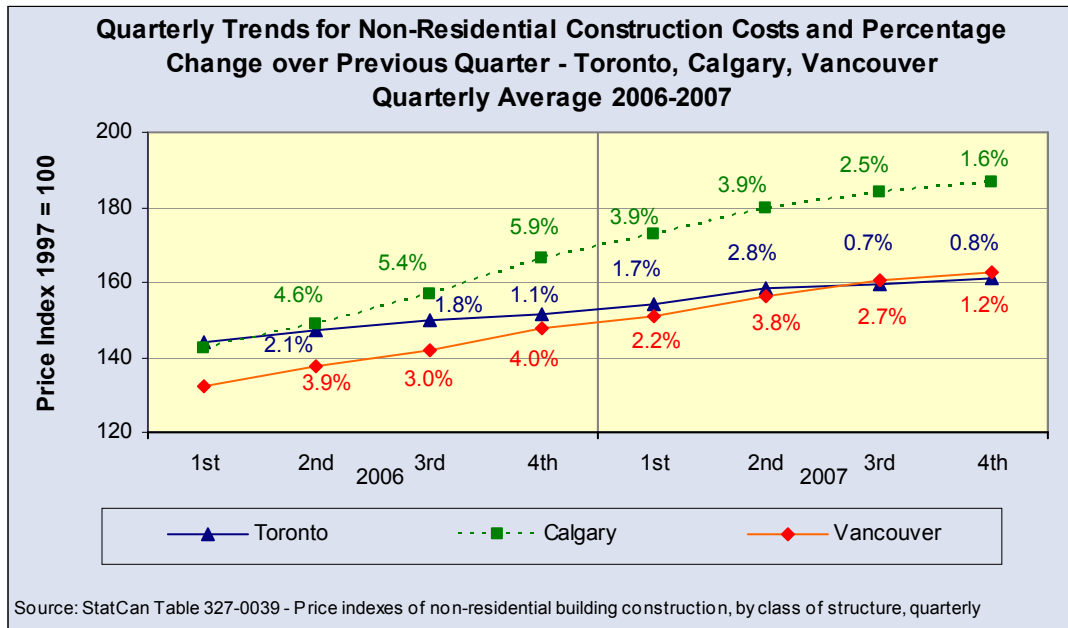|	Toronto		Calgary		Vancouver	
	Index	Change	Index	Change	Index	Change
2002	119.4	-	115.8	-	107.5	-
2003	123.8	3.7%	119.4	3.1%	108.8	1.3%
2004	132.0	6.6%	127.4	6.7%	118.2	8.6%
2005	139.0	5.3%	136.1	6.9%	126.9	7.3%
2006	148.3	6.7%	153.7	12.9%	139.9	10.3%
2007	158.3	6.7%	180.8	17.6%	157.7	12.7%

Source: StatCan Table 327-0039: Price indices of non-residential building construction, by class of structure, annually.

b) Quarterly and six-month trends

Exhibit 2j illustrates quarterly cost inflation rate trends in recent years for non-residential construction. (Results are similar for industrial construction.)

As Exhibit 2j shows, rates of increase dropped significantly in the second half of 2007, in all three cities. Calgary and Vancouver continued to experience significant price index increases, at somewhat lower rates than in previous quarters, while Toronto's price index increased by only 1.5% in the last two quarters of 2007.
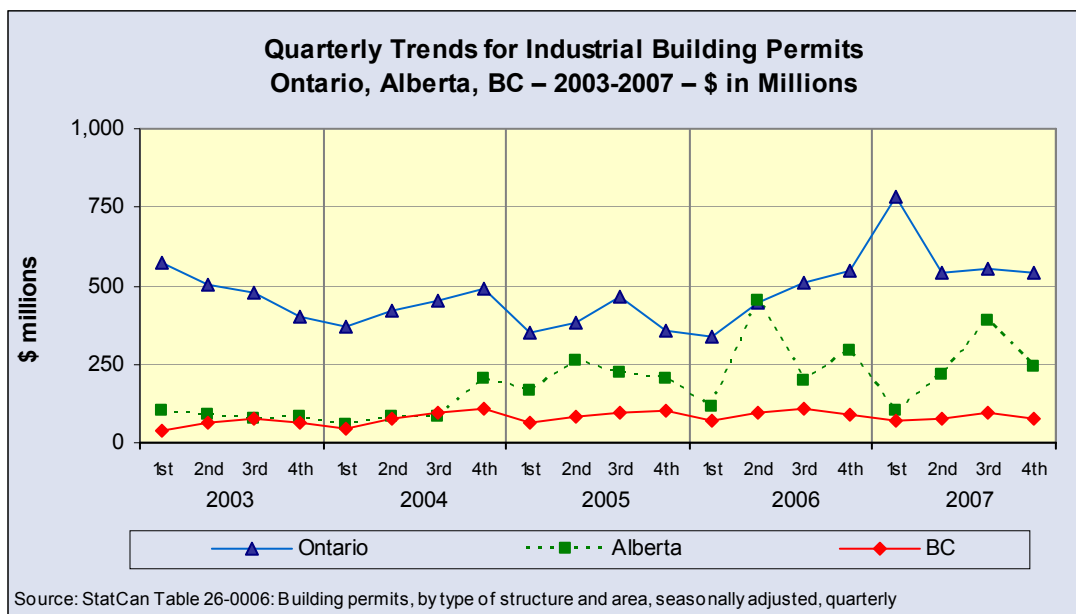
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Exhibit 2j – Recent quarterly trends for non-residential construction costs – Toronto, Calgary and Vancouver

Quarterly Trends for Non-Residential Construction Costs and Percentage Change over Previous Quarter - Toronto, Calgary, Vancouver Quarterly Average 2006-2007

Source: StatCan Table 327-0039 - Price indexes of non-residential building construction, by class of structure, quarterly

2.4.2 Activity level trends — Ontario, Alberta and BC

Quarterly trends in the value of industrial building permits, for Ontario, Alberta and BC, are illustrated in Exhibit 2k.

Exhibit 2k – Quarterly activity trends — Ontario, Alberta, BC

Quarterly Trends for Industrial Building Permits Ontario, Alberta, BC – 2003-2007 – $ in Millions

Source: StatCan Table 26-0006: Building permits, by type of structure and area, seasonally adjusted, quarterly

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While industrial construction activity levels in BC have been relatively flat compared to Alberta and Ontario, the strength of these other markets has put price pressure on BC industrial construction projects.

The recently released 2008 first quarter bulletin by Statistics Canada on investment in non-residential building construction, reported that "... last year's pace for investment in non-residential building construction in Canada continued into the first three months of 2008, again the result of major construction activity... in Alberta and Ontario".
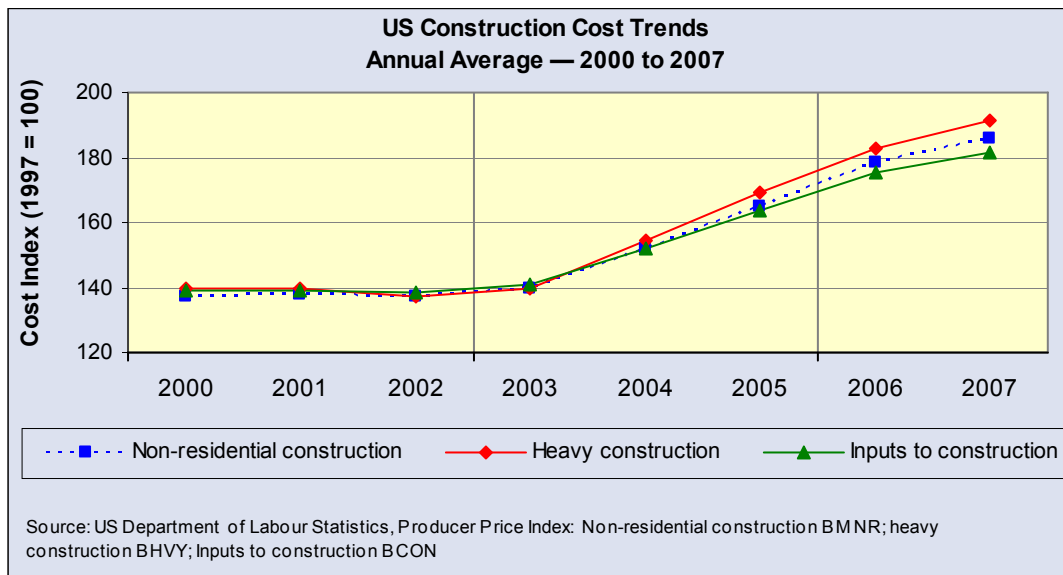
2.5 US construction price trends

US construction price index trends have been fairly similar to those experienced in Canada. As illustrated in Exhibit 2l(i) and 2l(ii), US data indicate flat price indices for US non-residential and heavy construction between 2000 and 2003. In 2004, price indices started to increase at a higher rate, averaging 7% to 9% annually for 2004 through 2006.

For 2007, the rates of increase declined, but were still significantly upward, consistent with Canadian and BC trends.

Exhibit 2l
(i) US annual construction price trends

Source: US Department of Labour Statistics, Producer Price Index: Non-residential construction BMNR; heavy construction BHVY; Inputs to construction BCON

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(ii) US annual price indices and percentage change

	Non-residential		Heavy construction		Inputs to construction	
	Index	% Change	Index	% Change	Index	% Change
2000	137.1	-	139.8	-	138.9	-
2001	137.9	0.6%	139.6	-0.1%	139.1	0.1%
2002	137.0	-0.7%	137.3	-1.6%	138.3	-0.6%
2003	139.7	2.0%	139.4	1.5%	140.8	1.8%
2004	151.7	8.6%	154.2	10.6%	151.8	7.8%
2005	165.1	8.8%	169.5	9.9%	163.7	7.8%
2006	178.6	8.2%	182.6	7.7%	175.4	7.1%
2007	185.6	3.9%	191.2	4.7%	181.4	3.4%
Jul-Dec 06	180.5	-	185.0	-	177.0	-
Jan-Jun 07	183.7	1.8%	188.2	1.7%	179.5	1.4%
Jul-Dec 07	188.1	2.7%	194.2	3.2%	183.3	2.1%

Source: US Department of Labor Statistics, Producer Price Index.

2.6   Conclusion — General price and activity level trends

There was a moderate easing of upward price pressures for the BC industrial construction industry during the second half of 2007, with the Vancouver industrial construction price index rising 3.7% during the six-month period. While this rate of increase was the lowest in the past two years, it still represents a significantly higher rate of increase than long-term trends prior to 2004.

With regard to activity levels, the value of industrial building permits in BC in the last six months of 2007 was also down from the first six months, continuing the trend of the previous six months. Industrial construction activity levels are still much higher than pre-2004 levels, and strong demand in Alberta continues to put pressure on prices in BC.

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3. Price and Activity Trends — Electric Utility Industry

This chapter presents price index information that is particularly relevant to the Canadian electric utility industry.

3.1 Canadian electric utilities price trends

Exhibit 3a presents the Statistics Canada price index data for Canada-wide electric utility costs with respect to (1) distribution systems, (2) transmission lines, and (3) substations. Data are only available on an annual basis.

3.1.1 Long-term trends

Long-term price index trends for electric utility construction in Canada have been significantly lower than for the broader non-residential construction price indices:
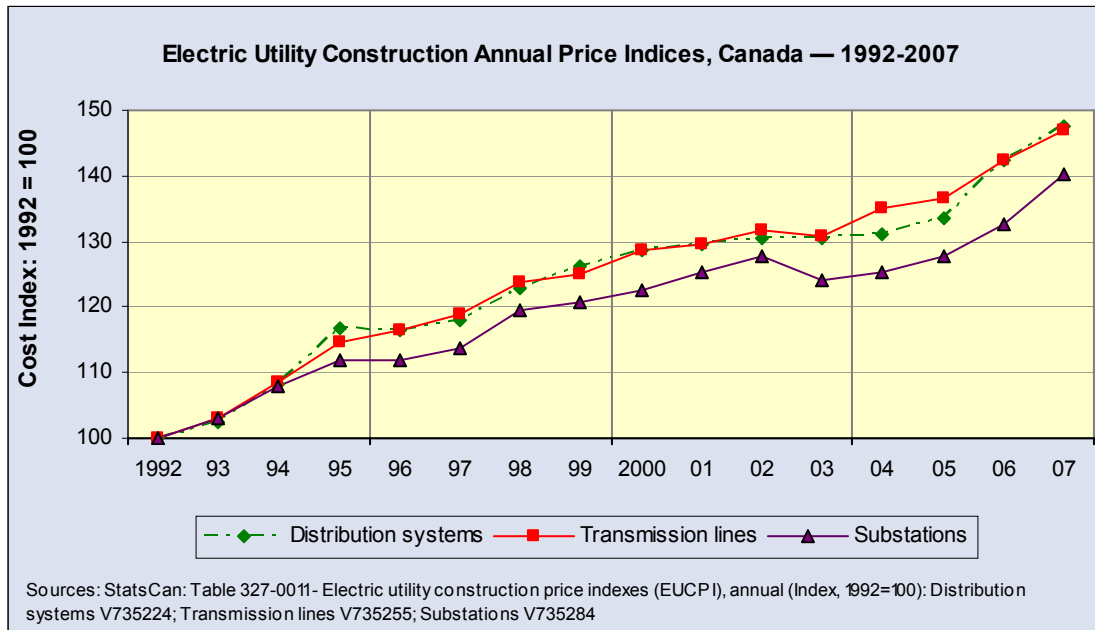
- As illustrated in Exhibit 3a(i), between 1992 and 2007, the cumulative 15-year increase in price indices for the three categories has been in the range of 40% to 48%.

- By contrast, as illustrated earlier in Exhibit 2d, the 15-year increase in non-residential construction price indices between 1992 and 2007 has been in the range of 80% (depending on the specific index).
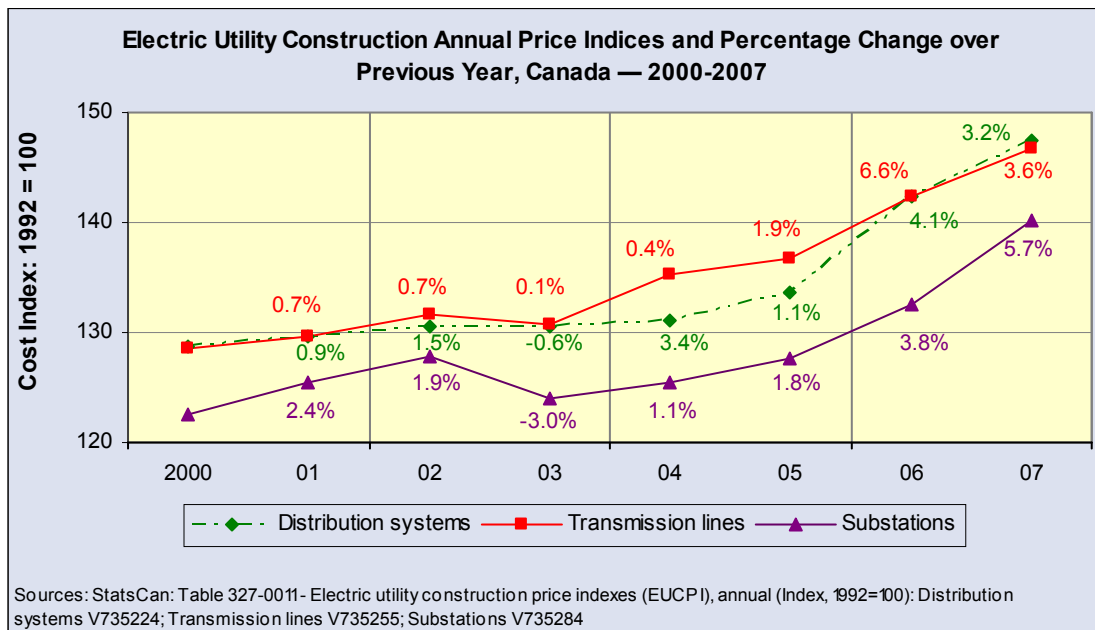
3.1.2 Recent-year trends

Recent-year annual percentage changes are illustrated in Exhibit 3a(ii). Price index increases between 2006 and 2007 are higher than in recent previous years, ranging from 3.2% (transmission lines) to 5.7% (substations). However, these price index increases are still relatively low in relation to the increases in the broader industrial construction price index (see next section).

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Exhibit 3a — Electric utility construction price trends – Canada
(i) Long-term annual trends

Electric Utility Construction Annual Price Indices, Canada — 1992-2007

Sources: StatsCan: Table 327-0011- Electric utility construction price indexes (EUCPI), annual (Index, 1992=100): Distribution systems V735224; Transmission lines V735255; Substations V735284

(ii) Recent-year annual trends

Electric Utility Construction Annual Price Indices and Percentage Change over Previous Year, Canada — 2000-2007

Sources: StatsCan: Table 327-0011- Electric utility construction price indexes (EUCPI), annual (Index, 1992=100): Distribution systems V735224; Transmission lines V735255; Substations V735284

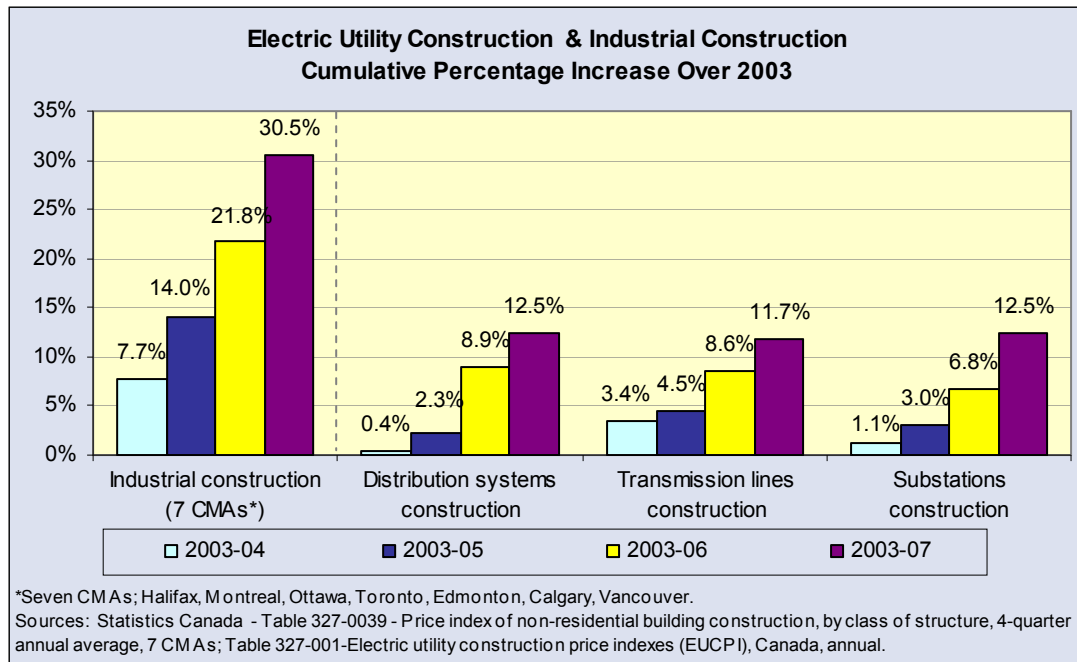**MMK** CONSULTING

3.1.3 Price index comparison — Electric utility vs. industrial construction

Exhibit 3b compares four-year cumulative trends in Statistics Canada's electric utility construction indices to the cumulative trends in the industrial construction price index.

Exhibit 3b – Comparison of general industrial construction price index with electric utility indices

Electric Utility Construction & Industrial Construction Cumulative Percentage Increase Over 2003

	Industrial construction (7 CMAs*)	Distribution systems construction	Transmission lines construction	Substations construction
2003-04	7.7%	0.4%	3.4%	1.1%
2003-05	14.0%	2.3%	4.5%	3.0%
2003-06	21.8%	8.9%	8.6%	6.8%
2003-07	30.5%	12.5%	11.7%	12.5%

*Seven CMAs; Halifax, Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, Edmonton, Calgary, Vancouver.
Sources: Statistics Canada - Table 327-0039 - Price index of non-residential building construction, by class of structure, 4-quarter annual average, 7 CMAs; Table 327-001-Electric utility construction price indexes (EUCPI), Canada, annual.

Over the past four years, Statistics Canada's distribution system, transmission, and substation price indices have increased by approximately 12% — less than half of the 30.5% increase in industrial construction price indices during the same period.

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3.1.4 Potential factors contributing to lower electric utility construction price index increases

Several factors have been identified as likely contributing to the relatively low price index trends for electric utility construction. One factor is the specialized nature of the utility-based industrial construction segment. There may be a somewhat limited ability of firms to cross over into other industrial construction market segments, where activity levels have increased significantly, to pursue opportunities in these markets.

Another contributing factor may be the concentrated structure of the Canadian electric utility industry. The limited number of larger utilities may make it easier for these utilities to resist upward price pressures from suppliers.

Another likely contributing factor is the rising value of the Canadian dollar in recent years, as illustrated in Exhibit 3c. A strengthening Canadian dollar tends to lower the cost of purchasing imported electric utility materials (e.g. cables) and equipment (e.g. transformers). As illustrated in Exhibit 3c, the Canadian dollar has strengthened considerably against the US dollar in recent years.

**Exhibit 3c – Long-term annual exchange rate: Canadian vs. US dollar**

Annual Exchange Rate
Canadian vs. US dollar, 1990 - 2007

Source: Bank of Canada

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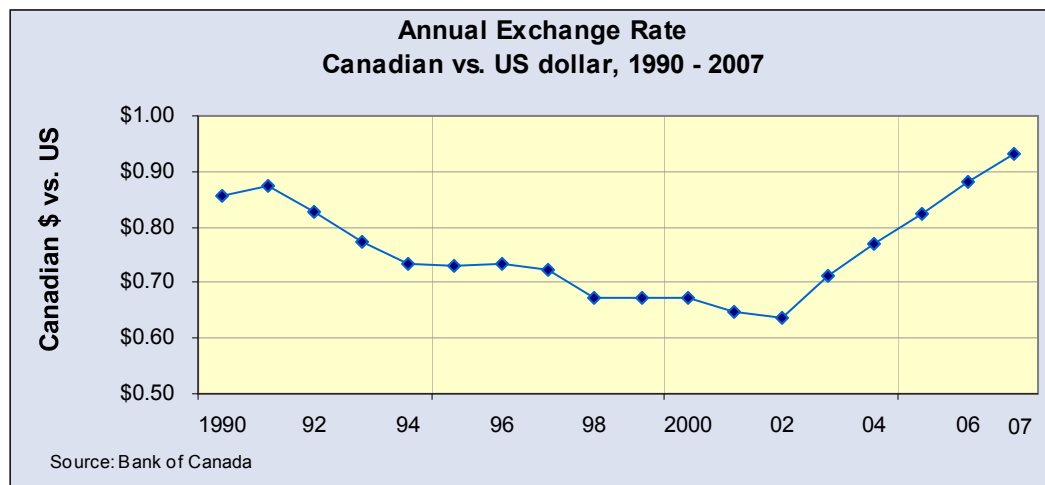
3.2 US electric utility price trends

a) US construction price trends

The US Bureau of Reclamation[1] Construction Cost Trends for electric utility construction are illustrated in Exhibit 3d. They illustrate the continuing strong upward price trends for switchyards/substations and steel tower transmission lines, as well as a flattening of the upward trend in wood pole transmission lines.

Exhibit 3d – US electric utility construction price indices
(i) Annual trends, 2000 to 2007
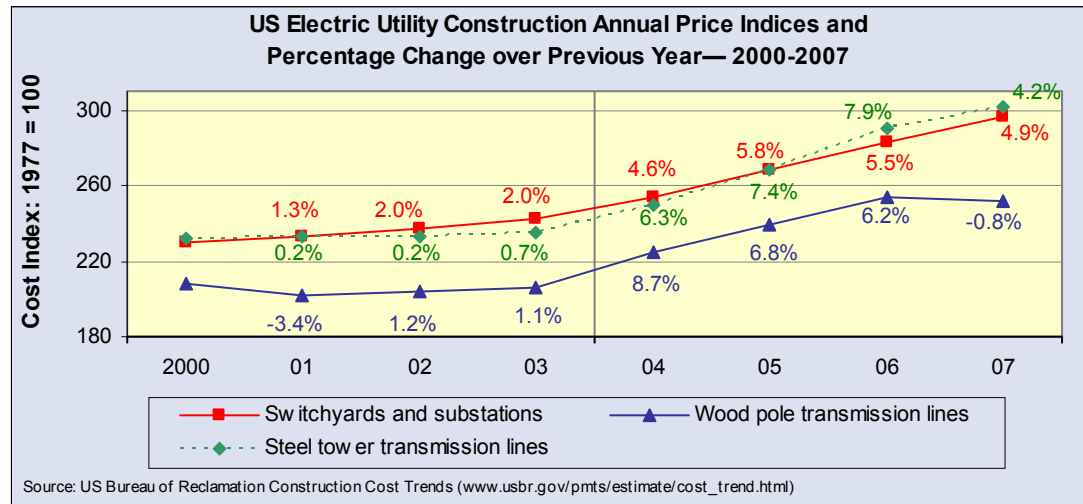
(ii) Quarterly trends, 2003 to 2007

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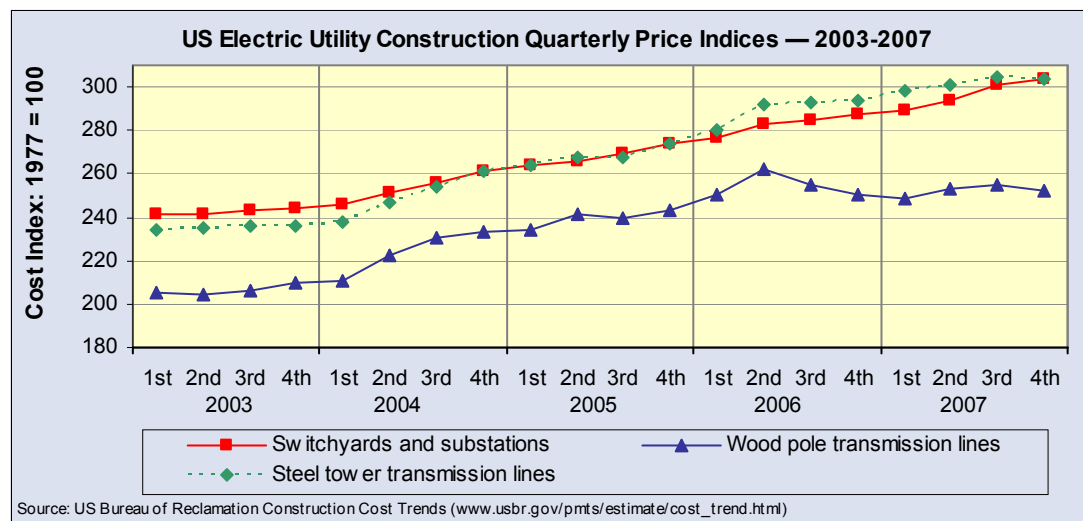
[1] The US Bureau of Reclamation manages, develops, and protects water and related resources. It has developed Construction Cost Trends to track construction relevant to the primary types of projects being constructed by the organization. Cost models consisting of appropriate labor, equipment, and materials types are used as the principal costs reference. Data for the models are primarily extracted from:
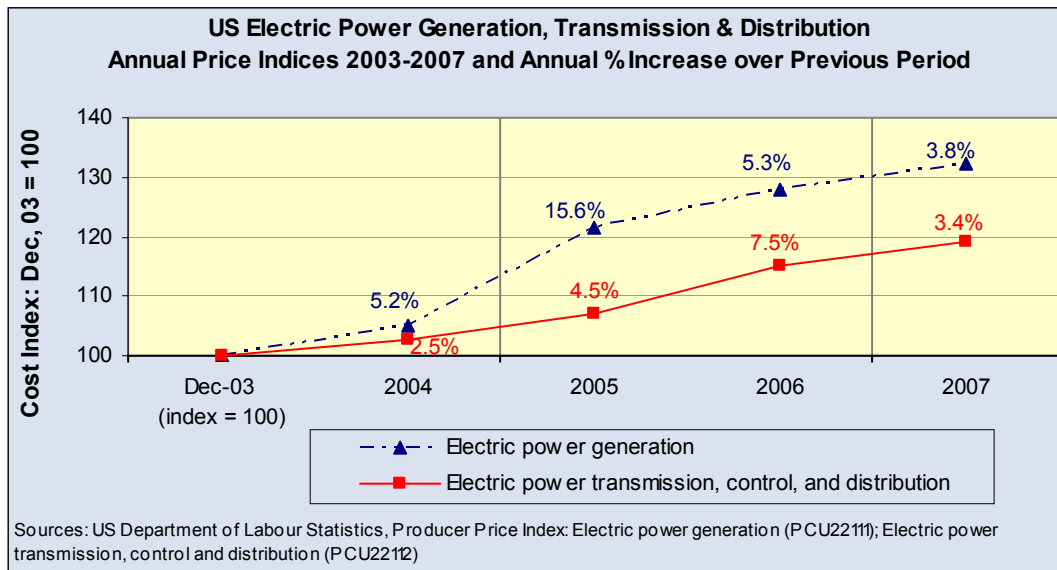- Producer Price Indexes [PPI], US Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics
- Price Trends for Federal-Aid Highway Construction, US Department of Transportation
- Engineering News-Record, weekly publication of McGraw-Hill.
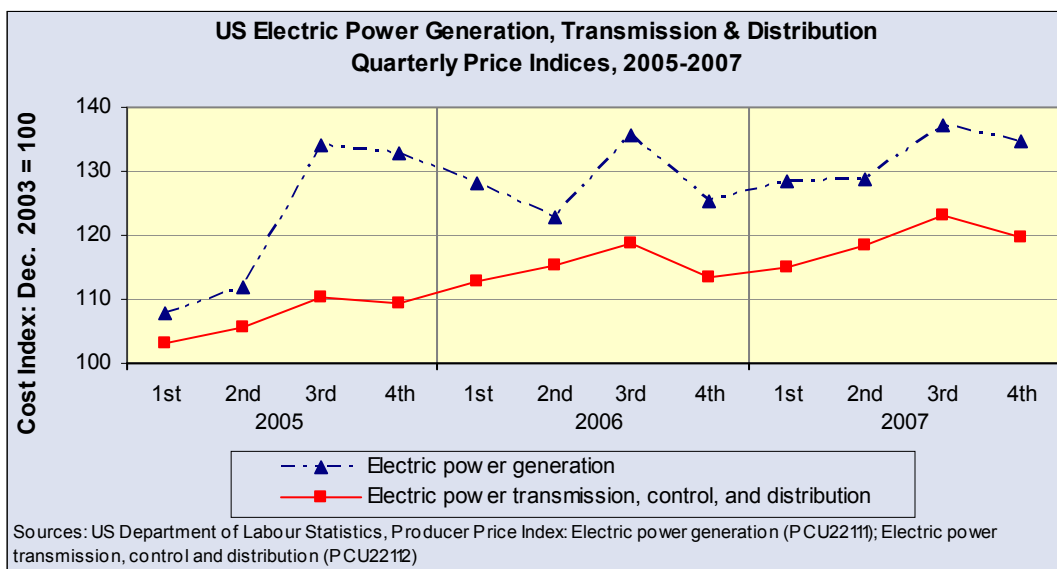Actual field data, when available, is used to confirm the reasonableness of the models.

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b) *US producer price trends*

Recent US producer price trends for electric power generation, transmission and distribution are illustrated in Exhibit 3e. Price trends in 2007 were upward, at a lower rate of increase than in 2006.

Exhibit 3e – US electric power generation, transmission & distribution – (i) Annual trends 2003-07
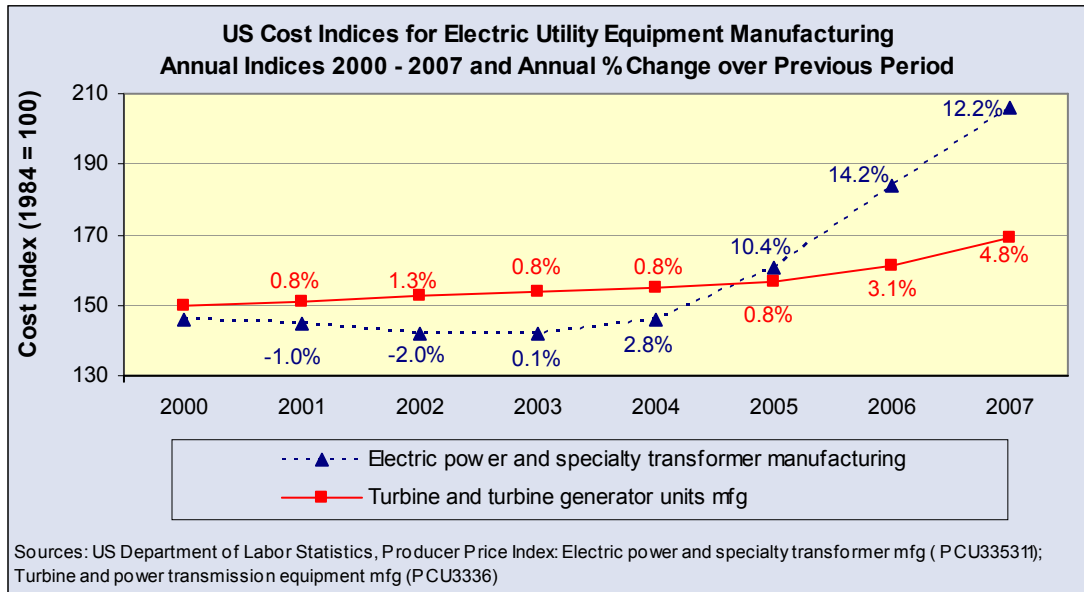

**US Electric Power Generation, Transmission & Distribution
Annual Price Indices 2003-2007 and Annual %Increase over Previous Period**

Sources: US Department of Labour Statistics, Producer Price Index: Electric power generation (PCU22111); Electric power transmission, control and distribution (PCU22112)

(ii) Quarterly trends 2005-2007

**US Electric Power Generation, Transmission & Distribution
Quarterly Price Indices, 2005-2007**

Sources: US Department of Labour Statistics, Producer Price Index: Electric power generation (PCU22111); Electric power transmission, control and distribution (PCU22112)
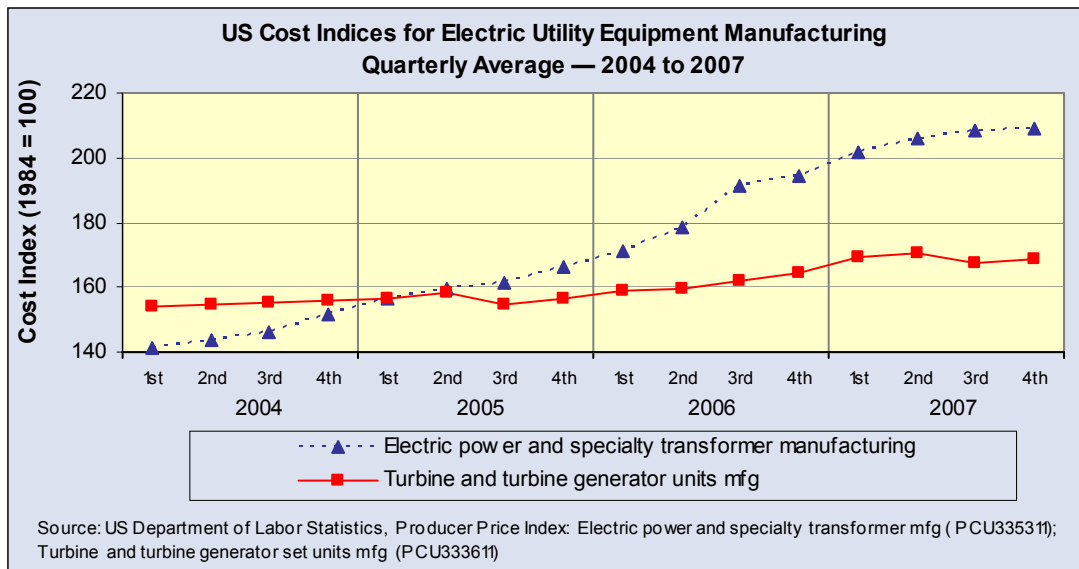
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c) *US equipment manufacturing price trends*

As illustrated in Exhibit 3f, US electric power and specialty transformer equipment manufacturing price indices have risen by approximately 40% since 2003. Turbine and power transmission equipment manufacturing has increased at a much lower rate, approximately 8%, over the same period.

Exhibit 3f – US electric utility equipment manufacturing
(i) Annual trends 2000-07

Sources: US Department of Labor Statistics, Producer Price Index: Electric power and specialty transformer mfg (PCU335311); Turbine and power transmission equipment mfg (PCU3336)

(ii) Quarterly trends 2004 to 2007

Source: US Department of Labor Statistics, Producer Price Index: Electric power and specialty transformer mfg (PCU335311); Turbine and turbine generator set units mfg (PCU333611)

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d) *Construction activity trends — US transmission and delivery*

There is also evidence that US electric utility construction activity has been increasing in recent years, and is likely to continue to do so. According to a recent report prepared for the Edison Foundation[1]:

> "The [US electric utilities] industry has been investing and will continue to invest in the nation's transmission infrastructure at levels not seen in 30 years. ...In 2006 alone, investor-owned electric utilities and stand-alone transmission companies invested an historic $6.9 billion in the nation's grid.... From 2006-2009..., the industry is planning to invest $31.5 billion... nearly a 60% increase over the amount invested from 2002-2005."

> "Utilities anticipate substantial increases in generation, transmission and distribution investment levels over the next two decades. Moreover, the significant need for new electricity infrastructure is a world-wide phenomenon. ...Investments by power-sector companies throughout the world will total about $11 trillion dollars by 2030."

The same report also indicated that there is a shortage of spare shop capacity in the electric equipment and machinery manufacturing sector, as a result of increasing activity in electric utilities construction. These constraints may delay the delivery of major components such as turbines and transformers, and add costs to the project through higher manufacturing equipment costs.

These comments help to explain the increasing US manufacturing price index trends illustrated in Exhibit 3f.
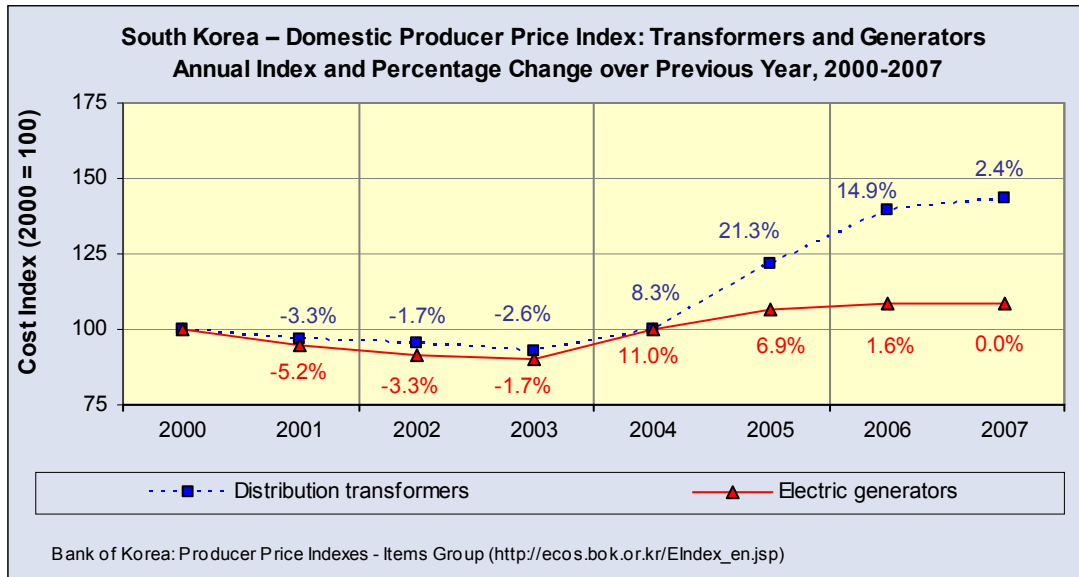
3.3 Equipment price trends — South Korea

3.3.1 Power generation and distribution equipment

As illustrated in Exhibit 3g, South Korea's domestic price index for distribution transformers increased by approximately 50% between 2003 and 2007. Price indices for electric generators have also increased, but much more moderately.

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[1] Source: "Rising Utility Construction Costs: Sources and Impacts", The Battle Group, September 2007. Prepared for The Edison Foundation. (p.5 and 6)
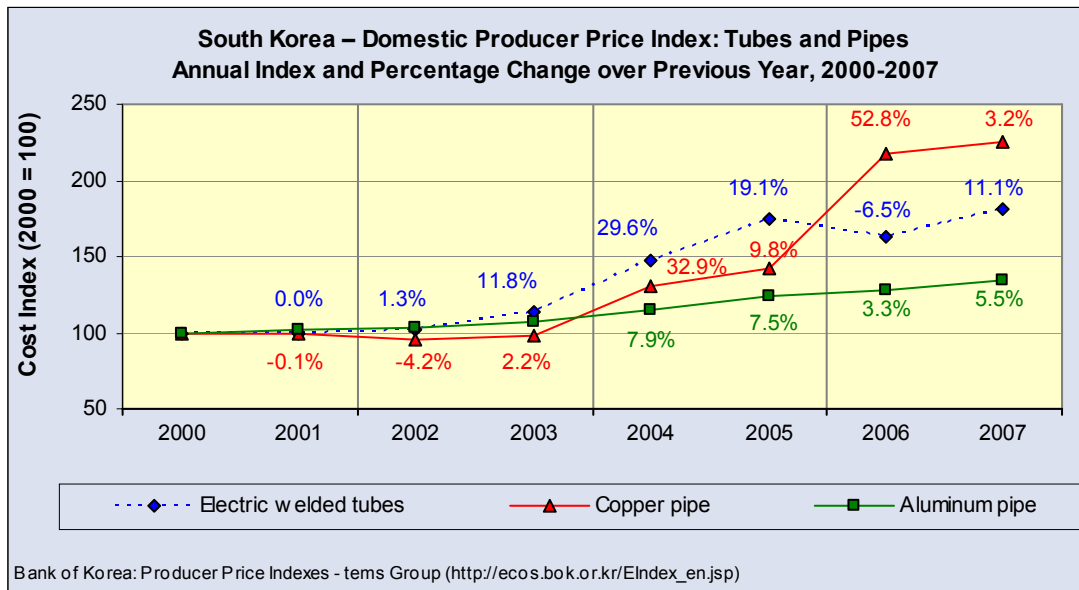
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Exhibit 3g – Cost trends power generation equipment, South Korea

South Korea – Domestic Producer Price Index: Transformers and Generators
Annual Index and Percentage Change over Previous Year, 2000-2007

3.3.2 Other representative equipment and materials

As illustrated in Exhibit 3h, Korean price index trends for other representative equipment and materials items (such as tubes and pipes) have tended to reflect the significant upward worldwide trend in price indices for metals and other commodities.

Exhibit 3h – Cost trends for tubes and pipes, South Korea

South Korea – Domestic Producer Price Index: Tubes and Pipes
Annual Index and Percentage Change over Previous Year, 2000-2007

3.3.3 Exchange rate impacts

As illustrated in Exhibit 3i, currency exchange rates between Canada and South Korea have been fairly stable over the past four years. Thus, the Korean domestic trends illustrated in Exhibits 3g and 3h are not significantly impacted by exchange rates.

We caution that the price indices illustrated in Exhibits 3g and 3h are for domestic sales within South Korea, which may limit their relevance to export prices available to BC Hydro and other international customers.

Exhibit 3i – Exchange rates – Canadian dollar versus South Korean won
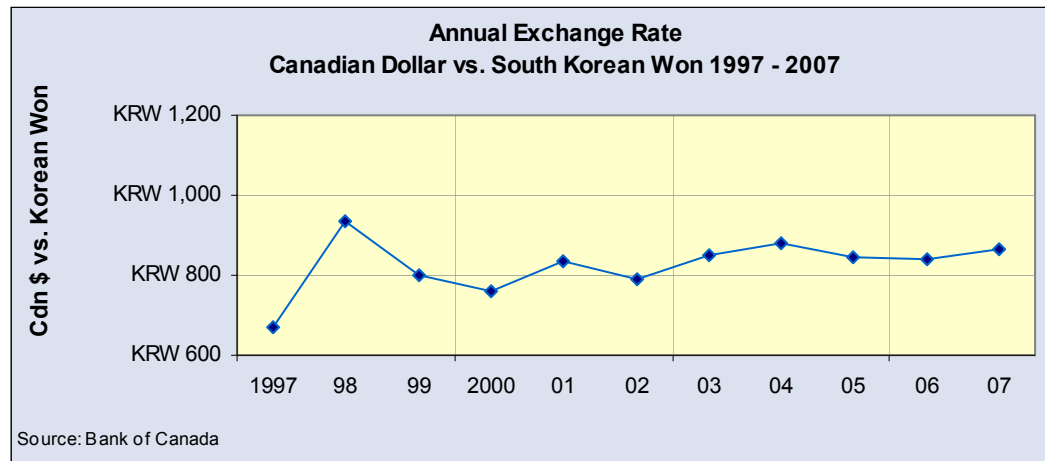
3.4 Equipment price trends – Japan

3.4.1 Power generation and distribution equipment

Domestic price trends for Japanese power generation and transformer equipment, measured in Japanese yen, are presented in Exhibit 3j. Domestic price increases in Japan have been relatively modest since 2005.[1]

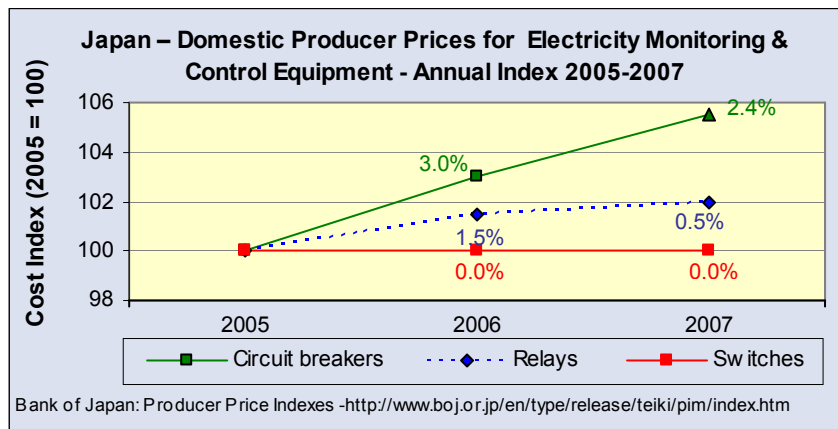**Exhibit 3j – Domestic prices for transformers and generators**

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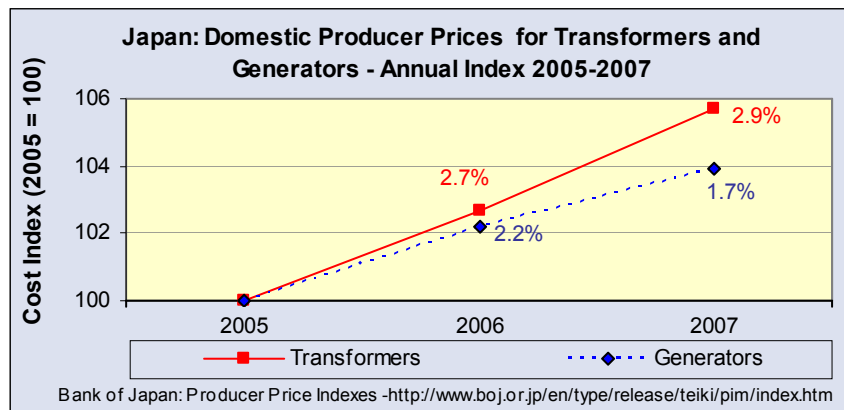
[1] Data is only available from 2005 for the Japanese electric utility subsector. Prior to 2005, producer price data is only available by major industry sectors.

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3.4.2 Electricity monitoring and control equipment

Domestic price trends for electricity monitoring and control equipment are illustrated in Exhibit 3k. Domestic price increases for circuit breakers have been in the range of 2.4% to 3.0% annually, while price index trends for relays and switches have been relatively flat.

Exhibit 3k – Domestic prices for electricity monitoring & control equipment

Japan – Domestic Producer Prices for Electricity Monitoring & Control Equipment - Annual Index 2005-2007

Cost Index (2005 = 100)

Circuit breakers — Relays — Switches

Bank of Japan: Producer Price Indexes -http://www.boj.or.jp/en/type/release/teiki/pim/index.htm

3.4.3 Exchange rate impacts

As illustrated in Exhibit 3l, the Canadian dollar has appreciated against the Japanese yen in recent years. This trend would tend to dampen or offset the domestic price increases noted in Exhibits 3j and 3k.

We caution that the price indices illustrated in Exhibits 3j and 3k are for domestic prices within Japan, which may limit their applicability to export prices available to BC Hydro and other international customers.

Exhibit 3l - Exchange rates – Canadian dollar versus Japanese yen

Annual Exchange Rate
Canadian Dollar vs. Japanese Yen 1997 - 2007

Cdn $ vs. Japanese Yen

Source: Bank of Canada
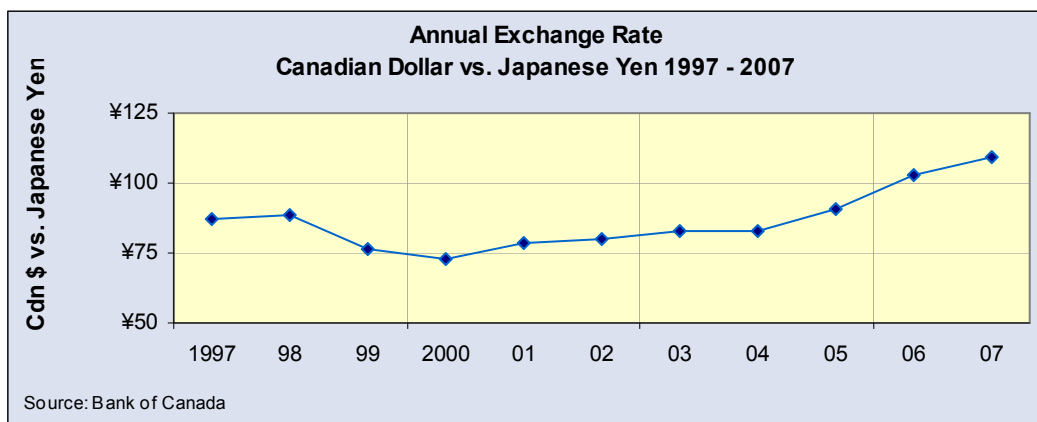
3.5　Recent BC Hydro purchasing experience

Hydro's purchasing staff also indicate that they have experienced significant increases in international equipment prices over the past few years. Our September 2007 reported noted Hydro staff reporting transmission equipment (e.g. transformer) prices of up to 25%-30% above expectations.

In early 2008, Hydro staff report that these price trends have flattened, but at the higher levels reached during 2007.

3.6　Conclusion — Electric utility construction price and activity trends

For most of the past four years, price index increases have been much lower in Canada for electric utility transmission/distribution than for the broader industrial construction indices. While Statistics Canada's Vancouver price index for industrial construction increased by 30.5% between 2003 and 2007, the Canadian construction price indices for distribution-related electric utility construction (distribution systems, transmission lines and substations) only increased by approximately 12% over the same four years.

With respect to US electric utility construction cost trends, cost indices for switchyards/substations and steel tower transmission lines increased by 4.9% and 4.2% respectively, while declining 0.8% for wood pole transmission lines, between 2006 and 2007.

US equipment price indices for electric power and specialty transformer manufacturing (in US dollars) have continued their upward trends, rising 12% in 2007, following increases of approximately 25% in the prior two years. By contrast, price trends have been relatively flat with respect to turbine and power transmission equipment manufacturing.

In Japan and Korea, domestic price indices for electrical transformers increased by 2.9% (Japan) and 2.4% (Korea) in 2007. Generator price index trends were more modest, increasing by 1.7% in Japan while remaining flat in Korea.

Looking ahead, US industry publications are forecasting high levels of transmission and distribution construction activity over the next few years. BC Hydro purchasing experts also indicate that they have experienced significant increases in international equipment prices over the past few years. In recent interviews, several current industrial construction suppliers to BC Hydro have also indicated that activity levels and market conditions in early 2008 are stronger than they were in early 2007.
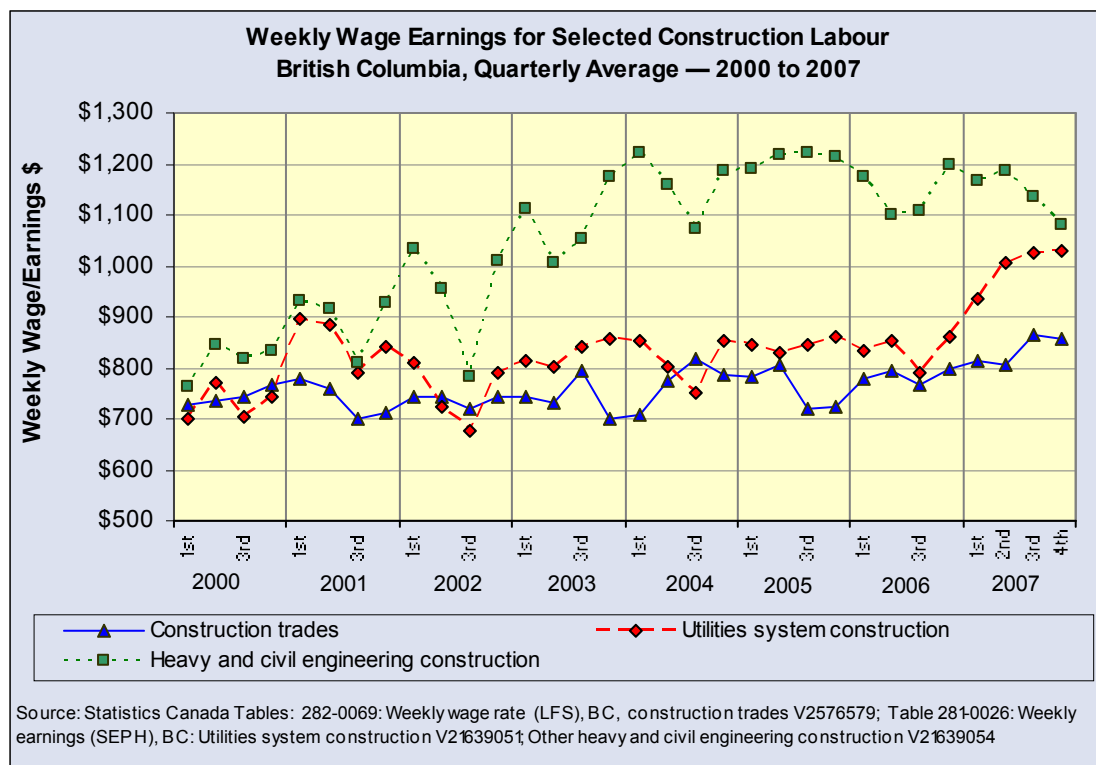
4.   Price Trends — By Cost Component

This chapter analyzes price index trends in many of the component cost factors (labour, materials, fuel, etc.) that will typically underlie industrial construction cost estimates and contractor bid prices.

4.1   Construction labour

a)   *Quarterly trends in wage earnings*

As illustrated in Exhibit 4a, the apparent trends in wage earnings vary according to the specific index selected for analysis. Weekly wage earnings in utilities system construction have increased by more than 25% between the third quarter of 2006 and the fourth quarter of 2007. At the same time, reported wage earnings in more broadly-defined construction labour categories have increased at lower rates.

Exhibit 4a — Weekly wage earnings for selected construction labour in British Columbia

Source: Statistics Canada Tables: 282-0069: Weekly wage rate (LFS), BC, construction trades V2576579; Table 281-0026: Weekly earnings (SEPH), BC: Utilities system construction V21639051; Other heavy and civil engineering construction V21639054
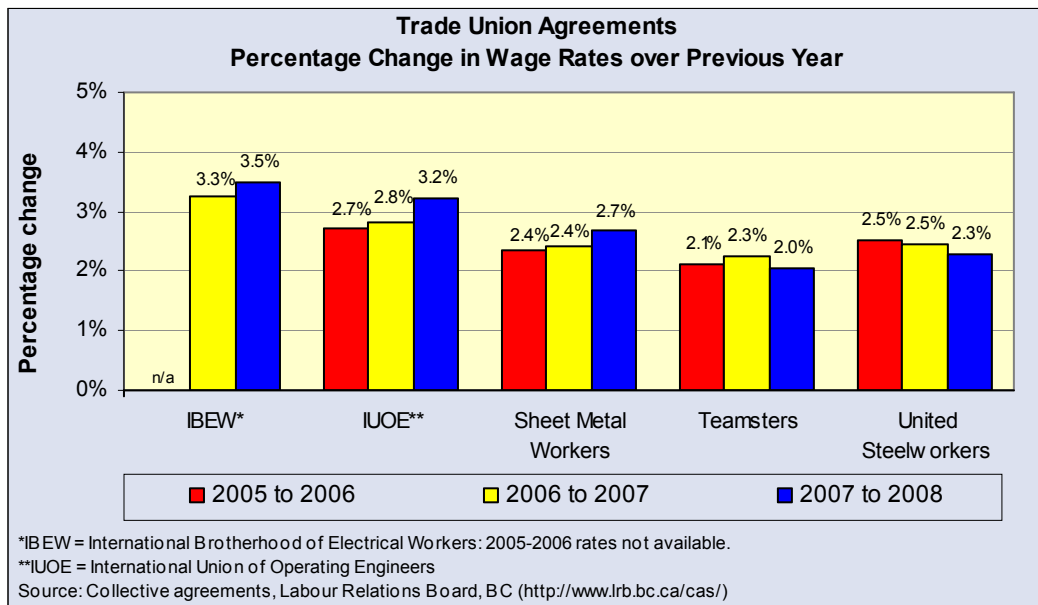
The mixed trends appear at first glance to be somewhat inconsistent with industry sources, who report significant increases in wages paid to similarly qualified labour. One explanation of these results is that the rapid growth of the BC construction industry has resulted in a decline in average experience levels, partly masking the increase in wage earnings for equally qualified individuals.

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b) Trade union wage rate agreements

A number of collective agreements were renewed in BC in 2006. As illustrated in Exhibit 4b, annual wage rate increases (excluding benefits and other adjustments) are generally in the range of 2.0% to 3.5% annually.
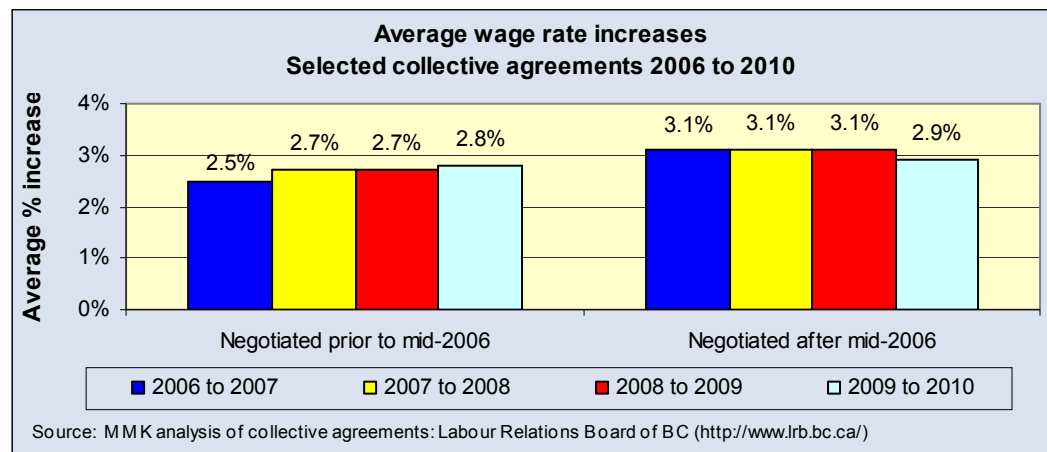
Exhibit 4b — Wage rate increases for sample union trade positions

Trade Union Agreements
Percentage Change in Wage Rates over Previous Year

*IBEW = International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers: 2005-2006 rates not available.
**IUOE = International Union of Operating Engineers
Source: Collective agreements, Labour Relations Board, BC (http://www.lrb.bc.ca/cas/)

c) Recent trends in union wage raises

Exhibit 4c illustrates the trends in size of collective agreement wage increases in recent months. For collective agreements negotiated in the second half of 2006, trends show average annual wage increases that are modestly higher than wage increases negotiated in earlier agreements.

Exhibit 4c — Recent years wage rate increases for sample union trade agreements

Average wage rate increases
Selected collective agreements 2006 to 2010

Source: MMK analysis of collective agreements: Labour Relations Board of BC (http://www.lrb.bc.ca/)
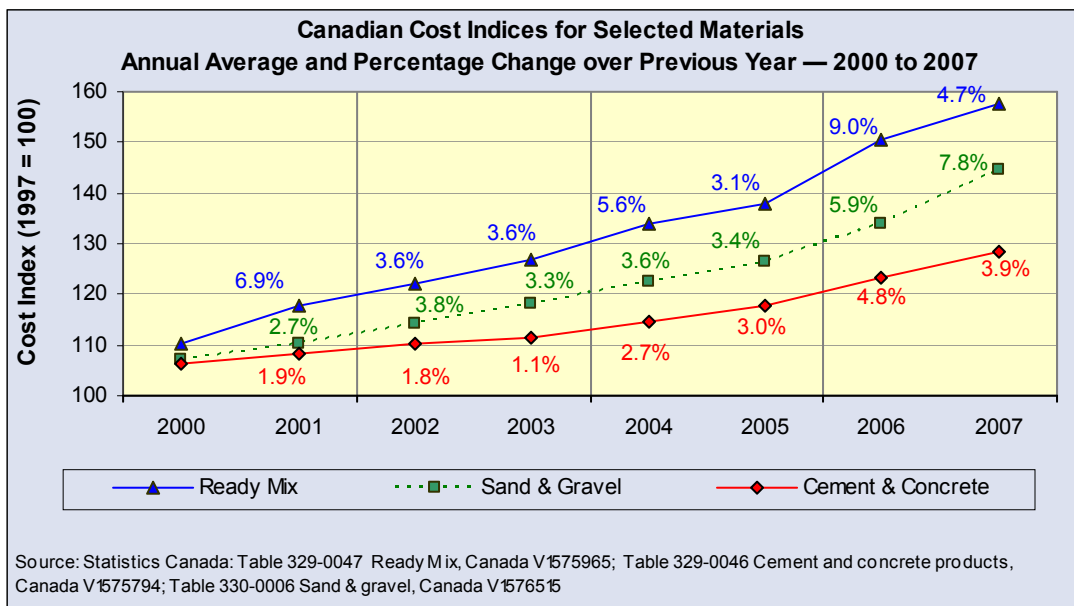
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4.2 Concrete materials

Concrete materials price indices have been trending steadily upwards over the past few years. As illustrated in Exhibit 4d(i), the overall price indices in 2007 were up by between 3.9% (cement/concrete) and 7.8% (sand & gravel) over 2006.
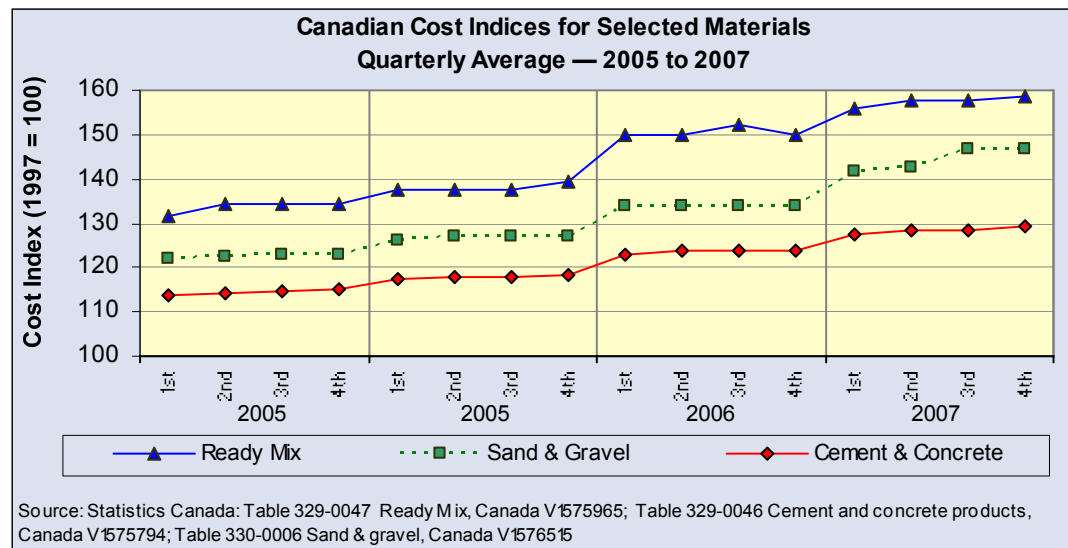
On a quarterly basis, Exhibit 4d(ii) illustrates the tendency for price adjustments to occur between the fourth and first quarter of each year. During the latter half of 2007, increases in ready mix and cement & concrete prices were small, although sand & gravel prices increased between the second and third quarters of 2007.

Exhibit 4d — Cost indices for selected construction materials
(i) Annual trends

Source: Statistics Canada: Table 329-0047 Ready Mix, Canada V1575965; Table 329-0046 Cement and concrete products, Canada V1575794; Table 330-0006 Sand & gravel, Canada V1576515

(ii) Quarterly trends

Source: Statistics Canada: Table 329-0047 Ready Mix, Canada V1575965; Table 329-0046 Cement and concrete products, Canada V1575794; Table 330-0006 Sand & gravel, Canada V1576515
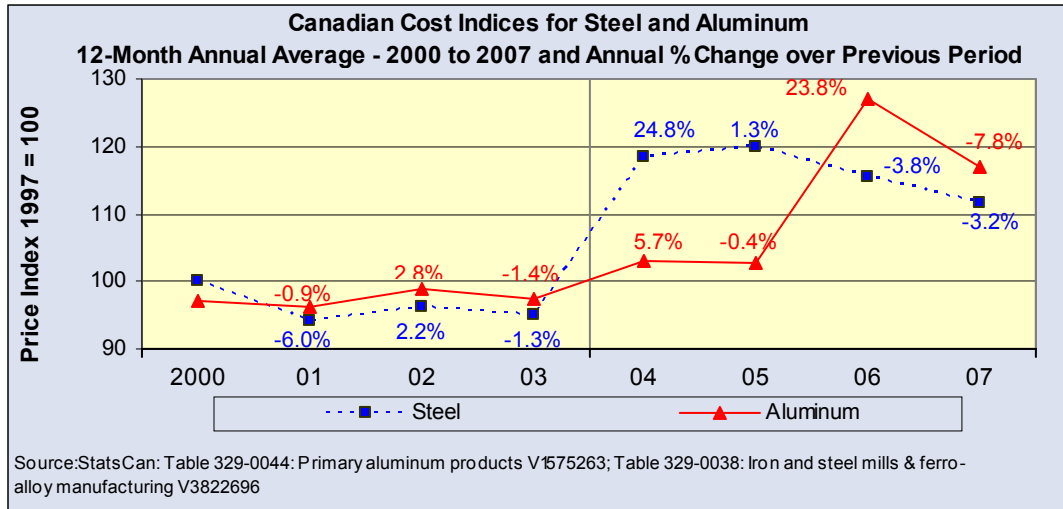
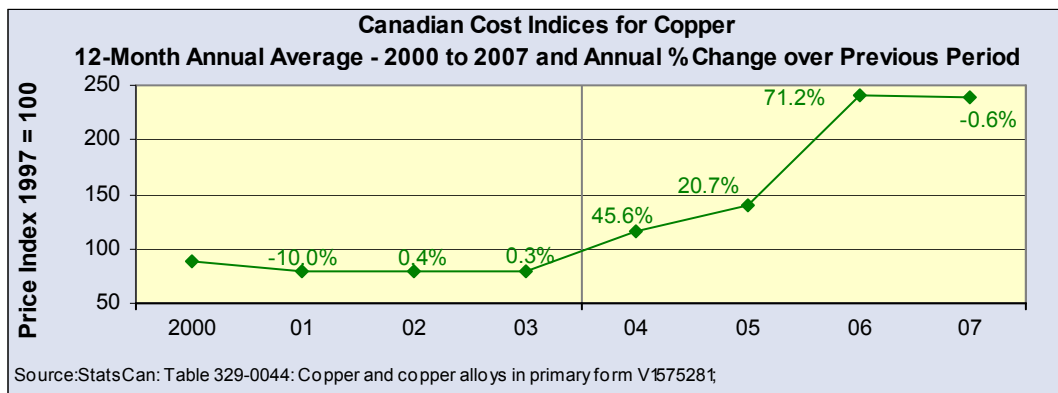## 4.3   Metal prices[1]

a)   Annual trends

Exhibit 4e illustrates annual Canadian trends in steel, copper and aluminum.

Exhibit 4e — Selected metal cost trends – Canada
(i) Steel and aluminum

Source:StatsCan: Table 329-0044: Primary aluminum products V1575263; Table 329-0038: Iron and steel mills & ferro-alloy manufacturing V3822696

(ii) Copper

Source:StatsCan: Table 329-0044: Copper and copper alloys in primary form V1575281;

Price volatility in 2007 was generally lower than in the previous few years, albeit at significantly higher price levels:

■   **Copper** has experienced the greatest price increase in recent years, roughly tripling in price between 2003 and 2006. In 2007, average copper prices were close to 2006 levels.
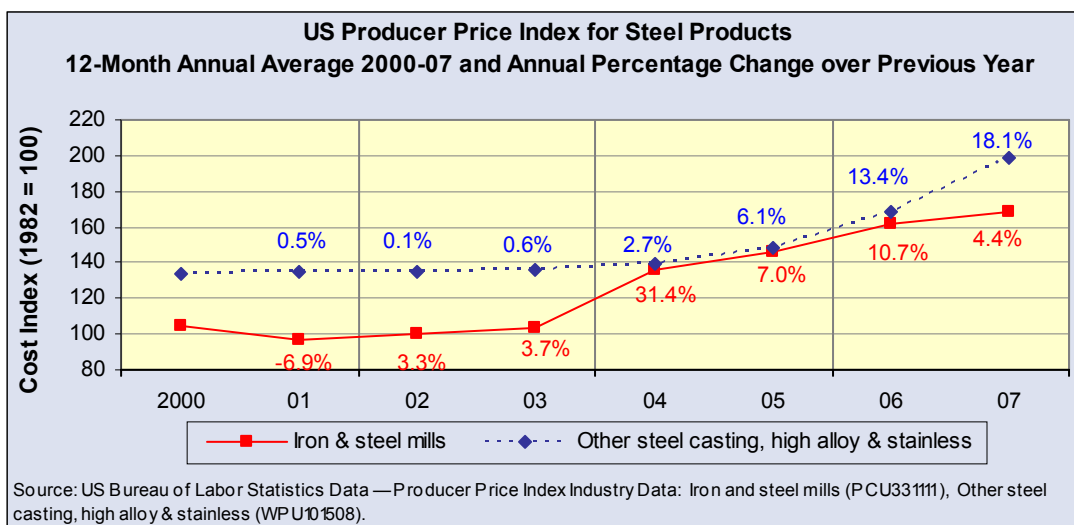
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[1] Caution should be used in assessing the implications of metal price trends for electric utility construction costs. Metal commodity prices may not be indicative of the short and medium term trends in the cost of metal materials used in major utility construction projects, since these trends may be outweighed by industry-specific supply and demand trends.

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- **Steel** price levels increased by more than 25% between 2003 and 2005, before declining slightly in 2006 and 2007.

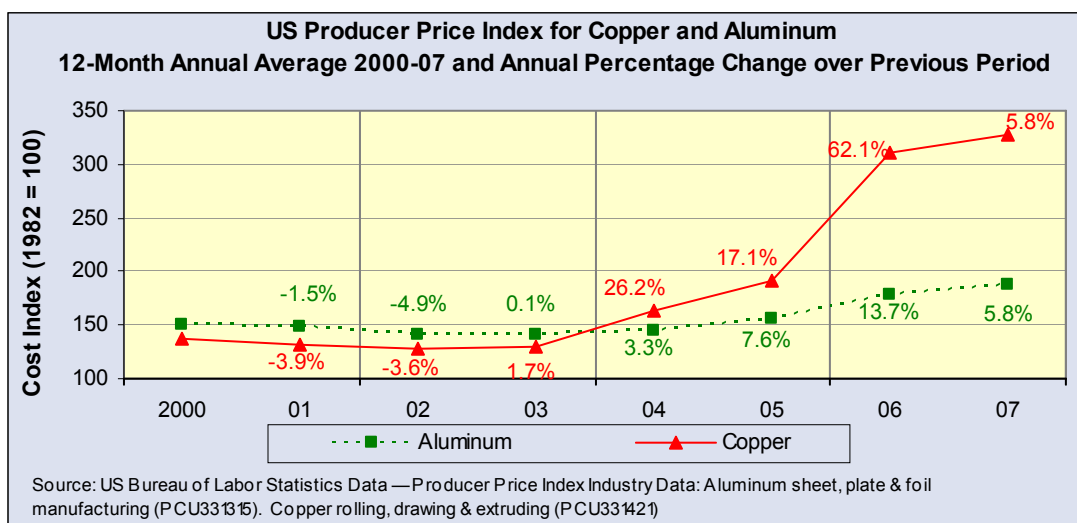- **Aluminum** prices increased by 24% in 2006, before falling back 8% in 2007.

US price index trends, for selected metal products, are illustrated (in US dollars) in Exhibit 4f.

US metal indices for early 2008 continue to show a rising trend. Over the two-month period January to February 2008, steel indices are up 2% (iron steel) and 8% (stainless steel), copper is up 7%, while aluminum is stable.

Exhibit 4f — US producer price index for selected metal products
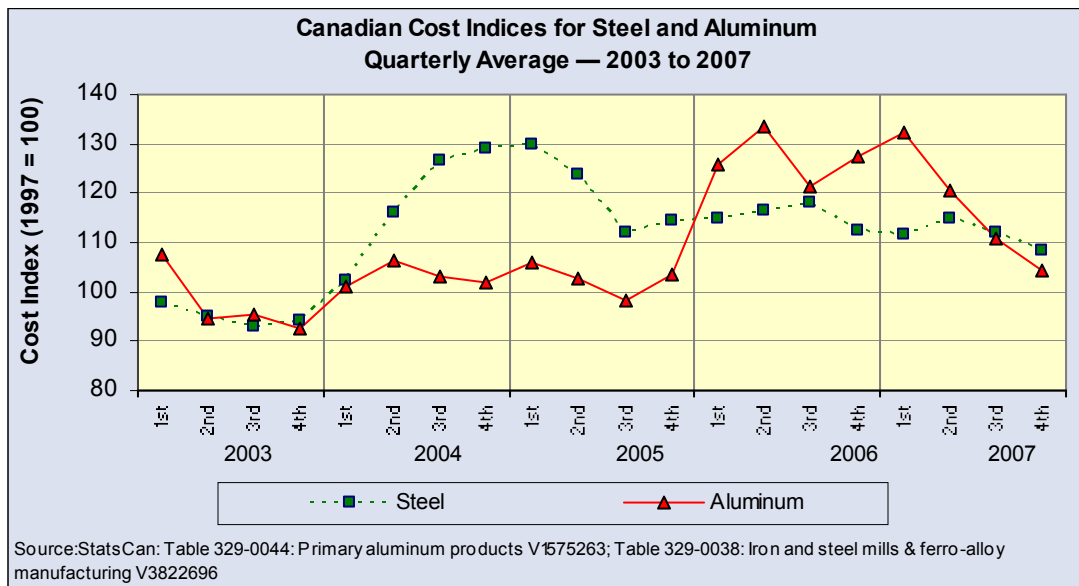**(i) Steel products**

US Producer Price Index for Steel Products
12-Month Annual Average 2000-07 and Annual Percentage Change over Previous Year

Source: US Bureau of Labor Statistics Data — Producer Price Index Industry Data: Iron and steel mills (PCU331111), Other steel casting, high alloy & stainless (WPU101508).

(ii) Copper and aluminum

US Producer Price Index for Copper and Aluminum
12-Month Annual Average 2000-07 and Annual Percentage Change over Previous Period

Source: US Bureau of Labor Statistics Data — Producer Price Index Industry Data: Aluminum sheet, plate & foil manufacturing (PCU331315). Copper rolling, drawing & extruding (PCU331421)
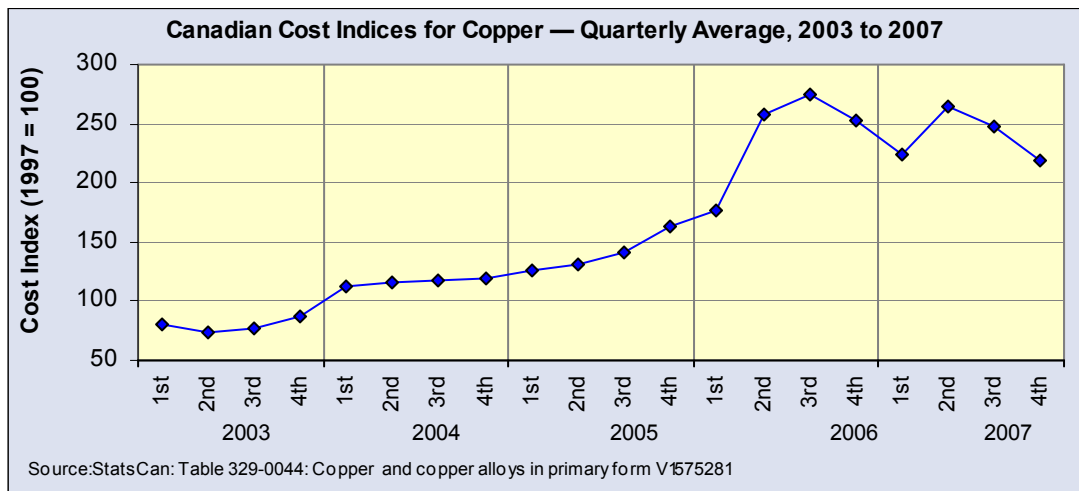
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b) Quarterly trends

Quarterly cost index trends for steel, aluminum and copper are illustrated in Exhibit 4g.

Exhibit 4g — Canadian cost indices for selected metals
(i) Steel and aluminum

Source:StatsCan: Table 329-0044: Primary aluminum products V1575263; Table 329-0038: Iron and steel mills & ferro-alloy manufacturing V3822696

(ii) Copper

Source:StatsCan: Table 329-0044: Copper and copper alloys in primary form V1575281

Copper prices declined 17% in the second half of 2007, after rebounding in the second quarter of 2007. Although copper prices peaked in 2006, recent prices remain high in comparison to pre-2006 levels.

Aluminum prices in Canada dropped 13% in the second half of 2007, continuing their decline from the first half of the year, returning to 2004/2005 levels. In the US, aluminum prices reached record highs (in US dollars) during the first half of 2007, but declined in the second half.

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Steel prices were steadier, declining 5% in the second half of 2007, after a small increase during the first half of the year.
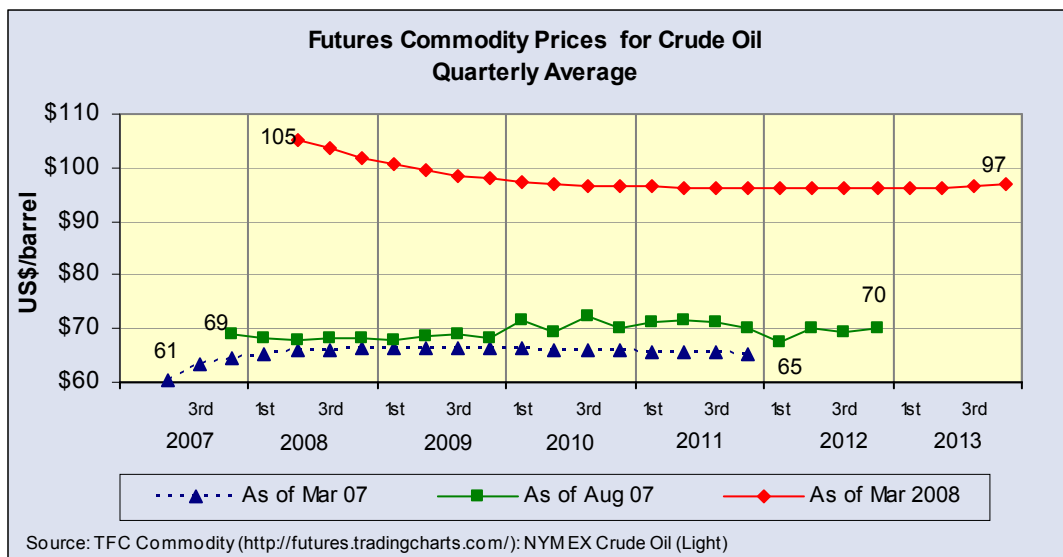
4.3.2 Changes in Futures markets

a)   Crude oil

Exhibit 4h illustrates the futures prices for crude oil as recorded by the Futures New York Mercantile Exchange (NYMEX) on March 12, 2007, August 21, 2007 and March 28, 2008.

The futures markets, at all three points in time, were fairly flat in terms of expected future price movements. At the same time, the flat forecasts are based on very different starting points. While the March 2008 futures outlook is for a decline in prices, the projections are still for crude oil prices to be much higher than what was forecast in August 2007.

Exhibit 4h - Futures price indices for crude oil, based on the Futures New York Mercantile Exchange

Futures Commodity Prices for Crude Oil
Quarterly Average

Source: TFC Commodity (http://futures.tradingcharts.com/): NYMEX Crude Oil (Light)

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b)   Copper

Exhibit 4i illustrates the futures prices for copper as recorded by the Futures New York Mercantile Exchange (NYMEX) on March 12, 2007, August 21, 2007 and March 28, 2008.   As in the case of crude oil, the futures expectation in March 2008 is for a declining market, but from a much higher base because of the increase in current prices.

Exhibit 4i - Futures price indices for copper, based on the Futures New York Mercantile Exchange

Source: TFC Commodity (http://futures.tradingcharts.com/): COMEX Copper High Grade.
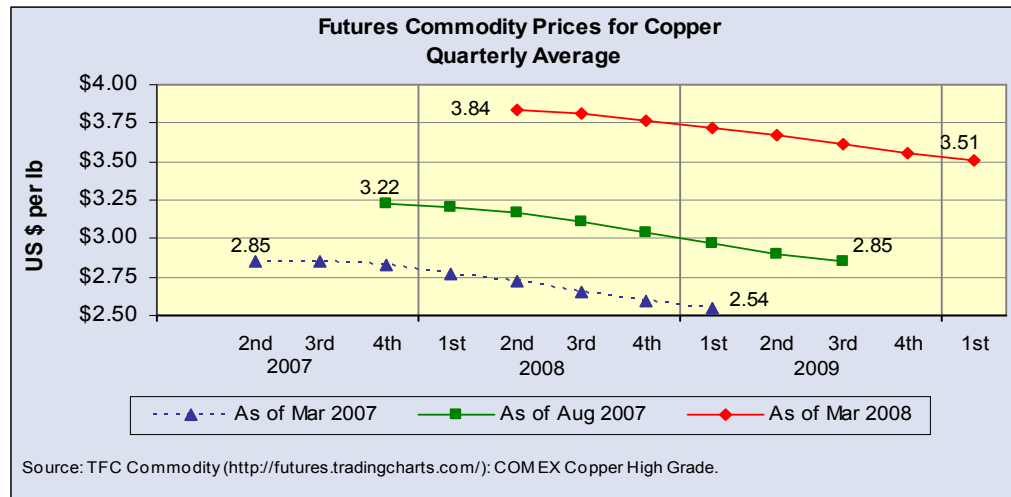
c)   Aluminum

Exhibit 4j illustrates the futures prices for aluminum as recorded by the Futures New York Mercantile Exchange (NYMEX) on March 12, 2007, August 21, 2007 and March 28, 2008. Current price and futures trends have been more stable for aluminum than for crude oil and copper.

Exhibit 4j - Futures price indices for aluminum, based on the Futures New York Mercantile Exchange

Source: TFC Commodity (http://futures.tradingcharts.com/): COMEX Comex Aluminum.
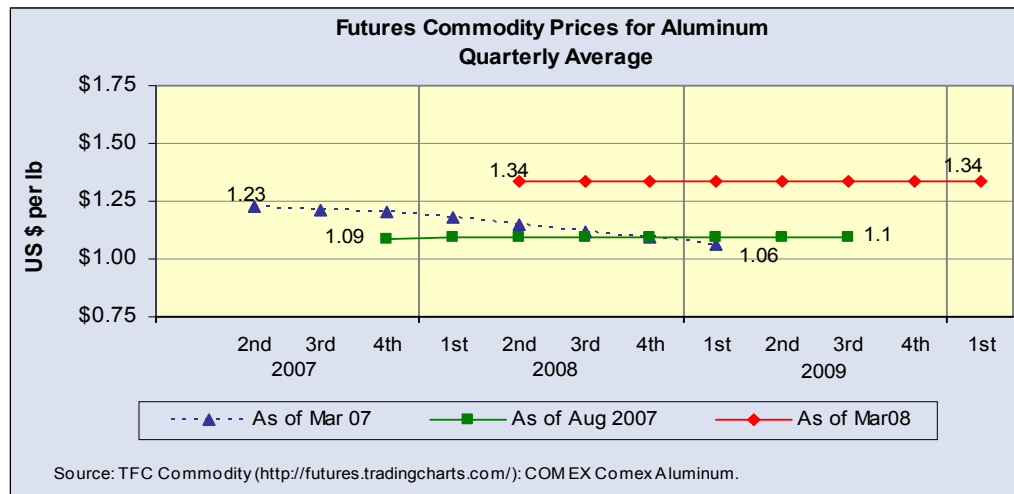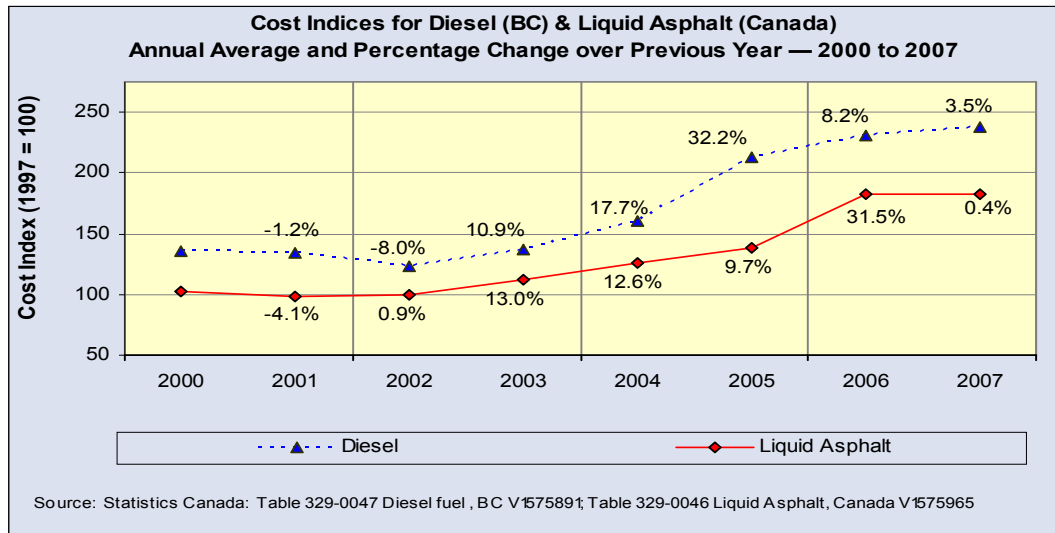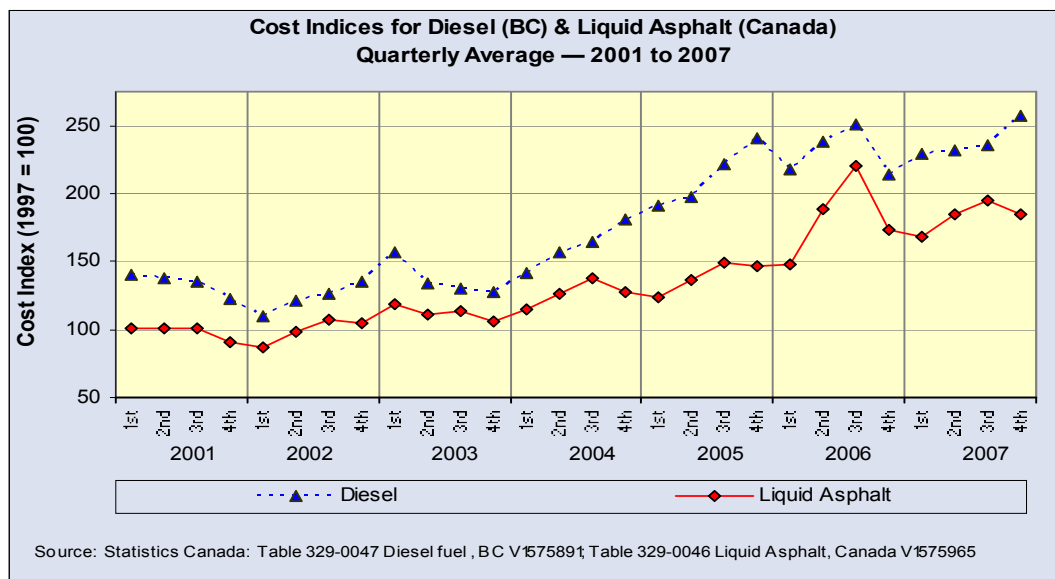
4.4   Diesel fuel and asphalt

Quarterly price index trends for diesel fuel and asphalt are illustrated in Exhibit 4k.

Exhibit 4k — Cost indices for diesel and liquid asphalt
(i) Annual trends

Cost Indices for Diesel (BC) & Liquid Asphalt (Canada)
Annual Average and Percentage Change over Previous Year — 2000 to 2007

Source: Statistics Canada: Table 329-0047 Diesel fuel , BC V1575891; Table 329-0046 Liquid Asphalt, Canada V1575965

(ii) Quarterly trends

Cost Indices for Diesel (BC) & Liquid Asphalt (Canada)
Quarterly Average — 2001 to 2007

Source: Statistics Canada: Table 329-0047 Diesel fuel , BC V1575891; Table 329-0046 Liquid Asphalt, Canada V1575965

Diesel fuel price trends increased 11% in the second half of 2007, with the largest increase (9%) in the last quarter pushing diesel prices to a new all-time high.

Asphalt prices increased 5% in the third quarter of 2007, before dropping back to second-quarter levels during the fourth quarter. Asphalt prices are still significantly higher than pre-2006 levels.

4.5 Construction machinery & equipment

As illustrated in Exhibit 4l(i), Canadian price index trends for construction machinery and equipment, and for hydraulic power and transmission equipment, have been stable in recent years.
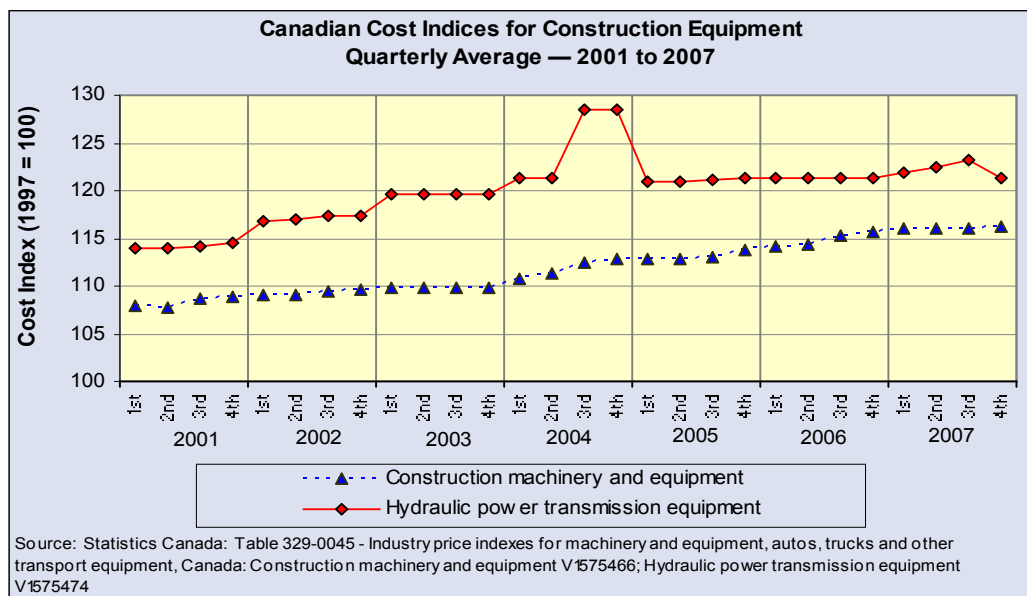
Quarterly results (Exhibit 4l(ii) are also generally stable, except for a modest downturn in hydraulic power transmission equipment in the fourth quarter of 2007.

Exhibit 4l — Cost indices for construction equipment
(i) Annual trends

(ii) Quarterly trends

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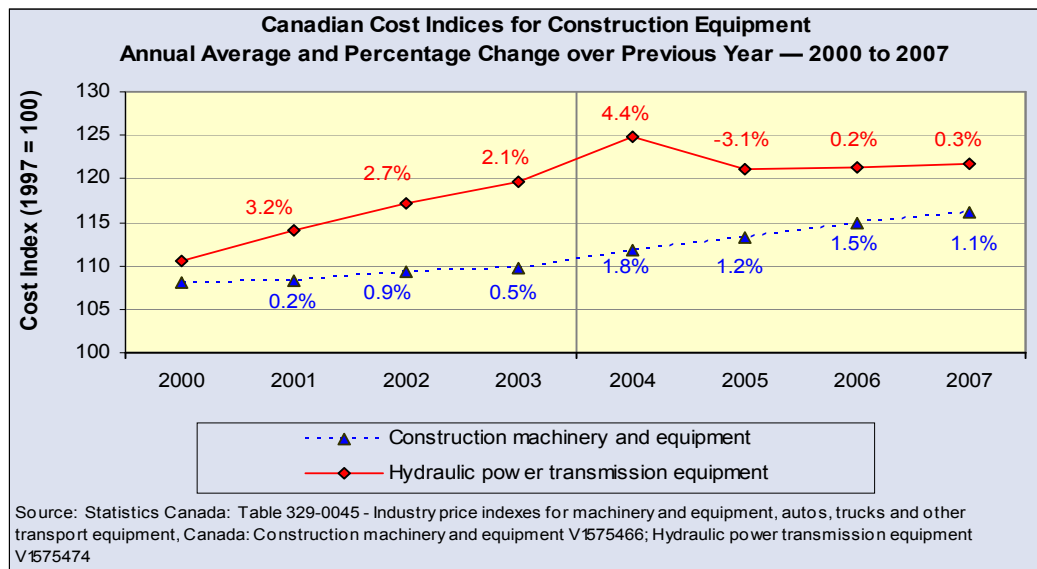
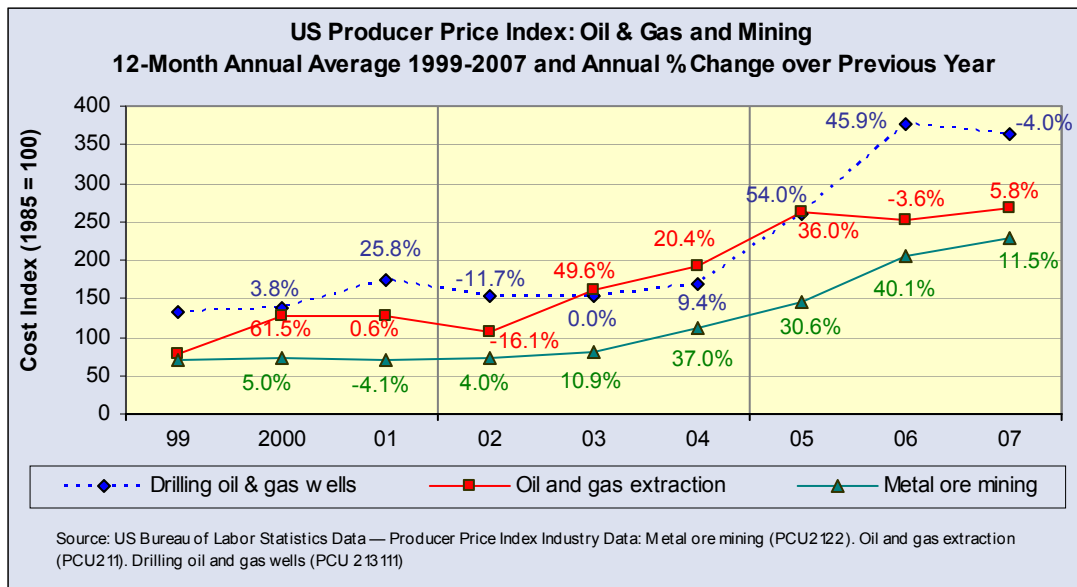## 4.6   Oil & gas drilling/extraction and mining costs

Exhibits 4m and 4n illustrate price trends for selected US oil, gas and mining indices. (These indices relate to the cost of drilling/extracting/mining activity, rather than the value of the product.)

a)   Annual trends

Exhibit 4m illustrates US annual price trends in oil and gas drilling/extraction and ore mining activities.   In 2007:

■ **Oil & gas drilling** prices decreased 4%, after having doubled between 2004 and 2006.

■ **Oil and gas extraction** prices increased 5.8%, returning to 2005 trends after a decrease in 2006.

■ **Metal ore mining** prices continued their strong upward trend from the previous three years, at a somewhat more moderate rate of 11.5%.

Exhibit 4m — US producer price index for selected mining activities

Source: US Bureau of Labor Statistics Data — Producer Price Index Industry Data: Metal ore mining (PCU 2122). Oil and gas extraction (PCU 211). Drilling oil and gas wells (PCU 213111)
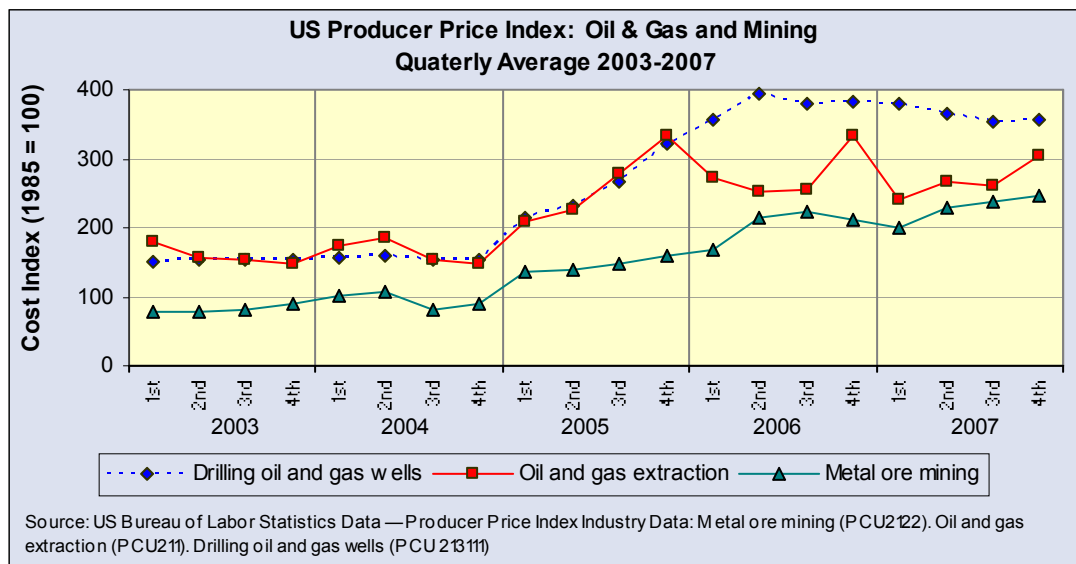
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b)   Quarterly trends

Quarterly trends are illustrated in Exhibit 4n:

- **Oil and gas drilling** prices dropped by approximately 3% from the second quarter to the fourth quarter, continuing the decline of the first half of 2007,.

- **Oil and gas extraction** prices increased particularly in the fourth quarter.

- **Metal ore mining** prices rose moderately in the last half of 2007.

Exhibit 4n — Price indices in the US mining and oil & gas industry sectors

US Producer Price Index: Oil & Gas and Mining
Quaterly Average 2003-2007

Source: US Bureau of Labor Statistics Data — Producer Price Index Industry Data: Metal ore mining (PCU2122). Oil and gas extraction (PCU211). Drilling oil and gas wells (PCU 213111)
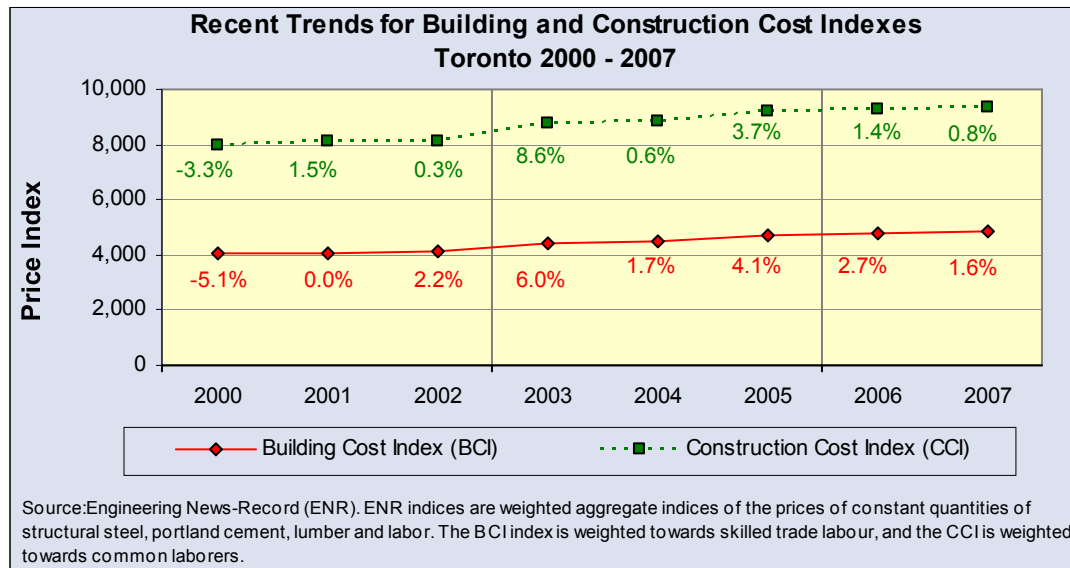
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4.7   ENR composite measure of construction cost components

Engineering News Record (ENR) publishes two composite indices of construction cost components, for a number of North American cities (including Toronto): the Building Cost Index (BCI), and the Construction Cost Index (CCI) [1].

As illustrated in Exhibit 4o, ENR construction cost component indices for Toronto show moderate increases in recent years, and less than 1% over the past six months.

These indices are of specific component costs only, and do not take into account cost factors such as profit margins, insurance costs, employee bonuses and incentives, and employee productivity. They are therefore only partial indicators of cost trends faced by contractors.

Exhibit 4o – ENR construction cost component indices for Toronto 2000-2007


Source: Engineering News-Record (ENR). ENR indices are weighted aggregate indices of the prices of constant quantities of structural steel, portland cement, lumber and labor. The BCI index is weighted towards skilled trade labour, and the CCI is weighted towards common laborers.

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[1] ENR indices are weighted aggregate indices of the prices of constant quantities of structural steel, portland cement, lumber and labor. The BCI index is weighted more towards skilled trade labour, and the CCI is weighted more towards entry-level laborers.

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4.8 Trends in interest rates

a) Longer-term annual trends

Long-run trends in the Bank of Canada interest rate are illustrated in Exhibit 4p. They demonstrate the historically low interest rates that have prevailed during the past few years. Rates increased in 2006 and 2007, but are still relatively low in relation to historical levels of the past two decades. Many observers have identified the low cost of borrowing as a driver of the residential and non-residential construction boom in British Columbia and across Canada.

Exhibit 4p — Long-term Bank of Canada interest rates

Bank of Canada Interest Rate - Annual Average 1991-2007
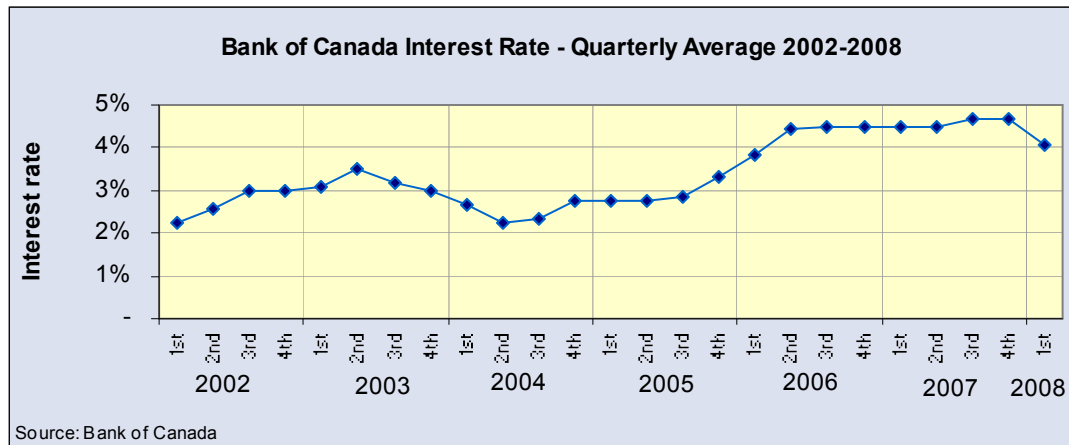
Source: Bank of Canada
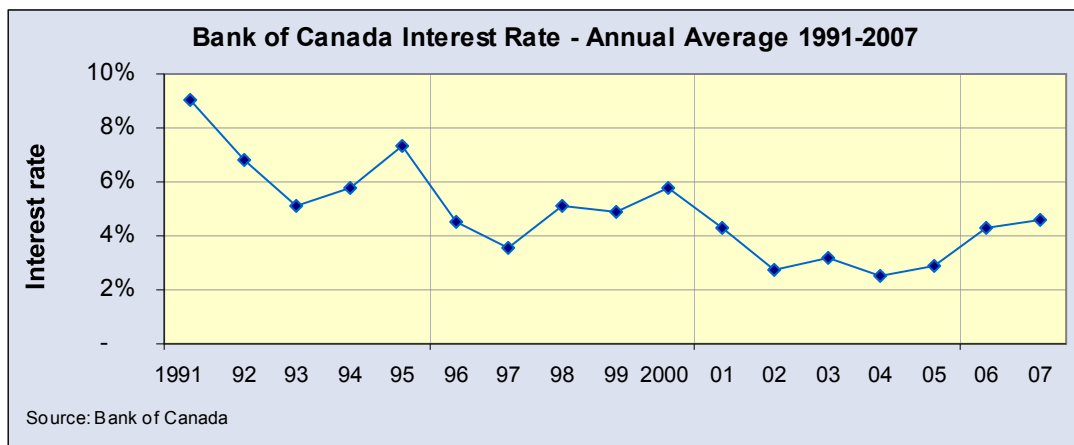
b) Quarterly trends

Quarterly interest rate trends, shown in Exhibit 4p, illustrate the upturn in interest rates in late 2005, early 2006, and a more modest increase in late 2007. These increases affect non-residential construction prices in two ways:

- ◼ **Cost impact on contractors.** Interest rate increases add to the contractor's cost of doing business, especially where the contractor's business is financed through debt instruments (operating lines of credit, loans on capital equipment, etc.).

- ◼ **Demand impact.** Interest rate increases also add to the owner's costs, especially where these costs are debt-financed. Higher interest rates will tend to dampen the demand for construction activity, encouraging greater price competition.

Based on the construction boom of the past few years, the demand impacts of interest rates shifts appear to outweigh the contractor cost impacts, at least in the current low interest rate environment.

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Exhibit 4p — Quarterly Bank of Canada interest rates

Bank of Canada Interest Rate - Quarterly Average 2002-2008

Source: Bank of Canada

In 2008, the Bank of Canada has reduced its interest rates in accordance with reductions in US interest rates. As of April 4, 2008, the Bank of Canada's prime rate was 3.75%.

4.9   Conclusion — Component cost trends

While component cost trends have been mixed during the second half of 2007, there has been far greater stability than that experienced in 2005 and 2006. Commodity prices (such as fuel and metal), while less volatile in recent months, are still high compared to pre-2006 levels.

While component cost trends are important contributors to cost inflation in the BC industrial construction industry, they are only partial indicators of the total impact of prices, since they do not account for market-driven (construction supply and demand) factors.

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5. BC Regional Trends

Within British Columbia, construction price indices are not tracked on a regional basis. However, two regional activity level indicators – building permit values and construction employment -- provide indirect measures of the regions in which constructions activity levels are highest, and where cost inflation pressures may be expected to be more significant.

5.1   Regional trends in construction activity

a)   Annual trends

Regional trends in non-residential construction levels are illustrated in Exhibit 5a, based on the detailed data contained in Exhibit 5b.

Exhibit 5a — Regional annual trends in non-residential building permit values

Source: BC Stats: British Columbia building permits, by type of structure
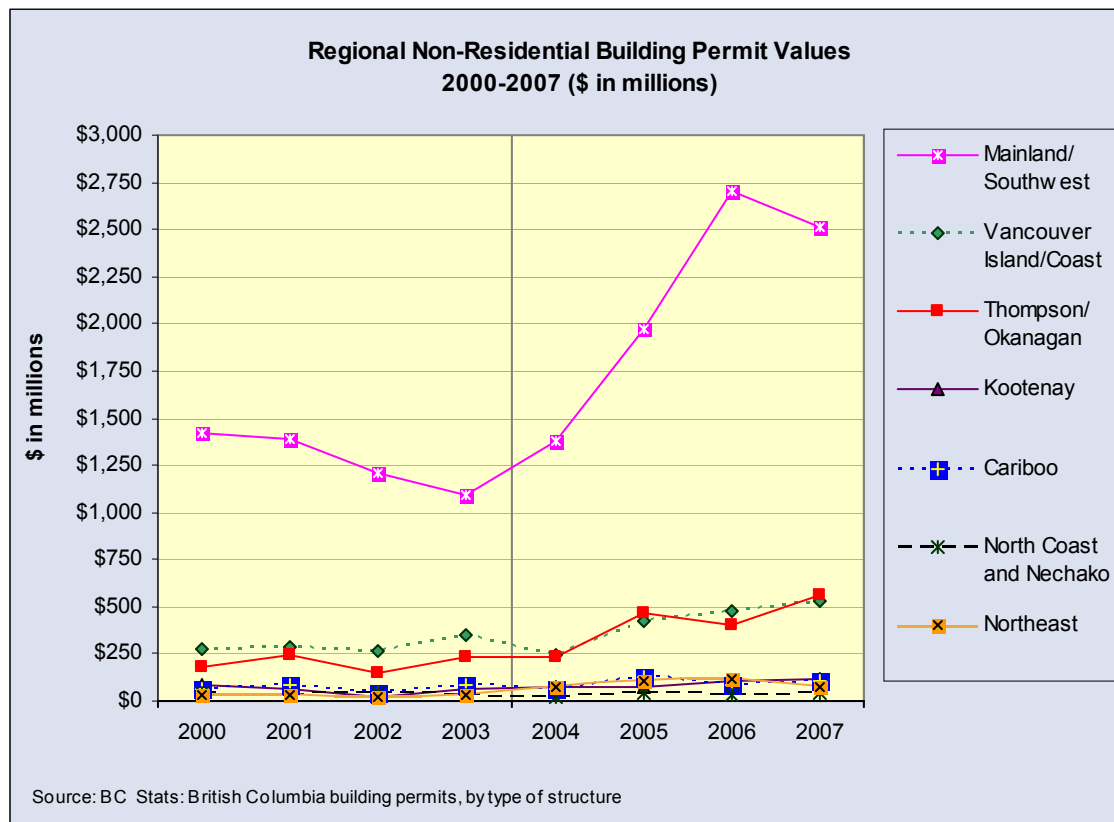
The Mainland/Southwest region, which accounts for 64% of residential construction activity in BC, experienced a decrease in building permit values of (7% for non-residential, 24% for industrial buildings) between 2006 and 2007. Northeast non-residential building permit values also decreased in 2007 by 40% over 2006 levels, but were still more than double pre-2004 levels.   All other regions experienced

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significant increases in the values of building permits, ranging from 10.5% (Vancouver Island-Coast to 39.8% (Thompson-Okanagan).

Exhibit 5b — BC value of building permits, by region

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	Annual Change 07 vs 06	Jul-Dec 2006	Jul-Dec 2007	6-mth Change 07 vs 06
British Columbia (Total)												
Total value	4,492.0	4,954.7	5,659.4	6,394.2	7,938.7	10,191.1	11,541.1	8,541.3	-26.0%	4,228.2	3,961.1	-6.3%
Non-residential												
Industrial	296.0	221.0	230.0	244.0	328.0	346.2	358.2	323.9	-9.6%	193.4	175.7	-9.1%
Commercial	1,297.0	1,171.0	1,117.0	1,130.0	1,228.0	1,886.4	2,491.4	2,647.9	6.3%	1,431.5	1,103.6	-22.9%
Institutional/Govnt	496.0	732.0	424.0	506.0	514.0	979.5	1,067.4	961.2	-10.0%	461.4	466.6	1.1%
Total non-residential	2,089.0	2,124.0	1,771.0	1,880.0	2,070.0	3,212.1	3,917.0	3,933.0	0.4%	2,086.3	1,745.9	-16.3%
Residential	2,403.0	2,830.7	3,888.4	4,514.2	5,868.7	6,979.0	7,624.1	4,608.4	-39.6%	2,137.9	2,215.2	3.6%
Vancouver Island/Coast												
Total value	581.5	632.0	769.2	993.4	1,098.4	1,459.9	1,705.7	1,841.2	7.9%	945.5	786.5	-16.8%
Non-residential												
Industrial	29.7	34.8	16.5	33.6	18.5	20.7	31.4	30.1	-4.2%	16.5	12.5	-24.3%
Commercial	147.6	145.1	155.2	202.5	139.1	257.4	281.9	229.4	-18.6%	174.3	116.5	-33.2%
Institutional/Govnt	99.3	102.6	93.5	113.6	81.0	148.3	161.8	265.4	64.0%	101.0	71.8	-28.9%
Total non-residential	276.6	282.5	265.2	349.7	238.6	426.4	475.2	525.0	10.5%	291.8	200.7	-31.2%
Residential	304.9	349.5	504.0	643.7	859.8	1,033.5	1,230.5	1,316.2	7.0%	649.7	585.8	-9.8%
Mainland/ Southwest												
Total value	3,079.8	3,396.6	4,028.3	4,165.0	5,371.6	6,387.3	7,443.1	3,825.9	-48.6%	2,082.7	1,613.2	-22.5%
Non-residential												
Industrial	194.9	150.5	162.7	129.8	198.4	187.7	227.9	173.6	-23.8%	137.5	94.4	-31.3%
Commercial	953.0	799.3	787.7	697.4	861.5	1,204.7	1,802.8	1,898.2	5.3%	1,039.4	706.7	-32.0%
Institutional/Govnt	269.2	433.9	257.7	262.7	315.1	582.9	672.1	437.9	-34.8%	256.1	226.4	-11.6%
Total non-residential	1,417.1	1,383.7	1,208.1	1,089.9	1,375.0	1,975.3	2,702.7	2,509.7	-7.1%	1,433.0	1,027.4	-28.3%
Residential	1,662.7	2,012.9	2,820.2	3,075.1	3,996.6	4,412.0	4,740.4	1,316.2	-72.2%	649.7	585.8	-9.8%
Thompson/ Okanagan												
Total value	397.01	531.256	515.998	774.3	963.7	1,560.7	1,551.7	1,881.8	21.3%	763.3	986.4	29.2%
Non-residential												
Industrial	30.2	17.4	23.4	49.2	30.5	48.3	69.1	65.0	-5.9%	22.5	39.7	76.4%
Commercial	96.2	159.4	94.2	116.2	135.3	293.6	209.8	369.0	75.9%	102.9	194.7	89.3%
Institutional/Govnt	54.6	70.2	35.6	70.1	70.0	122.0	125.8	131.8	4.8%	66.4	68.0	2.4%
Total non-residential	181.0	247.0	153.2	235.5	235.8	464.0	404.6	565.7	39.8%	191.7	302.4	57.7%
Residential	216.0	284.3	362.8	538.8	727.9	1,096.8	1,147.0	1,316.1	14.7%	571.6	684.0	19.7%
Kootenay												
Total value	219.001	174.291	164.2	239.4	244.6	369.7	402.4	493.3	22.6%	209.0	305.1	46.0%
Non-residential												
Industrial	27.8	8.8	6.5	6.7	13.9	8.9	13.4	14.2	5.9%	4.5	11.6	154.9%
Commercial	44.0	18.3	13.5	28.6	33.4	22.9	33.0	47.1	42.5%	18.4	37.3	102.5%
Institutional/Govnt	15.3	34.7	5.0	23.5	23.8	38.6	55.7	55.5	-0.3%	26.3	40.7	54.8%
Total non-residential	87.1	61.8	25.0	58.8	71.1	70.4	102.1	116.7	14.3%	49.2	89.5	81.9%
Residential	131.9	112.5	139.2	180.6	173.5	299.3	300.3	376.6	25.4%	159.8	215.6	34.9%
Cariboo												
Total value	101.8	115.2	88.5	125.4	121.2	203.0	174.0	257.4	47.9%	80.7	136.2	68.6%
Non-residential												
Industrial	7.5	4.0	10.2	6.5	16.2	38.0	7.2	10.4	44.8%	4.6	6.3	36.9%
Commercial	22.4	21.3	25.7	52.0	32.3	30.3	39.8	53.3	34.0%	25.4	20.7	-18.7%
Institutional/Govnt	29.9	55.9	9.8	31.2	11.1	62.0	33.4	39.9	19.3%	2.8	36.9	1238.5%
Total non-residential	59.8	81.2	45.7	89.7	59.6	130.4	80.4	103.6	28.9%	32.8	63.9	94.8%
Residential	42.0	34.0	42.8	35.7	61.6	72.6	93.7	153.8	64.3%	47.9	72.2	50.7%
North Coast and Nechako												
Total value	57.7	45.9	46.4	41.2	33.3	61.5	63.1	78.0	23.7%	34.0	43.0	26.5%
Non-residential												
Industrial	2.2	4.1	5.9	11.4	1.5	11.8	4.5	3.8	-13.8%	3.2	2.9	-10.9%
Commercial	13.5	11.8	10.9	13.1	7.7	10.8	21.9	19.5	-11.2%	14.8	6.5	-55.8%
Institutional/Govnt	24.3	18.3	21.3	4.0	10.9	18.8	5.2	16.2	209.2%	1.6	14.3	795.0%
Total non-residential	39.9	34.2	38.1	28.5	20.1	41.3	31.6	39.5	24.9%	19.6	23.7	20.8%
Residential	17.7	11.7	8.3	12.6	13.2	20.1	31.5	38.5	22.5%	14.4	19.3	34.4%
Northeast												
Total value	55.2	59.5	46.7	55.6	105.9	149.1	201.2	163.7	-18.6%	113.0	90.7	-19.7%
Non-residential												
Industrial	3.3	1.7	5.0	6.8	49.0	30.8	4.8	26.8	455.2%	4.5	8.4	87.1%
Commercial	20.7	16.0	19.5	19.9	18.7	66.7	102.2	31.5	-69.2%	56.3	21.2	-62.4%
Institutional/Govnt	3.5	16.6	1.5	1.3	1.9	6.9	13.4	14.5	8.2%	7.3	8.6	18.0%
Total non-residential	27.5	34.3	26.0	28.0	69.5	104.4	120.5	72.8	-39.5%	68.1	38.2	-43.9%
Residential	27.7	25.2	20.7	27.6	36.4	44.6	80.7	90.9	12.6%	44.9	52.5	17.0%

Source: BC Stats – British Columbia building permits, by type.

▲ ▲ ▲ BC Hydro - Construction Cost Trends – Spring 2008 Page 45

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b)   Six-month trends

Exhibit 5c illustrates building permit trends by region, over the past two six-month periods.

Caution is advised in interpreting the significance of these figures, given the relatively small values in some regions.   However, the results indicate that, during the second half of 2007, non-residential building permit values declined in Vancouver Island/Coast and Mainland/Southwest, while increasing in all other regions of the province.

Exhibit 5c — Value of building permits, by region

	Value of non-residential building permits ($ M)					
	Jul-Dec 2006	Jan-Jun 2007	Six-month change	Jan-Jun 2007	Jul-Dec 2007	Six-month change
Total non-residential						
■ Vancouver Island/Coast	292	324	11.1%	324	201	-38.1%
■ Mainland/Southwest	1,433	1,482	3.4%	1,482	1,027	-30.7%
■ Thompson/Okanagan	192	263	37.3%	263	302	14.8%
■ Kootenay	49	27	-44.8%	27	89	229.6%
■ Cariboo	26	40	53.7%	40	64	61.3%
■ North Coast & Nechako	20	16	-21.3%	16	24	50.0%
■ Northeast	45	35	-22.4%	35	38	10.3%
Industrial construction						
■ Vancouver Island/Coast	17	18	6.4%	18	13	-28.9%
■ Mainland/Southwest	137	79	-42.4%	79	94	19.1%
■ Thompson/Okanagan	22	25	12.6%	25	40	56.7%
■ Kootenay	5	3	-43.2%	3	12	348.9%
■ Cariboo	5	4	-12.7%	4	6	56.7%
■ North Coast & Nechako	3	1	-70.5%	1	3	201.8%
■ Northeast	3	18	545.9%	18	8	-54.7%

Due to rounding numbers may not add up exactly.

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5.2   Regional trends in construction employment

a)   Annual trends

Annual regional trends in construction employment are illustrated in Exhibit 5d, in both graph and tabular form.

The highest growth in construction employment between 2006 and 2007, in absolute terms, was in the BC Mainland/Southwest.   Strong construction employment growth was also recorded in Vancouver Island/Coast and Kootenay, while Northeast and Thompson/Okanagan were flat.   Reported construction employment in Cariboo and North Coast/Nechako declined in 2007 from 2006 levels.

Exhibit 5d — Regional construction employment trends 1999-2007 (000s)[1]
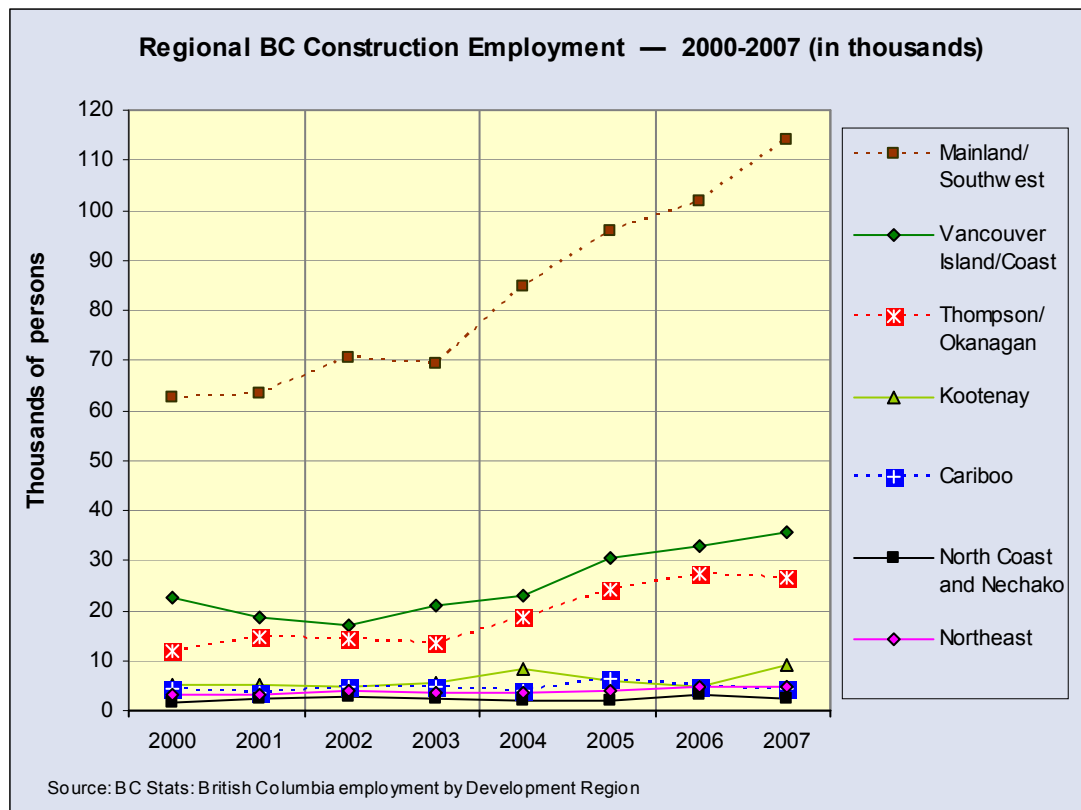
1. See also table overleaf.

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Exhibit 5d (cont'd) — Regional construction employment trends 2001-2007 (000s)

	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	% change 06 vs 07	Jan 07- Jun 07	Jul 07- Dec-07	6-mth % Change
British Columbia											
Construction employment	110.7	118.1	119.8	144.0	168.0	179.3	196.9	9.8%	187.5	202.1	7.8%
- % of total employment	5.8%	6.0%	5.9%	7.0%	7.9%	8.2%	8.7%				
Vancouver Island/Coast											
Construction employment	18.5	17.1	20.9	23.0	30.3	32.8	35.8	9.1%	33.4	37.6	12.6%
- % of total employment	6.0%	5.4%	6.5%	6.9%	8.7%	8.9%	9.5%				
Mainland/Southwest											
Construction employment	63.4	70.4	69.2	84.6	95.8	101.7	114.1	12.2%	110.7	115.3	4.2%
- % of total employment	5.4%	5.8%	5.5%	6.6%	7.3%	7.6%	8.2%				
Thompson/Okanagan											
Construction employment	14.6	14.3	13.6	18.8	24.1	27.3	26.4	-3.3%	23.3	28.8	23.8%
- % of total employment	6.9%	6.9%	6.2%	8.2%	9.9%	10.8%	10.3%				
Kootenay											
Construction employment	5.1	4.6	5.5	8.3	5.8	4.9	9.2	87.8%	8.6	9.1	6.8%
- % of total employment	7.2%	6.9%	8.2%	12.4%	8.4%	7.1%	11.9%				
Cariboo											
Construction employment	3.7	4.9	4.9	4.1	6.2	4.8	4.4	-8.3%	4.0	4.8	21.5%
- % of total employment	4.7%	6.3%	6.3%	5.1%	7.7%	5.8%	5.3%				
North Coast and Nechako											
Construction employment	2.3	2.6	2.2	1.9	1.8	3.0	2.2	-26.7%	2.2	2.3	0.7%
- % of total employment	4.9%	5.8%	4.9%	4.5%	3.9%	7.0%	5.3%				
Northeast											
Construction employment	3.1	4.0	3.4	3.4	3.9	4.7	4.8	2.1%	5.4	4.2	-22.8%
- % of total employment	9.5%	12.0%	9.7%	10.2%	11.4%	13.8%	13.1%				

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b) *Quarterly trends*

Quarterly construction employment trends for 2004-07 are illustrated in Exhibit 5e.

Exhibit 5e – Regional BC construction employment

Regional BC Construction Employment — Quarterly 2004-2007 (in thousands)

Source: BC Stats: Special Report, March 2007
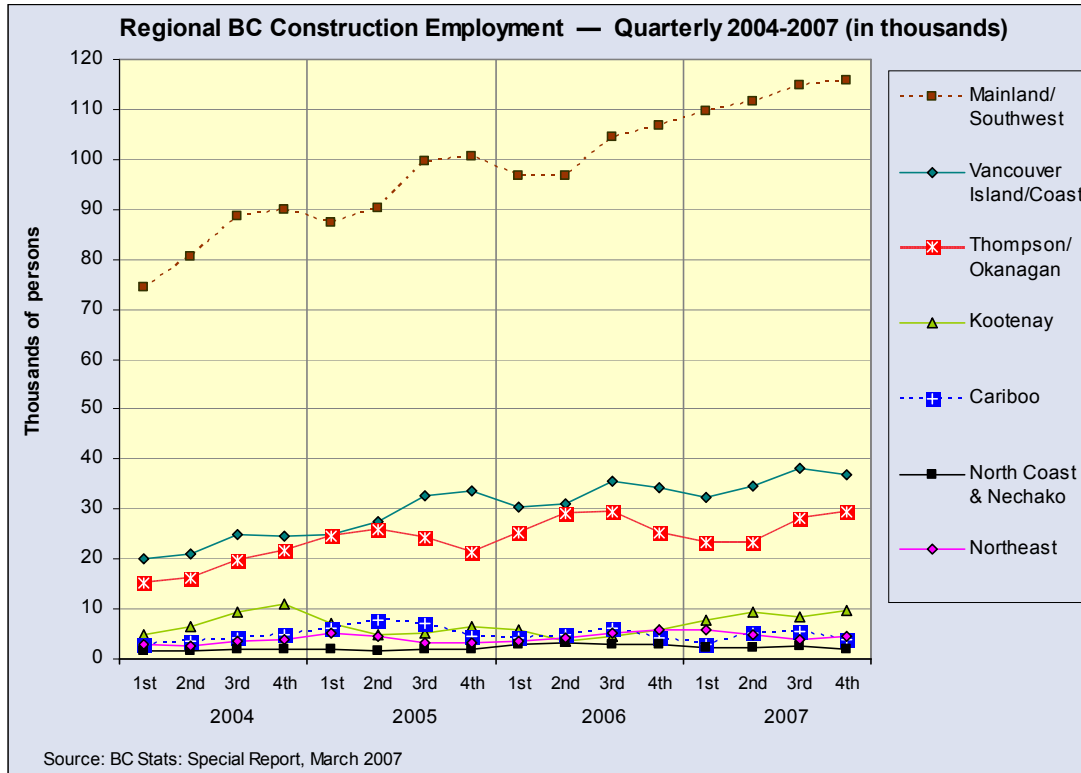
In Mainland/Southwest, construction employment levels have increased steadily over the past year, without the seasonal downturn reported in previous years.

Vancouver Island/Coast experienced normal seasonal trends, at higher overall construction employment levels than in previous years. In Thompson/ Okanagan, construction employment increased in the third quarter of 2007 after dropping in the first half of the year.

5.3 Conclusions — Regional trends

While the regional data on construction activity levels (building permit values, construction employment trends) provide sometimes contrary indicators, it is apparent that activity-level-driven cost pressures were felt in all parts of the Province during 2007.

6.   Other Agencies' Estimates and Forecasts

This chapter briefly outlines some approaches undertaken by other agencies in estimating historical construction cost inflation and/or in forecasting future trends, where we have used the information in developing recommendations for BC Hydro. These approaches are illustrated in Exhibit 6a and are described in the following pages.

Exhibit 6a – Other agencies' cost inflation estimates and forecasts

Cost inflation estimates/forecasts		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011-	2012-2015
BTY	BC Lower Mainland construction							
	• December 2005	11%	10%	10%	9%	8%		
	• December 2006	11%	5-7%	5%	3%	3%		
	• December 2007	-	-	7%	6%	5%	3%	
ENR (US)	Component cost Index							
	• Building Cost Index (BCI)	3.9%	3.5%[1]	1.8%				
	• Construction Cost Index (CCI)	4.1%	3.7%[1]	3.2%				
RLB (US)	Selling price index							
	• US	10.4%	9.0%					
	• Seattle	n/a	8.2%					
BC MoT	Construction cost allowances							
	• Property		10%	n/a[2]				
	• Major projects			n/a[2]				
	• Other projects		5.2%	5%	5%	3%	3%	3%
BC AVED	Construction cost allowances	15%	15%	12%	9%	8%		
YVR	Construction cost allowances		8%	6%	5%	3.5%	2.5%	2.5%
StatsCan	Industrial construction							
	• Seven CMAs	7.8%	8.7%					
	• Vancouver	10.3%	12.6%					
	Electric utility construction							
	• Distribution systems	4.1%	3.2%					
	• Transmission lines	6.6%	3.6%					
	• Substations	3.8%	5.7%					

1 Actual for 2007 = 2.6% (same for BCI and CCI indices)
2 As of 2008, property and major projects are estimated individually on a project-by-project basis.

6.1   BTY Group

BTY Group is a Canadian-based construction project management consulting firm that periodically issues construction cost inflation forecasts. BTY's forecasts in the past three years are illustrated in Exhibit 6a. In its most recent December 2007 forecast, BTY is projecting BC Lower Mainland construction costs to increase by 7% in 2008, 6% in 2009, 5% in 2010, and 3% in 2011.

BTY is also forecasting that construction cost inflation in Alberta will be approximately double that in the BC Lower Mainland — 18% in 2008, 15% in 2009, 10% in 2010, and 7% in 2011.

6.2   ENR composite cost index

Engineering News Record (ENR), a US-based McGraw-Hill industry publication, publishes two US indexes—a "Building Cost Index" and a "Construction Cost Index".

- ENR's US **Building Cost Index** (BCI) is more heavily weighted towards materials costs. Based on relatively modest materials cost inflation expectations, in December 2006 ENR was forecasting a 0.7% increase in its Building Cost Index for 2007. The actual increase in 2007 was 2.6%. In December 2007, ENR projected a BCI index increase of 1.8% for 2008.

- ENR's US **Construction Cost Index** (CCI) is more heavily (79%) weighted towards labour costs. In late 2006, ENR was forecasting a 2.7% increase in this index for 2007. The actual increase, for 2007, as measured by ENR, was also 2.6%. For 2008, ENR is expecting increasing labor costs to put pressure on construction costs in 2008, and as of December 2007 was projecting a CCI increase of 3.2% for 2008.

It should be emphasized that these indices are only partial measures of construction cost inflation, since they do not take into account factors such as profit margins, insurance costs, employees bonuses and incentives, lower productivity levels related to labour shortages, etc.

6.3   Rider Levett Bucknall (RLB) "selling price" index

Rider Levett Bucknall (RLB) is a US/UK firm specializing in construction project management, cost consulting and advisory services that publishes a construction "selling price[1]". RLB's most recent quarterly cost report estimates:

- That its overall US construction cost index (based on bid prices) increased by 9.0% in 2007.

- That its Seattle construction cost index increased by 8.2% during the same period.

---

[1] The "selling price" index is an estimate of what the market will bear. It tracks the true bid cost of construction, including contractor/subcontractor overhead costs and fees (profit).

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6.4   Conference Board of Canada reports

Two recent Conference Board of Canada reports contain forecasts for the Canadian construction industry (including residential):

■ The Conference Board of Canada's summer 2007 report on Canadian industrial outlook[1] forecasts that both revenues and costs in the construction industry will increase 10% in 2007. It warns however, that by 2008 labour and materials costs will start to surpass revenue. Profit levels are projected to fall every year through 2011 (to 2.3% from 4.3%), but will still be considered high by historical standards (in the range of 1.8% over the past 15 years). A major cause of projected reductions in profit margins is expected to be the rising cost of labour, resulting from labour shortage, combined with a less skilled workforce.

■ In a recent Winter 2008 report, the Conference Board of Canada reported that Canada's residential construction industry saw a significant drop in profit in 2007, and can expect profitability to decline by 3.3% in 2008 and 4% in 2009. However, profit margins are still higher than historical norms.

6.5   BC Ministry of Transportation (MoT)

This BC Ministry has an annual capital budget in the range of $650-$700 million. Capital projects range widely in size, from small projects costing a few hundred thousand dollars up to major projects of hundreds of millions. Projects may be cost-shared with other levels of government (municipality, federal), with cost inflation risk typically being assumed by the party that is responsible for construction.   Because many of the larger contracts are "design-build", it is often difficult to separate cost factors from design and cost estimating factors in assessing the impact of cost inflation.

MoT's strategies for mitigating construction cost inflation pressures include:

■ Breaking larger projects into smaller tenders, to encourage bidding by a wider range of contractors.

■ Spacing of tender closing dates, to make it easier for contractors to bid on different projects.

■ Making scope adjustments, to at least partially offset cost inflation pressures.

■ Clarifying and revising contract language, to make projects less risky for bidders and to share risk where appropriate.

As of April 2008, the Ministry's cost inflation policies are as follows:

■ Property acquisition – as recommended by regional property group.

■ Major construction projects – individually estimated on a project-by-project basis.

■ Other projects – 5% annually for first two years, 3% annually thereafter.

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[1] Conference Board of Canada: Canadian Industrial Outlook: Canada's Non-Residential Construction Industry — Summer 2007 and Winter 2008.

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6.6 BC Ministry of Advanced Education (AVED)

In 2006, the Ministry of Advanced Education (AVED) issued cost inflation estimates and projections for construction projects as follows:

- 14% for 2003
- 15% for 2004
- 16% for 2005
- 15% for each of 2006 and 2007

- 12% for 2008
- 9% for 2009
- 8% for 2010

These figures represent a significant increase from previous AVED cost inflation allowances, which in 2003 had been established as being in the range of 3% to 4.25%.

6.7 Vancouver International Airport (YVR)

We also understand (from BC Hydro) that Vancouver International Airport is using the following construction cost inflation allowances:

- 8% for 2007
- 6% for 2008
- 5% for 2009

- 3.5% for 2010
- 2.5% for 2011-2015

6.8 Statistics Canada

As detailed in earlier chapters, Statistics Canada price indices indicate that industrial construction cost inflation in Vancouver has been in the range of 10% to 12% over the past two years.

On the other hand, Statistics Canada's price index increases for electric utility transmission and distribution were in the range of 4% to 7% for 2006, and 4% to 6% for 2007.

6.9 Summary — Other agencies' estimates and forecasts

Other agencies have a wide range of approaches and results, both in estimating recent price index inflation and in developing future cost inflation allowances.

This wide range reflects different approaches to measuring cost inflation, different expectations about the duration of the current construction boom, and different approaches in determining how conservatively to allow for cost inflation pressures.

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7. Cost Inflation Outlook for BC Hydro

This final chapter assesses the outlook for BC Hydro's allowances for future major construction projects.

7.1 Trends since last report

The cost inflation allowances recommended in our two previous reports are illustrated in Exhibit 7a. In our March 2007 report, we noted that "... a number of industry participants and observers have expressed their views that cost inflation pressures and expectations have begun to ease in the past six months...".

Our subsequent September 2007 report noted that while "...there is some evidence of weakening of some cost component indices, general construction price indices themselves do not yet show a significant weakening of upward price pressures for industrial construction in general." We also noted that "... BC Hydro staff are reporting significant price increases for imported transmission and distribution materials and equipment in recent months, despite the increase in value of the Canadian dollar."

Since our last report, the weakening of upward trends in component costs has now been reflected in construction price indices. The 3.7% increase in the Metro Vancouver industrial construction price index in the last half of 2007 is significantly down from the 6.3% recorded in the first half of the year, and is the lowest increase in the past two years. At the same time, it is important to note that 3.7% in six months is still a significant rate of increase – approximately 7.5% on an annual basis.

7.2 Recommended cost inflation allowances for BC Hydro

Looking ahead, our assessment is that rates of industrial construction cost inflation will continue at late-2007 rates in 2008. While US demand will put price pressure on transmission and distribution equipment, international competition and the strong Canadian dollar will assist in mitigating price impacts.

On balance, our recommended cost inflation allowances are illustrated in Exhibit 7a. As actual six-month trends since our previous report have been generally as expected, our recommended cost inflation allowances are unchanged.

Exhibit 7a — Recommended construction cost inflation allowances

Previous reports vs. this update		2007 to 2010	2011 to 2015
Mar. 2007	• Generation (heavy construct.) • Utility transmission/distribut.	4% to 6% 2% to 4%	2.5% to 4% 2% to 4%
Sep. 2007	• All construction projects	4% to 6%	3% to 4%
Apr. 2008	• All construction projects	4% to 6%	3% to 4%

7.3 Interpretation of results

The recommended allowances are for BC Hydro "hard" construction costs only, and exclude other "soft" project cost elements such as project design, administrative overheads, environmental mitigation, property acquisition, and other non-construction costs.

The recommended allowances also assume that the strong construction market in BC between 2003 and early 2008 will continue through 2010, and that the market will have a "soft landing" in 2010 and 2011 as market demand and supply forces come more into balance.

The recommended allowances are also based on the assumption that BC Hydro takes appropriate cost mitigation measures to dampen the impact of construction cost inflation, through procurement strategies, value engineering and other cost mitigation initiatives.

7.4 Future price indices

This recommended range, applied to the Vancouver industrial construction price index, is illustrated in Exhibit 7b.

Exhibit 7b — Future industrial construction price index projections, for recommended range of cost inflation allowances
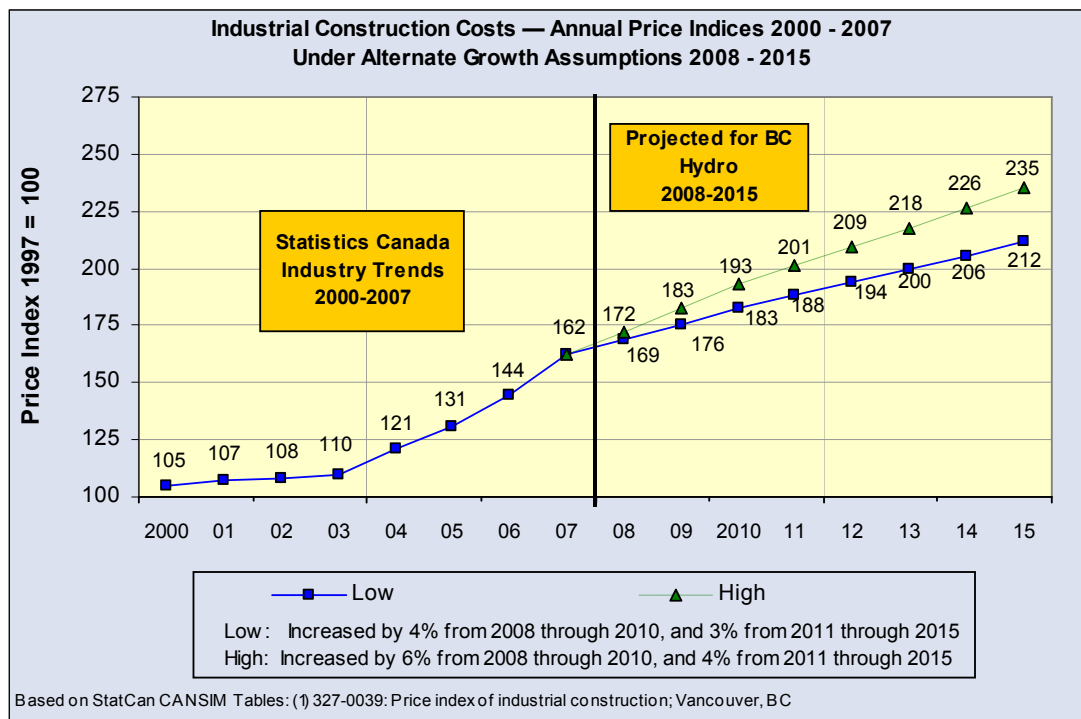
7.5 Disclaimer

All forecasts and allowances are by their nature uncertain, and we cannot represent that any of the projections in this report will be realized in whole or in part.

Health Sciences

Exponent®

**EMF and Health:
Review and Update of the
Scientific Research**

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Prepared for:

British Columbia Transmission Corporation
Suite 1100, Four Bentall Centre
1055 Dunsmuir Street
PO Box 49260
Vancouver, BC
V7X 1V5

Prepared by:

Exponent
Health Sciences Practice
420 Lexington Avenue, Suite 1740
New York, NY 10170

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Contents

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

AC	Alternating current
ACIGH	American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists
ALL	Acute lymphocytic leukemia
ALS	Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis
BCTC	British Columbia Transmission Project
BCUC	British Columbia Utilities Commission
CI	Confidence interval
E-field	Electric field
EC	European Commission
EHC	Environmental Health Criteria Programme of the World Health Organization
ELF	Extremely low frequency
EMF	Electric and magnetic fields
EMI	Electromagnetic interference
G	Gauss
GHz	Gigahertz
HPA	Health Protection Agency
Hz	Hertz
IARC	International Agency for Research on Cancer
ICD	Implantable cardiac defibrillator
ICES	International Committee for Electromagnetic Safety
ICNIRP	International Commission on Non-Ionizing Radiation Protection
ILM	Interior to Lower Mainland Project
kV/m	Kilovolts per meter
LPD	Lymphoproliferative disorder
µT	MicroTesla
mG	Milligauss
MPD	Myeloproliferative disorder
MPE	Maximum permissible exposure
NHL	Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma
NRPB	National Radiological Protection Board of Great Britain
NTP	National Toxicology Program
OR	Odds ratio
RR	Relative risk
ROW	Right-of-way
SCENIHR	Scientific Committee of Emerging and Newly Identified Health Risks
SSI	Swedish Radiation Protection Authority
TWA	Time-weighted average
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
USEPA	U.S. Environmental Protection Agency
V/m	Volts per meter
VITR	Vancouver Island Transmission Reinforcement Project
WHO	World Health Organization

1   Introduction

2   This report has been prepared by Exponent to assess the current status of research regarding the
3   potential for health effects from exposure to electric and magnetic fields (EMF). It serves to
4   update a report filed with the British Columbia Utilities Commission (BCUC) in December
5   2005, titled "*VITR EMF Health Report Exhibit 1-37 - Response to Evidence Presented by Dr.*
6   *Magda Havas*" and prepared for BCTC's Vancouver Island Transmission Reinforcement
7   (VITR) Project (Exponent, 2005). When the ILM Application is filed, it will be almost two
8   years since the *VITR EMF Health Report* was filed. This report fulfills the BCUC Directive in
9   the VITR decision to require BCTC to monitor the science and allow residents to keep abreast
10   of major developments in the field of EMF research. Thus, this report serves as an independent
11   evaluation of the recent body of research.

12   The *VITR EMF Health Report*, hereafter referred to as Exponent 2005, served as an update to
13   reports by the International Commission on Non-ionizing Radiation Protection (ICNIRP) and
14   the International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC) and reviewed the scientific research
15   published January 1, 2001 through December 5, 2005. The current report systematically
16   evaluates peer-reviewed research and reviews by scientific panels published from December 1,
17   2005 through August 31, 2007 to determine if there are new developments that would justify
18   changes to conclusions in Exponent 2005 and previous weight-of-evidence reviews.[1] During
19   this 1-1/2 year timeframe, approximately 34 relevant scientific studies were published and 3
20   scientific organizations issued their evaluations of the scientific evidence. Most important, the
21   World Health Organization (WHO) released an Environmental Health Criteria report in June
22   2007 following an extensive program to conduct and review research and offer conclusions
23   related to the health effects of EMF and recommendations for policymakers. Since the WHO
24   report is the most recent weight-of-evidence review and it was conducted by an experienced
25   scientific organization that followed standard scientific procedures, this report relies heavily
26   upon its conclusions for research published prior to 2005.

27   This report follows the same general structure and discusses the same scientific topics as
28   Exponent 2005, with a few modifications and additions. These modifications and additions
29   include an expanded discussion of experimental methods and results (Section 2.4), standards
30   and guidelines (Section 3.2), and the precautionary approach (Section 3.3), in addition to new
31   sections on electromagnetic interference (Section 5), research related to EMF and flora and
32   fauna (Section 6), and other disease outcomes (i.e., neurodegenerative diseases, Section 4.5).
33   The sections outlining basic scientific methods and theory are taken from Exponent 2005
34   (Section 2), with some modifications, and are repeated in this report for clarity and
35   completeness. A glossary is included at the end of the report, and words that appear in the
36   glossary are shown in ***bold italics*** on their first appearance in the text.

---

[1] As noted by the ICNIRP and IARC, there has been no consistent or strong evidence to explain how EMF
exposure could affect biological processes in cells and tissues. In addition, as described in Section 2.4.1 below,
such data are supplementary to epidemiology and whole animal studies, and are not directly used by health
agencies to assess risk to human health. For that reason, this review systematically addresses epidemiology
studies and *in vivo* studies and relies largely on reviews and the conclusions of scientific panels with regard to
studies of mechanism (see Section 4.6.3).

1   Sections 1 and 2 provide a brief background on the nature and sources of EMF and methods for
2   evaluating scientific research. Section 3 summarizes the methods and conclusions of recent
3   weight-of-evidence reviews on EMF, and Section 4 summarizes the recent literature on EMF
4   and health that has been published since December 2005, based on a *systematic review* of the
5   literature. Sections 5 and 6 address additional topics relevant to a risk assessment of EMF
6   (electromagnetic interference and possible effects on flora and fauna, respectively).

1   Background: Electric and magnetic fields

2   EMF are produced by both natural and man-made sources that surround us in our daily lives.
3   In fact, the earth produces a magnetic field—it is this field that is used for compass navigation.
4   Man-made EMF is found wherever electricity is generated, delivered, or used, including power
5   lines, wiring in homes, workplace equipment, electrical appliances, power tools and electric
6   motors. In Canada and the rest of North America, EMF from these sources (often referred to as
7   power-frequency EMF) changes direction and intensity 60 times, or cycles, per second – a
8   frequency of 60 Hertz (Hz).[2]

9   Electricity is transmitted over considerable distances from generation sources to substations
10   and, finally, to distribution systems that serve our homes and workplaces. Electricity is
11   transmitted as current over power lines to homes, factories and commercial establishments in
12   our neighborhoods.

13   *Electric fields* are the result of *voltages* applied to electrical conductors and equipment. The
14   electric field is expressed in measurement units of volts per meter (V/m) or kilovolts per meter
15   (kV/m); a kilovolt per meter is equal to 1,000 V/m. *Most objects including fences, shrubbery,*
16   *and buildings easily block electric fields.* Therefore, certain appliances within homes and the
17   workplace are the major source of electric fields indoors, while power lines are the major
18   source of electric fields outdoors.

19   *Magnetic fields* are produced by the flow of electric currents; however, unlike electric fields,
20   *most materials do not readily block magnetic fields.* The strength of magnetic fields is
21   expressed as magnetic flux density in units called gauss (G), or in milligauss (mG), where 1 G
22   = 1,000 mG.[3] The strength of the magnetic field at any point depends on characteristics of the
23   source, including the arrangement of conductors, the amount of current flow through the
24   source, and its distance from the point of measurement. *The intensity of both electric and*
25   *magnetic fields diminishes with increasing distance from the source.* Research has focused on
26   magnetic fields because, among other reasons, conductive objects including buildings
27   effectively block electric fields.

28   Exposure to EMF depends upon where an individual spends time and the sources he or she
29   encounters while at these locations. Electric fields in the home range up to about 0.010 kV/m
30   away from appliances and up to 0.25 kV/m near appliances (WHO, 1984). Electric fields from
31   power lines are higher under the conductors but are much lower as you move away from the
32   conductors, and are almost totally blocked by walls and roofs of buildings.

33   In most homes, background magnetic field levels average about 1 mG, resulting from wiring
34   within the home, appliances, and power lines outside the home (Zaffanella, 1993). Higher
35   magnetic field levels are measured near distribution and transmission lines. However, since the

---

[2] EMF from electrical facilities in countries outside North America operate at a frequency of 50-Hz.

[3] Scientists also refer to magnetic flux density at these levels in units of microtesla (μT). Magnetic flux density in milligauss units can be converted to μT by dividing by 10, i.e., 1 milligauss = 0.1 μT.

3

1   intensity of magnetic fields diminishes quickly with distance from the source, distance from the
2   power lines reduces the effect on the magnetic field level within the home. In fact, the
3   strongest sources of magnetic fields that are encountered indoors are electrical appliances.
4   Fields near appliances vary over a wide range, from a fraction of a milligauss to a thousand
5   milligauss or more. For example, a study by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)
6   in 1992 reported the median magnetic field at 6 inches from a sampling of appliances was 90
7   mG (copier), 200 mG (microwave ovens), 600 mG (can opener), 300 mG (hair dryer), 7 mG
8   (color televisions), 9 mG (electric oven), computers (14 mG), and 6 mG (baby monitor).[4]

9   The term of reference for this report is power-frequency EMF or the fields produced by the
10   generation, transmission and use of electricity.[5] This focus is scientifically critical. It is
11   generally accepted in the scientific community that the frequency of electromagnetic energy is
12   a key factor in its interaction with living things. This is because ***extremely low frequency***
13   ***(ELF) fields*** of 50 or 60-Hz have very long wavelengths, and, as a result, impart very low
14   energy when interacting with cells and living organisms. Because of these interrelated physical
15   characteristics – frequency, wavelength, and energy – the interaction of ELF-EMF with matter
16   is very different from higher frequency fields in the ***electromagnetic spectrum*** such as
17   microwaves (2 billion Hz) or solar energy. Therefore, studies of ELF-EMF fields are most
18   directly relevant to assessing the potential biological and health effects of utility sources of
19   ELF fields.

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[4] Mobile phones and their antennas, wireless communication networks, and radios of all types (AM, FM, police and fire) operate using radio frequency fields (RF), a part of the electromagnetic spectrum, as is ELF.

[5] The major focus of the review is magnetic field exposure. Research has focused on magnetic fields because, among other reasons, conductive objects shield electric fields.

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1 # 2 Methods for evaluating scientific research

2 ## 2.1 Heath risk assessment approach

3 The standard process for evaluating a body of research to understand the potential health
4 implications of exposure is referred to as health risk assessment.[6] A health risk assessment
5 consists of several, sequential steps. The process starts with systematically evaluating the body
6 of research and identifying any possible risks associated with an exposure (***hazard***
7 ***identification/weight-of-evidence review***).[7] A follow-up to hazard identification is the
8 question, "if the exposure does cause any health risks, at what level do they occur?" (***dose-***
9 ***response assessment***). A risk assessment then characterizes the exposure circumstances of the
10 situation under analysis (exposure assessment). Finally, using the findings from the hazard
11 identification and dose-response assessment as a basis, a summary evaluation is provided (***risk***
12 ***characterization***).

13 ## 2.2 Hazard identification/weight-of-evidence review

14 Science is more than a collection of facts; rather, it is a method of obtaining information and of
15 reasoning to ensure that the information is accurate and correctly describes physical and
16 biological phenomena. Many misconceptions in human reasoning occur when people casually
17 observe and interpret their observations and experience (for example, if a person develops a
18 headache after eating a particular food, he or she may ascribe the headache to the food).
19 Proximity of events or conditions, however, does not guarantee a causal relationship. Scientists
20 use systematic methods to evaluate observations and assess the potential impact of a specific
21 agent on human health.

22 The scientific process involves looking at *all* the evidence on a particular issue in a systematic
23 and thorough manner (i.e., a weight-of-evidence review or hazard identification). This process
24 is designed to ensure that more weight is given to studies of better quality and that studies with
25 a given result are not selected out from all available evidence to advocate or suppress a
26 preconceived idea of an adverse effect. These methods include an assessment of the kind of
27 effect that can be caused by an exposure (hazard identification), as well as an assessment of the
28 levels of exposure that can produce these effects (dose-response assessment). Thus, two steps
29 precede arriving at a weight-of-evidence review: a systematic review to identify the relevant
30 literature and an evaluation of each study to determine its strengths and weaknesses. Once all

---

[6] Some of the scientific panels that have considered EMF have described the risk assessment process in the
    introductory sections of their reviews or in separate publications (ICNIRP, 2002; IARC, 2006; SCENIHR,
    2007; SSI, 2007; WHO, 2007).
[7] The terms "weight-of-evidence review" and hazard identification are used interchangeably in this report to
    denote a systematic review process involving experimental and epidemiologic research to arrive at conclusions
    about possible health risks.

1   studies have been individually considered, the overall data is then characterized to evaluate
2   whether it provides support for a causal relationship.

3   Data from several types of studies must be evaluated *together* in a weight-of-evidence review,
4   including epidemiologic observations in people, experimental studies of humans, experimental
5   studies in animals (***in vivo***), and experimental studies in isolated cells and tissues (***in vitro***).
6   ***Epidemiology*** and experimental studies complement one another because the inherent
7   limitations of epidemiology studies are addressed in experimental studies and vice versa.
8   Similar to puzzle pieces, the results of epidemiology and experimental studies are placed
9   together to provide a picture of the possible relationship between exposure to a particular agent
10   and disease.

11   Epidemiology is the discipline in the health sciences that studies the patterns of disease
12   occurrence in human populations and the factors that influence these patterns. It is, therefore,
13   part of the evidence considered for determining the causes of disease. Epidemiologic studies
14   are observational in that they examine and analyze people in their normal daily life. Such
15   studies are designed to quantify and evaluate the ***association*** between exposures (e.g., a high
16   fat diet) and health outcomes (e.g., coronary artery disease). An association is a measure of
17   how things vary together. For example, we may find that people with coronary artery disease
18   eat a diet that is lower in fat compared to people without the disease (i.e., a negative
19   association). Or, we may find that persons with coronary artery disease eat a diet that is higher
20   in fat compared to persons without the disease (i.e., a positive association).

21   Epidemiologic studies can help suggest factors that may contribute to the development of
22   disease but they cannot be used as the sole basis for drawing inferences about ***cause-and-effect***
23   ***relationships***. Additional research needs to be considered. Continuing with our example from
24   above, just because one study finds a positive association between high fat diets and coronary
25   artery disease, we cannot conclude that fat (or a component of fat) causes coronary artery
26   disease without further research. This additional research involves studies with *experimental*
27   research designs.

28   In contrast to epidemiology studies, experimental studies (including both animal studies and
29   studies of tissues and cells) are conducted under controlled laboratory conditions. For
30   example, in animal studies, exposure is precisely measured in the exposed group, and other
31   factors (such as food, housing and temperature) are the same in the exposed and unexposed
32   groups. Experimental studies are designed to test specific hypotheses under controlled
33   conditions and are generally required to establish cause-and-effect relationships. Conversely,
34   the results of experimental studies by themselves may not always be directly extrapolated to
35   predict effects on human populations. It is therefore both necessary and desirable that
36   biological responses to agents that could present a potential health threat be explored by
37   epidemiologic methods in human populations, as well as by experimental studies in the
38   research laboratory.

39   A weight-of-evidence review is essential for arriving at a valid conclusion about causality
40   because no individual study is capable of assessing causality independently. Rather, evaluating
41   ***causation*** is an inferential process that is based on a comprehensive assessment of all the

1 relevant scientific research. The following sections discuss the methods for evaluating
2 epidemiologic (Section 2.3) and experimental research (Section 2.4).

3 ## 2.3 Evaluating epidemiology

4 Epidemiology is the science of understanding the causes of disease by enrolling people in
5 studies, asking them questions about their exposures, and correlating their health events with
6 these exposures. Scientists use two major analytic study designs in the field of epidemiology:
7 *case-control studies* and *cohort studies*.[8] A cohort study follows a pre-defined population
8 (e.g., workers at a specific company) over time to see who develops disease. The study
9 examines whether disease rates are different between people who were exposed to a particular
10 agent (i.e., exposed group) and people who were not exposed (i.e., unexposed group). Cohort
11 studies can take a great amount of time and effort to conduct because it takes a long time for
12 diseases to develop and many diseases are rare so only a few cases will occur. Case-control
13 studies were developed to address these limitations and can be thought of as working
14 backwards from a cohort study. A case-control study compares people who have already been
15 diagnosed with a disease (i.e., the cases) to a similar group of people who do not have the
16 disease (i.e., controls). The investigators measure the prevalence and extent of past exposure in
17 both groups to assess whether the cases have a higher exposure level or more frequent exposure
18 than the controls, or vice versa. The goal of a case-control study is, to the extent possible, to
19 enroll a control group that is similar to the cases on all other factors but the presence of disease.
20 Because case-control studies "work backwards," they have more inherent limitations than
21 cohort studies.

22 ### 2.3.1 Measuring and evaluating an association

23 The association between a particular disease and exposure is measured quantitatively using an
24 estimate of effect, i.e., either a *relative risk* (RR) or an *odds ratio* (OR). The general
25 interpretation of an estimate of effect equal to 1.0 is that the exposure has no effect on the
26 incidence of disease. If the estimate of effect is greater than 1.0, the inference is that exposure
27 increases the risk of the disease. On the other hand, if the estimate of effect is less than 1.0, the
28 inference is that exposure reduces the risk of the disease.

29 - A **relative risk** is the ratio of the rate of disease among persons who are exposed to
30   the rate of disease among persons who are unexposed. For example, in a study of
31   high fat diets and coronary artery disease, a relative risk of 2.0 can be interpreted to
32   mean that persons with a high fat diet (i.e., exposed) are two times more likely to
33   develop coronary artery disease than persons with a low fat diet (i.e., unexposed).

34 - An **odds ratio** is the ratio of the odds of exposure among persons with a disease to
35   the odds of exposure among persons without a disease. For example, in a study of

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[8] An additional study type is discussed in Section 2.3.3.

1   high fat diets and coronary artery disease, an odds ratio of 2.0 would suggest that
2   persons with coronary artery disease are two times more likely to have had a high
3   fat diet than persons with no coronary artery disease.

4   The relative risk is the better measure of potential effect since it directly compares the
5   incidence of disease among exposed persons to the incidence of disease among unexposed
6   persons, while the odds ratio is indirect, in that it compares exposure among persons with a
7   disease (i.e., cases) and persons without the disease (i.e., controls). Odds ratios are typically
8   estimated from case-control studies, while relative risks can only be measured in cohort
9   studies.

10   *Confidence intervals* (CI) are typically reported along with odds ratios and relatives risk
11   values. A CI is a range of values for an estimate of effect that has a specified probability (e.g.,
12   95%) of including the "true" estimate of effect. A 95% CI indicates that, if the study were
13   conducted a very large number of times, 95% of the measured estimates would be within the
14   upper and lower confidence limits.

15   The range of the CI is also important for interpreting estimated associations. A very wide CI
16   indicates great uncertainty in the value of the "true" risk estimate. This is usually due to a
17   small number of observations. The larger the number of persons being analyzed in a
18   calculation, the smaller the likelihood that an observed association is due to *chance*. For this
19   reason, results based on analyses with a large sample size are more easily distinguished from
20   chance or random variation. A narrow CI provides more certainty about where the "true"
21   relative risk estimate lies.
22
23   Another way of interpreting the CI is as follows: if the 95% CI does not include 1.0, the
24   probability of an association being due to chance alone is 5% or lower and the result is
25   considered *statistically significant*. As discussed elsewhere, however, statistical significance is
26   a measure of random variability, and other factors, including study quality and completeness,
27   must be considered to determine whether or not a statistically significant association reflects a
28   causal relationship.

29   For example, a hypothetical study of fat intake and coronary artery disease reported a relative
30   risk of 1.9 (95% CI = 1.2-3.9). This is a statistically significant but weak positive association.
31   The data suggests that the risk of coronary artery disease is 90% higher among persons with a
32   high fat intake compared to persons with a low fat intake, although the increase in risk could
33   plausibly be as low as 20%, or as high as 290%, or anywhere in between, based on the 95% CI.
34   In summary, there are three things to consider when assessing whether an estimate of effect
35   truly represents an association between the exposure and disease being studied:

36   1) The *probability* that the association is not attributable to chance based on a 95% CI that
37   does not contain 1.0.   The use of the CI provides more information than the statement
38   "statistically significant."

39   2) The *magnitude* of the effect estimate, which is often referred to as its strength (i.e.,
40   strong vs. weak). Smaller estimates of effect are more likely to be affected by factors

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1   such as ***bias*** and ***confounding***, as described below. Therefore, there is less certainty
2   that a smaller estimate of effect represents a real statistical association.

3   3) The *precision* of the effect estimate, as measured by the range of values reported in the
4   95% CI. If the CI is narrow, there is less random variability.

5   In addition, it is necessary to evaluate whether the observed association is likely to be produced
6   by bias or confounding. Bias refers to any systematic error in the design, implementation or
7   analysis of a study that results in a mistaken estimate of an exposure's effect on the risk of
8   disease. For example, if a proxy or surrogate is used to estimate exposure in place of a true
9   exposure measurement (e.g., if a job title is used to estimate exposure to a particular agent
10   rather than actually measuring the agent), there is the potential to introduce error into the
11   study's findings. A confounder is something that is related to both the disease under study and
12   the exposure of interest such that we cannot be sure what causes the observed association - the
13   confounder or the exposure of interest.[9] If care is not taken to evaluate the role of chance and
14   minimize bias and confounding in the design and analysis of a study, these factors can distort
15   the study's findings.

16   ## 2.3.2 Association vs. causation

17   An association is a relationship between two events, a finding that they occur together more
18   often than expected by chance. A reported association between a particular exposure and
19   disease is not sufficient evidence to conclude that the exposure is a cause of the disease.
20   Rather, an association is a finding from a particular study; evaluating causation is an inferential
21   process that combines the totality of evidence (including epidemiologic studies that have
22   measured associations) in a weight-of-evidence review. For example, we may find in a
23   particular study that children with respiratory infections are significantly more likely to have
24   eaten ice cream than children without respiratory infections; in other words, there is a positive
25   association between exposure to ice cream and respiratory infections that is not likely to be due
26   to chance. However, based upon this information alone we obviously could not conclude that
27   ice cream is a cause of respiratory infections.

28   In order to support a cause-and-effect relationship, the overall data, or evidence, must present a
29   logically coherent and consistent picture. Various guidelines have been used to assist in the
30   evaluation of the plausibility of a cause-and-effect relationship between a particular exposure
31   and disease. These guidelines, commonly referred to as *Hill's criteria* after the British
32   physician who outlined them (Hill, 1965), typically form the foundation of causal inference
33   (Rothman and Greenland, 1998). Since the publication of Hill's criteria in 1965, numerous
34   revisions and updates have been suggested (e.g., Susser, 1991), although the basic tenets

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[9] For example, a link between coffee drinking in mothers and low birth weight babies has been reported in the
past. However, some women who drink coffee also smoke cigarettes. It was found that when the smoking
habits of the mothers are taken into account, coffee drinking was not associated with low birth weight babies
(Kelsey et al, 1996). In this example, smoking confounded the relationship between coffee drinking and low
birth weight.

9

1   remain. As described in Table 1, Hill's criteria are used as an analytic framework in the
2   weight-of-evidence review process (e.g., ICNIRP, 2002; USEPA, 2005).

3   Each criterion cannot be addressed with a simple 'yes' or 'no,' nor are the criteria meant to be
4   an inflexible set of rules; rather, they serve as guidance for weighing the evidence to reach a
5   decision about the plausibility of a cause-and-effect relationship. The more firmly these
6   criteria are met by the data, the more convincing the evidence. For example, the presence of a
7   dose-response relationship provides weight in support of a cause-and-effect relationship;
8   however, it does not, in and of itself indicate a cause-and-effect relationship. Referring to the
9   hypothetical example discussed above, the totality of the evidence would more strongly suggest
10   that ice cream may be a cause of respiratory infections if: 1) strong associations were also
11   found in other epidemiologic studies and these associations showed a dose-response
12   relationship; 2) animals with high ice cream intake also had an increased incidence of
13   respiratory infections; and 3) an organism was isolated from the ice cream that could cause the
14   infection.

15

1   **Table 1.   Hill's guidelines for evaluating causation in epidemiologic data**

Strength	The stronger the association between the disease and the exposure in question, the more persuasive the evidence. Some epidemiologists think that a relative risk of 3 or more (i.e., the risk of disease is at least 3 times higher in individuals with the exposure compared to individuals with no exposure) indicates a strong association. Smaller relative risks are more likely to be influenced by bias or confounding.
Consistency	Consistent results across different study populations and study designs are more convincing than isolated observations.
Specificity	The evidence for causation is stronger if the exposure produces a specific effect.
Dose-response	If the risk of disease increases as the exposure level increases (e.g., from low to high exposure), the exposure is more likely to be related to the disease.
Biological plausibility	Epidemiologic results are much more convincing if they are coherent with what is known about biology. That is, the evidence is stronger if scientists know of a biological mechanism that can explain the effect.
Temporality	The data must provide evidence of correct temporality. That is, the exposure must be documented to have occurred before the observed effect, with sufficient time for any induction period related to the disease.
Coherence	The association should be compatible with existing theory and knowledge.
Prevention of effect	Causation is likely if the disease has been shown to be prevented by the removal of the exposure through an intervention or prevention program.
Analogy	Established causal relationships observed with similar diseases and/or exposures provide more weight for a causal relationship.

2   This presentation of Hill's guidelines was adapted from the original source: Hill AB. The environment and
3   disease: Association or causation. Proc R Soc Med. 58:295-300, 1965.

4   ## 2.3.3 Meta- and pooled analyses

5   In scientific research, the results of smaller studies may be difficult to distinguish from the
6   random variation that normally occurs in data. ***Meta-analysis*** is an analytic technique that
7   combines the published results from a group of studies into one summary result. A ***pooled***
8   ***analysis***, on the other hand, combines the raw, individual-level data from the original studies
9   and analyzes the data from the studies altogether. These methods are valuable because they
10   increase the number of individuals in the analysis, which allows for a more robust and stable
11   estimate of association. Meta- and pooled analyses are also an important tool for qualitatively
12   synthesizing the results of a large group of studies.

13   The disadvantage of meta- and pooled analyses is that they can convey a false sense of
14   consistency across studies if *only* the combined estimate of effect is considered (Rothman and
15   Greenland, 1998). These analyses typically combine data from studies with different study
16   populations, methods for measuring and defining exposure, and definitions of disease. This is
17   particularly true for analyses that combine data from case-control studies, which often use very
18   different methods for the selection of cases and controls and exposure assessment. Therefore,
19   in addition to the synthesis or combining of data, meta- and pooled analyses are used to
20   understand what factors cause the results of the studies analyzed to vary, and how these factors

11

1   affect the associations calculated from the data of all the studies (Rothman and Greenland,

2   1998). For example, Greenland et al. (2000) performed analyses to assess how excluding

3   particular studies from the group impacted the results of the analysis. In summary, meta- and

4   pooled analyses are a valuable technique in epidemiology; however, in addition to calculating a

5   summary relative risk, meta- and pooled analyses should analyze the factors that contribute to

6   any heterogeneity between the studies.

7 ### 2.3.4 Exposure estimation for EMF

8   One of the most crucial aspects in the review of any epidemiology study is an evaluation of

9   how exposure was measured. A good exposure metric should measure the element that is

10   believed to cause the disease at the appropriate time in the disease process. Estimating

11   exposure to EMF is difficult since: 1) EMF is ubiquitous; 2) exposure is often estimated

12   retrospectively; and 3) there is currently no accepted biological mechanism for carcinogenicity

13   or any other disease process, so the appropriate exposure metric and timing is unknown. In the

14   absence of substantive knowledge about a specific mechanism by which magnetic fields could

15   affect normal cells, the focus on long-term exposures is based upon the standard assumption

16   that exposures that affect the development of cancer require repeated exposures at elevated

17   levels, as does tobacco smoke, alcohol, sunlight, chemicals and other agents in the environment

18   that are known to cause cancer. Investigators have used magnetic field measurements to

19   estimate a person's long-term average exposure, i.e., their ***time-weighted average (TWA)***

20   exposure. One method of estimating a person's TWA exposure is to sum all magnetic field

21   exposures encountered during the day (e.g., while at work or school, at home, at a grocery

22   store, shopping, etc.), weight each estimate by the number of hours in that environment, and

23   divide that value by the total number of hours.

24   Exposure to magnetic fields has been quantitatively estimated in studies using a variety of

25   methods, including:

26   1)   Categories of exposure based on the number and thickness of power line

27   conductors and their distance to nearby residences (***wire code categories***);

28   2)   Instantaneous, ***spot measurements*** in particular locations of a home;

29   3)   Recordings of magnetic fields over 24- or 48-hour periods using either

30   measurements in a room where a person spends most of their time or using a

31   measurement device that is carried with the person; and

32   4)   Calculations of fields from nearby transmission lines using information on

33   loading, height, configuration, etc.

34   In general, studies that estimate long-term exposure using personal magnetic field

35   measurements are preferred. In a recent analysis of children from 5 Canadian provinces, the

36   children wore personal exposure meters, which took single readings each minute for 48 hours

37   to estimate the child's 48-hour average magnetic field exposure (Armstrong et al., 2001).

38   Since this type of measurement may be cost prohibitive in some locations, the investigators

1   evaluated what proxy exposure measures might best predict the child's 48-hour average
2   magnetic field exposure. Stationary 24-hour measurements in a child's bedroom were a good
3   predictor of 48-hour personal exposure, and spot measurements around the perimeter of the
4   child's home were a moderately good predictor. Wire code categories were not found to be an
5   accurate predictor of a child's exposure.

6   It is important to note that the magnetic field exposure estimates used in epidemiology studies,
7   while given in units of mG, are not the same as the magnetic field values at a fixed location,
8   such as at the edge of a transmission line right-of-way (ROW). The difference is that the
9   exposure estimate in epidemiologic studies is intended to reflect a person's exposure to
10   magnetic fields from all sources at all locations over a long period of time. It is evident then
11   that brief encounters with higher magnetic fields (for example, walking under a distribution or
12   transmission line, at home in front of a refrigerator or television, or at a grocery store near the
13   freezer) would not significantly alter the long-term exposure of a person to magnetic fields, as
14   reflected in their TWA exposure, because they spend such a small fraction of their time at these
15   locations.

16 2.4   Evaluating experimental research

17 2.4.1 General research methods

18   Experimental studies of humans, animals, and cells and tissues complement epidemiology
19   studies. These two approaches are needed because, although people are the species of interest,
20   they have large variations in their genetic makeup, exposures, dietary intake, and health-related
21   behaviors. In laboratories, these variables can be controlled to provide more precise
22   information regarding the effects of an exposure. In epidemiology studies, it is difficult to
23   control for these variables because scientists are merely observing individuals going about their
24   ordinary lives. Taken together, epidemiology, animal, and cellular studies provide a more
25   complete picture of a possible disease etiology than any one of these study types alone.

26   A wide variety of approaches are available for assessing the possible adverse effects associated
27   with exposures in experimental studies. The two general types of experimental studies are
28   studies of the effects of planned exposures on human volunteers (usually short-term studies) or
29   whole animals (usually long-term studies), called *in vivo* studies, and studies of isolated cells
30   and tissues (often obtained from human or animal sources), called *in vitro* studies. *In vitro*
31   studies are designed to evaluate the way that the exposure acts on cells and tissues outside of
32   the body, also known as the mechanism of action.

33 *In Vivo* animal studies

34   Studies in which laboratory animals receive high exposures in a controlled environment
35   provide an important basis for evaluating the safety of environmental, occupational, and drug

1   exposures. These approaches are widely used by health agencies to assess risks to humans
2   from medicines, chemicals and physical agents (USEPA, 2005; USEPA, 2002; IARC, 2002
3   preamble; Health Canada, 1994; WHO, 1994). From a public health perspective, long-term
4   (chronic) studies in which animals undergo exposure over most of their lifetime, or during their
5   entire pregnancy, are of high importance in assessing potential risks of cancer and other
6   adverse effects. In these long-term studies, researchers examine a large number of anatomical
7   sites to assess changes and adverse effects in body organs, cells, and tissues.

8   These data are used in the hazard identification step of the risk assessment process by agencies
9   to determine whether an environmental exposure is likely to produce cancer or damage organs
10   and tissues. Health Canada specifies that lifetime *in vivo* studies or *in vivo* studies of exposures
11   during critical sensitive periods are conducted to assess potential toxicity to humans (Health
12   Canada, 1994). Furthermore, the EPA recently stated, "…the absence of tumors in well-
13   conducted, long-term animal studies in at least two species provides reasonable assurance that
14   an agent may not be a carcinogenic concern for humans" (page 2-22, USEPA, 2005).

15   ### *In Vitro* cellular studies

16   *In vitro* studies are used to investigate the mechanisms for effects that are observed in living
17   organisms. However, the relative value of *in vitro* tests to human health risk assessment is less
18   than that of *in vivo* and epidemiology studies. This is because responses of cells and tissues
19   outside the body may not reflect the response of those same cells if maintained in a living
20   system, so their relevance cannot be assumed (IARC, 1992). It may be difficult to extrapolate
21   from simple cellular systems to complex, higher organisms to predict risks to health because
22   the mechanism underlying effects observed *in vitro* may not correspond to mechanisms
23   underlying complex processes like ***carcinogenesis*** (the progression of normal cells to
24   cancerous cells). In addition, the results of *in vitro* studies cannot be interpreted in terms of
25   potential human health risks unless they are performed in a well-studied and validated test
26   system. For these reasons, the IARC and other agencies treat data from *in vitro* studies as
27   supplementary to data obtained from epidemiology and whole animal studies.

28   Convincing evidence for a mechanism that explains an effect observed in experimental or
29   epidemiologic studies can add weight to the assessment of cause-and-effect, and in some cases
30   may clarify reasons for different results among species, or between animals and humans.
31   However, *in vitro* studies are not used by any health agency to directly assess risks to human
32   health. For this reason, this report emphasizes epidemiology studies and experimental research
33   conducted *in vivo*.

34   Additional information on experimental research methods specific for cancer and
35   developmental effects is discussed below.

1 ## 2.4.2 Experimental methods for cancer

2 Cancer research in the laboratory includes specific types of studies to assess the various stages
3 of cancer development. Research has established that cells may take several steps to change
4 from ordinary cells to the uncontrolled growth typical of cancer. Cancer usually begins with a
5 mutation, that is, an irreversible change in the genetic material of the cell. This is also known
6 as *initiation* or induction. Other steps, or stages, must occur for a cancerous cell to develop
7 into a tumor, and one of these stages is often referred to as *promotion*. Some exposures affect
8 both of these stages, and are known as complete carcinogens. Other types of exposures affect
9 only initiation, or only promotion. The failure of early EMF research to produce mutations in
10 the DNA of cells *in vitro* was a factor in directing scientists to focus on studies of promotion.

11 *In vitro* assays isolate specific cells or microorganisms in glassware in the laboratory to assess
12 the likelihood that exposure to the agent can cause mutations, a step necessary in the initiation
13 of cancer. Initiation tests have also been developed in animals, in which scientists expose them
14 for less than lifetime periods to determine whether an exposure causes changes typical for early
15 cancers in specific tissues such as liver, breast or skin.

16 Other tests are designed to ascertain whether a specific exposure can stimulate tumor growth
17 (i.e., promotion) in an animal in which cellular changes typical of initiation have already
18 occurred. Studies of promotion include two steps: first, exposing the experimental animals to a
19 chemical known to initiate cancer, and second, exposing the animals to the agent to be tested as
20 a promoter. The occurrence of cancer in the animals exposed in both steps is compared to the
21 occurrence of cancer that develops in animals exposed only to the initiator.

22 ## 2.4.3 Experimental methods for developmental toxicity

23 Studies in animals are also used to assess whether an exposure can pose risk to the unborn
24 children of pregnant women. Experimental studies in pregnant animals provide a means for
25 isolating the exposure in question from the myriad of other factors that can affect prenatal
26 development. The results of these well-controlled animal studies are used by regulatory
27 agencies to assess risk and help set human exposure limits (USEPA, 1991; USEPA, 1998;
28 NTP, 2007).

29 To test the potential for an exposure to affect fetal development, pregnant mammals such as
30 mice, rats, or rabbits are exposed from the time the embryo is implanted in the uterus to the day
31 before delivery. Variations in study design include preconception exposure of the female in
32 addition to exposure during gestation, or further exposure to the animal after it is born.
33 Protocols generally specify that doses be set below the levels known to cause maternal toxicity,
34 that unexposed controls are maintained at the same time period, and that the animals' health is
35 monitored throughout the study. Endpoints measured include maternal body weight and
36 weight change, the numbers and percent of live offspring, fetal body weight, the sex ratio, and
37 external, soft tissue, or skeletal variations and malformations. The uterus can also be examined
38 to assess the number of implantations and fetuses that have been lost, as an indication of
39 miscarriage (USEPA, 1998).

15

2.4.4 Evaluating the cumulative body of experimental evidence

Key factors in evaluating individual experimental studies include the details of the protocol; the plan for selecting animals and conducting and analyzing the study; the adequacy of the dose levels selected; the way in which the study was actually conducted, including adherence to good laboratory practices in animal housing and monitoring; and the evaluation of the effects on toxicity, tumors, or malformations, considering both biological and statistical issues (USEPA, 2005).

As an example of a protocol, consider the long-term animal study, a major tool for determining whether a chemical can produce cancer in humans. Standard protocols usually specify at least 50 animals of each sex per dose level, in each of 3 different dose groups. One of these dose groups is a high level termed the 'maximum tolerated dose,' which is close to, but below, the level that increases mortality or produces significant morbidity. Additional dose levels are used below this maximum. An unexposed group, or control, is maintained under the same conditions during the same time period for comparison.   This study design permits a separate evaluation of the incidence rate for each tumor type in the exposed group compared to the unexposed control group. Statistical methods are used in the analysis of results to assess the role of chance in any differences in the rates between exposed and unexposed, or among the dose groups. If effects are observed in a study, other studies are considered because similarity of results in different studies, laboratories, and species strengthens the evidence.

Specific methods are used to reduce subjectivity and avoid systematic error, or bias, in scientific experiments (NRC, 1997). These are summarized in Table 2, including the random assignment of subjects to control or comparison groups, the unbiased collection of information (e.g., researchers are not aware of, or are 'blind' to the exposure), and the need for replication of results. Again, as with *Hill's criteria*, each guideline for evaluating causation in experimental studies is not met with a simple 'yes' or 'no,' rather, they serve as guidance for weighing the evidence to reach a decision about cause-and-effect. The more firmly these criteria are met by the studies, the more convincing the evidence.

1 **Table 2. Criteria for evaluating experimental studies as applied to EMF exposures**

Avoiding unwanted effects	The experimental techniques should be chosen to avoid effects of intervening factors such as microshocks, noise, corona discharges, vibrations and chemicals.
Exposure classification	Extreme care should be taken to determine the effective EMF field, voltage, or current in the organism.
Sensitivity	The sensitivity of the experiments should be adequate to ensure a reasonable probability that an effect would be detected if it existed.
Objectivity	The experimental and observational techniques, methods and conditions should be objective. "Blind" scoring (where the investigator making the observations is unaware of the experimental variable being tested) should be used whenever there is a possibility of investigator bias. "Double-blind" protocols (where neither the investigator making the observations nor the experimental subject are aware of the experimental variable being tested) should be used in studies of people when the experimental subjects' perceptions may be unwittingly influenced.
Statistical significance	If an effect is claimed, the result should be demonstrated at a level where chance is an unlikely explanation.
Consistency	The results of a given experiment should be internally consistent among different ways of analyzing the data, and consistent across studies with respect to the effects of interest.
Quantifiable results	The results should be quantifiable and replicable. In the absence of independent confirmation, a result should not be viewed as definitive.
Appropriateness of methodologies	The biological and engineering methodologies should be sound and appropriate for the experiment.

17

1 # 3   Conclusions of weight-of-evidence reviews on EMF

2 Scientists, scientific organizations, and regulatory agencies use the weight-of-evidence
3 approach worldwide to assess the health risk associated with exposures. These expert groups
4 have included many scientists with diverse skills that reflect the different research approaches
5 required to answer questions about health. Using a weight-of-evidence approach as an analytic
6 framework, each group has provided its scientific consensus based on a review of the evidence.
7 In this assessment, we focus on the weight-of-evidence reviews published December 1, 2005 –
8 August 31, 2007 by the national and international scientific panels that have considered this
9 issue (SCENIHR, 2007; SSI, 2007; WHO, 2007).[10] We also make reference to weight-of-
10 evidence reviews that were published by scientific organizations prior to 2005, the full details
11 of which can be found in Exponent 2005. While some of these reviews are not explicitly
12 referred to as "weight-of-evidence reviews," each of these panels consisted of a group of
13 scientists that used a structured and systematic process to weigh both the laboratory and
14 epidemiologic evidence and provide a conclusion about causality. In particular, this
15 assessment focuses on the conclusions of the scientific panel assembled by the WHO, because
16 it is the most recent.

17 In an earlier report, the WHO provided insight as to why reviews by reputable scientific
18 organizations are important to weighing 30 years of literature on a single topic:

19 Science is a powerful tool and has earned its credibility by being
20 predictive. However, its usefulness depends on the quality of the data,
21 which is related to the quality and credibility of the scientists. It is
22 important to verify the knowledge and integrity of so called "experts,"
23 who may look and sound extremely convincing but hold unorthodox views
24 that the media feel justified in airing "in the interests of balance." In fact
25 giving weight to these unorthodox views can disproportionately influence
26 public opinion. For the public, often the best sources of information are
27 from panels of independent experts who periodically provide summaries
28 of the current state of knowledge. (WHO, 2002)

29 ## 3.1   Recent weight-of-evidence reviews

30 Overall, the conclusions of scientific review panels have been consistent. None of the panels
31 concluded that magnetic fields are a known or likely cause of any long-term adverse health

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[10] We are aware of other summaries of the EMF research that have been published over the past 1-1/2 years. In
particular, with an increase in transmission infrastructure development and the advent of the Internet, various
reviews and summaries are being released on an ongoing basis. This update is restricted to summaries that
used a weight-of-evidence approach, and for which a multidisciplinary scientific panel reviewed the
epidemiologic and experimental evidence (either in its entirety or since the organization's previous report), and
offered conclusions about causality. Other reviews and summaries, which do not follow this approach are not
addressed because they do not assist in making science-based risk assessments and conclusions.

1   effect and, as a result, no standards or guidelines have been recommended for magnetic fields
2   at the strengths normally encountered in our environment. Most of the uncertainty and
3   controversy surrounding magnetic fields is still related to the research on childhood leukemia.
4   Some epidemiologic studies reported that children with leukemia were more likely to live
5   closer to power lines or have higher estimates of magnetic field exposure, compared to children
6   without leukemia; other epidemiologic studies did not report this statistical association. When
7   a number of the relevant studies were combined in a single analysis, no association was evident
8   at lower exposure levels but a weak association was reported between childhood leukemia and
9   estimates of average magnetic field exposures greater than 3-4 mG (Ahlbom et al., 2000;
10 Greenland et al., 2000). These calculations, referred to here as pooled analyses, provide some
11 evidence for an association between magnetic fields and childhood leukemia; however, because
12 of the inherent uncertainty associated with observational epidemiologic studies, the results of
13 these pooled analyses were not considered to provide strong epidemiologic support for a causal
14 relationship. Further, *in vivo* studies have not found that magnetic fields induce or promote
15 cancer in animals exposed for their entire lifespan under highly controlled conditions, nor have
16 *in vitro* studies found a cellular mechanism by which magnetic fields could induce
17 carcinogenesis.

18 Considering all the evidence together, panels issuing conclusions following the publication of
19 the pooled analyses characterized **magnetic** fields as a *possible* cause of childhood leukemia
20 (NRPB, 2001a; IARC, 2002; ICNIRP, 2003; HCN, 2004). The term "*possible*" denotes an
21 exposure for which epidemiologic evidence points to a statistical association, but other
22 explanations cannot be ruled out as the cause of that statistical association (e.g., bias and
23 confounding) and experimental evidence does not support a cause-and-effect relationship.

24 The IARC classified electric fields as "not classifiable as to their carcinogenicity to humans"
25 (p. 338). More studies have focused on magnetic field exposures because, among other
26 reasons, conductive objects block electric fields. The epidemiologic studies that estimated
27 electric field exposure also have not produced suggestive associations, although the IARC
28 concluded that the epidemiologic evidence related to electric fields is "inadequate" because of
29 major qualitative or quantitative limitations in the data.

30 The recent evaluations of the latest research have concluded that the classification of "possible
31 carcinogen" for magnetic fields remains appropriate (SCENIHR, 2007; SSI, 2007; WHO,
32 2007). These views have stressed the importance of reconciling the epidemiologic data on
33 childhood leukemia and the lack of evidence from experimental studies through innovative
34 research. Just like any other cancer, researchers believe that the development of childhood
35 leukemia is influenced by a multitude of different factors, e.g., genetics, environmental
36 exposures, and infectious agents (Buffler et al., 2005; McNally et al., 2006).

37 Both the IARC and ICNIRP concluded that the epidemiologic evidence does not support a
38 cause-and-effect relationship between magnetic fields and adult leukemia/lymphoma or brain
39 cancer; recent studies have not altered that conclusion (SCENIHR, 2007; WHO, 2007). Breast
40 cancer has received more attention because of some initial epidemiologic and experimental
41 findings suggesting that magnetic fields may alter levels of the hormone melatonin, leading to
42 the development of breast cancer (i.e., the melatonin hypothesis). An additional review by the
43 Health Protection Agency (HPA) of Great Britain in 2006 concluded that the evidence to date

1 did not support the hypothesis that exposure to magnetic fields affects melatonin levels, or the
2 risk of breast cancer (HPA, 2006).[11] The SCENIHR and WHO reviews concluded that recent
3 studies added support to the conclusion that magnetic fields are not associated with breast
4 cancer (SCENIHR, 2007; WHO, 2007). With regard to miscarriage, two epidemiologic studies
5 reported a statistical association between peak magnetic field exposure and miscarriage (Lee et
6 al. 2002; Li et al. 2002), although a serious bias in how these studies were conducted was
7 identified and various scientific panels concluded that these biases preclude making any
8 conclusions about the effect of magnetic fields on miscarriage (HCN, 2004; NRPB, 2004;
9 WHO, 2007).

10 Some epidemiologic studies on neurodegenerative diseases (including Alzheimer's disease and
11 Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis [ALS]) have reported associations with estimates of
12 occupational magnetic field exposure. The scientific panels have recommended more research
13 in this area, particularly with regard to ALS, as the initial studies were of relatively low quality
14 (NRPB, 2001b; SCENIHR, 2007; WHO, 2007).

15 In summary, reviews of the research published over the last few years concluded that the
16 cumulative body of research to date does not support the idea that magnetic fields cause any
17 long-term adverse health effects at the levels we encounter in our everyday environments.

18 For additional reference, the sections below provide a more detailed summary of each scientific
19 panel, the methods they employed to review the evidence, and their scientific conclusions.

20 ## 3.1.1 The World Health Organization (WHO)

21 The World Health Organization is a scientific organization within the United Nations system
22 whose mandate includes providing leadership on global health matters, shaping the health
23 research agenda, and setting norms and standards. WHO established the International EMF
24 Project in 1996, in response to public concerns about exposures to EMF and possible adverse
25 health effects. The Project's membership includes 8 international organizations, 8
26 collaborating institutions and over 54 national authorities. The overall purpose of the project is
27 to assess health and environmental effects of exposure to static and time varying EMF in the
28 frequency range 0-300 GigaHertz (GHz). A key objective of the Project is to evaluate the
29 scientific literature and make a status report on health effects, to be used as the basis for a
30 coherent international response, including the identification of important research gaps and the
31 development of internationally acceptable standards for EMF exposure. The WHO's weight-
32 of-evidence review was published in June 2007 as part of their Environmental Health Criteria
33 (EHC) Programme.

34 The WHO used standard scientific procedures to conduct its health risk assessment. The Task
35 Group responsible for the report's overall conclusions consisted of 21 scientists from around
36 the world with expertise in a wide range of disciplines. The Task Group relied on the

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[11] The National Radiation Protection Board of Great Britain (NRPB) merged with the HPA in April 2005 to form
    its new Radiation Protection Division.

1 conclusions of previous weight-of-evidence reviews, where possible, and (with regard to
2 cancer) mainly focused on evaluating studies published after the IARC review in 2002.
3 Specific terms were used by the Task Group to describe the strength of the evidence in support
4 of causality. *Limited evidence* was used to describe a body of research where the findings are
5 inconsistent or there are outstanding questions about study design or other methodological
6 issues that preclude making strong conclusions. *Inadequate evidence* describes a body of
7 research where it is unclear whether the data is supportive or unsupportive of causation because
8 there is a lack of data or there are major quantitative or qualitative issues. The WHO also used
9 the IARC method for categorizing exposures based on their likely carcinogenicity. Categories
10 include (from highest to lowest risk): carcinogenic to humans, probably carcinogenic to
11 humans, possibly carcinogenic to humans, unclassifiable, and probably not carcinogenic to
12 humans. These categories are intentionally meant to err on the side of caution, giving more
13 weight to the possibility that the exposure is truly carcinogenic and less weight to the
14 possibility that the exposure is not carcinogenic. The category "possibly carcinogenic to
15 humans" denotes exposures for which there is limited evidence of carcinogenicity in
16 epidemiology studies and less than sufficient evidence of carcinogenicity in studies of
17 experimental animals.

18 The WHO Report provided the following conclusions:[12]

19   New human, animal, and in vitro studies published since the 2002 IARC
20   Monograph, 2002 [sic] do not change the overall classification of ELF as a
21   possible human carcinogen (p. 347).

22   Acute biological effects [i.e., short-term, transient health effects such as a
23   small shock (see Section 3.2)] have been established for exposure to ELF
24   electric and magnetic fields in the frequency range up to 100 kHz that may
25   have adverse consequences on health. Therefore, exposure limits are
26   needed. International guidelines exist that have addressed this issue.
27   Compliance with these guidelines provides adequate protection.
28   Consistent epidemiological evidence suggests that chronic low-intensity
29   ELF magnetic field exposure is associated with an increased risk of
30   childhood leukaemia. However, the evidence for a causal relationship is
31   limited, therefore exposure limits based upon epidemiological evidence
32   are not recommended, but some precautionary measures are warranted (p.
33   355).

34 **3.1.2 Scientific Committee on Emerging and Newly Identified Health Risks**
35   **(SCENIHR)**

36 The SCENIHR is a committee that provides advice to the European Commission (EC) on
37 issues of public health. The Working Group responsible for the report on EMF consisted of

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[12] More specific conclusions from the WHO report are provided in discussions of specific outcomes in the literature update (Section 4).

1   nine persons with expertise in various fields. The SCENIHR issued their first report on EMF
2   in March 2007 as an update to a report released in 2001 to the Health Directorate of the EC
3   (CSTEE, 2001).[13] The purpose of the 2007 report was not to provide an exhaustive review, but
4   to note new findings since 2001 and characterize risks.

5   The report provided the following conclusion on ELF-EMF:

6   The previous opinion came to a similar conclusion regarding
7   carcinogenicity of ELF fields as IARC's evaluation, namely that ELF
8   magnetic fields are possibly carcinogenic. This conclusion was mainly
9   based on epidemiologic results indicating that exposure to EMF fields
10   might be a cause of childhood leukemia. This assessment is still valid.
11   The fact that epidemiological results for childhood leukemia have little
12   support from known mechanisms or experimental studies is intriguing and
13   it is a high priority to reconcile these data.

14   For some other diseases, notably breast cancer and cardiovascular disease,
15   later research has indicated that an association is unlikely. For yet some
16   other diseases, such as neurodegenerative disease and brain cancer, the
17   issue of an association to ELF fields remains open and more research is
18   called for. A relation between ELF fields and symptoms has not been
19   demonstrated (p. 37).

20   ### 3.1.3 Swedish Radiation Protection Authority (SSI)

21   The SSI is an "international independent expert group for electromagnetic fields and health"
22   consisting of eight scientists. Using other major scientific reviews as a starting point, the SSI
23   has evaluated recent studies in consecutive annual reports.[14] The report released in 2007 was
24   their fourth annual report.

25   The report concluded that recently published studies on childhood leukemia are in line with
26   previous findings and that recently published animal and *in vitro* studies on genotoxicity have
27   not provided evidence that ELF magnetic fields can damage DNA. They also identified no
28   new plausible biological mechanisms to explain the statistical association between childhood
29   leukemia and magnetic fields.

30

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[13] The 2001 report of the Scientific Committee on Toxicity, Ecotoxicity, and the Environment (CSTEE) was not
     included in the Exponent 2005 report because priority was given in that report to scientific organizations that,
     at one time, had published a full weight-of-evidence review of the published literature, rather than reports that
     reviewed the research in separate documents periodically as it became available.

[14] Previous SSI reports were not mentioned in the Exponent 2005 report because priority was given in that report
     to scientific organizations that, at one time, had published a full weight-of-evidence review of the published
     literature, rather than reports that reviewed the research in separate documents periodically as it became
     available.

1   # 3.2   Standards and guidelines for limiting exposure to EMF

2   ## 3.2.1 Status of EMF guidelines

3   Two international scientific organizations, ICNIRP and the International Committee for
4   Electromagnetic Safety (ICES), have published guidelines for limiting public exposure to
5   EMF. These guidelines set limits at high field levels to protect against the direct, acute health
6   effects (i.e., stimulation of nerves and muscles, a shock-like effect) that can occur at these high
7   field levels. Although the ICNIRP and ICES have the same objectives[15] and used similar
8   methods, the recommended limits for exposure of the general public to EMF at the frequencies
9   used to transmit electricity differ, as seen in Table 3. Exposure standards are set based on acute
10 effects – those that occur from short-term exposure to high levels – because both organizations
11 judged that evidence for effects from long-term exposure to ELF-EMF was insufficient for
12 setting exposure standards.

13 **Table 3.   Reference levels for whole body exposure to 60-Hz fields: general public**

Organization Recommending Limit	Magnetic Fields [a]	Electric Fields [a]
ICNIRP Restriction Level	833 mG	4.2 kV /m
ICES Maximum permissible exposure (MPE)	9,040 mG	5 kV/m 10 kV/m [b]

14 a. Both organizations judged that evidence for effects from long-term exposure was insufficient for
15   setting exposure standards.

16 b. Exception within transmission line ROWs because people do not spend a substantial amount of time
17   in ROWs and very specific conditions are needed before a response is likely to occur; a person must
18   be well insulated from ground and must contact a grounded conductor (ICES, 2002, p.27).

19 The ICNIRP recommends a residential exposure limit to magnetic fields of 833 mG and an
20 occupational exposure limit of 4,200 mG (ICNIRP, 1998). The ICES recommends that
21 magnetic field exposures be limited to 9,040 mG (ICES, 2002). Magnetic field levels in
22 ordinary environments are far too low to cause acute effects.

23 As Table 3 shows, there is some difference between in the electric field limits of ICNIRP and
24 ICES. The ICNIRP guideline for general public exposure is 4.2 kV/m, and the ICES guideline
25 for general public exposure is 5 kV/m. These guidelines are the same as those reported in
26 Exponent 2005 and remain unchanged despite additional research and reviews.

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[15] The scope of ICES is the "Development of standards for the safe use of electromagnetic energy in the range of
0 Hz to 300 GHz relative to the hazards of exposure to man … to such energy." ICES encourages balanced
international volunteer participation of the public, the scientific and engineering community, agencies of
governments, producers, and users. ICNIRP is an independent group of approximately 40 experts assembled
from around the world. It is the formally recognized, non-governmental organization charged with developing
safety guidance for non-ionizing radiation for the WHO, the International Labour Organization, and the
European Union.

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1　The discussion in this section of the biological basis for the standard focuses mainly on electric
2　fields, because exposure to magnetic fields can induce or conduct electric fields into the body.
3　Thus, limits on internal levels of electric fields are the basis of both the electric and magnetic
4　field standards**.**

5　In Canada, there are no national standards or guidance for limiting residential or occupational
6　exposure to 60-Hz ELF-EMF based on either acute or long-term health effects. Rather, the
7　only Canadian standards specify maximum levels and duration of exposure to *radio frequency*
8　*fields*, that is, fields with a frequency over 3,000 Hz (Health Canada, Safety Code 6). Health
9　Canada, which monitors the scientific research on EMF and human health as part of its mission
10　to improve the health of Canadians, takes the following position:

11　　　At present, there are no Canadian government guidelines for exposure to
12　　　EMFs at ELF. Health Canada does not consider guidelines necessary
13　　　because the scientific evidence is not strong enough to conclude that
14　　　typical exposures cause health problems. (Health Canada, 2004)

15　The sections below discuss the similarities and differences between the ICNIRP and
16　ICES standards, and the public health implications of the differences.

17　## 3.2.2 Similarities between ICES and ICNIRP guidelines

18　In both the ICES and ICNIRP standard setting process, a group of scientists conducted
19　extensive reviews of the scientific research regarding health effects. The scientists reviewed
20　the epidemiologic and experimental evidence and concluded that the evidence was insufficient
21　to warrant the development of standards on the basis of hypothesized long-term health effects,
22　such as cancers. Each organization reached a consensus that the most sensitive endpoints – the
23　substantiated adverse effects that would occur at the lowest level of exposure – are short-term
24　reactions to electrostimulation of nerve and muscle. These are direct, acute reactions to high
25　levels of exposure, not severe or life-threatening events.

26　Each organization developed its recommended exposure limit in two steps. The first step is to
27　identify the lowest level of electrical forces inside the body that is likely to produce the
28　stimulation of nerve and muscle. This internal level, or dose, is further lowered by safety
29　factors to develop what is referred to as the ***basic restriction***. As the term indicates, the basic
30　restriction is the internal 'dose' recommended for exposed populations. This internal level is
31　the foundation of both the ICNIRP and ICES standards because both electric and magnetic
32　fields can induce electrical forces in the body.

33

24

1   The ICNIRP and ICES basic restrictions are set well below the value at which an adverse effect
2   was observed in experiments, therefore these exposure limits are conservative.[16] This is
3   because they incorporate dose reduction factors, known as *safety factors* to account for
4   potential sources of uncertainty. For example, both groups consider the potentially higher
5   sensitivity in vulnerable groups as a reason for using a safety factor.

6   The second step in the standard setting process involves developing the *reference level*. A
7   reference level is developed because a basic restriction cannot be directly measured. The
8   reference level is the measurable level of electric fields at the location of interest; these levels
9   are outside of the body, and are used as a screening value to maintain the internal level
10 identified as the basic restriction.

11 ## 3.2.3 Differences between the two guidelines

12 While both the ICNIRP and ICES standards are designed to protect against short-term reactions
13 to electrostimulation of nerve and muscle, they are based on different aspects of the data
14 (Reilly, 2005). ICES estimates an internal field that would lead to a 1-percent reaction level in
15 the most sensitive tissue, and then applies a safety factor of 3, whereas ICNIRP identified an
16 adverse effect level that is 28 times higher than ICES, does not specify the probability of effect
17 on any specific tissue, and applies a safety factor of 50. Table 4 shows the main factors
18 responsible for the differences in electric field limits between the two standards.[17] These
19 differences also affect the magnetic fields limits.[18]

20

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[16] In this context 'conservative' means that if the reference level (the screening level) is exceeded, it does not
necessarily follow that the basic restriction is exceeded. ICNIRP explains: "In many practical exposure
situations external power frequency electric fields at the reference levels will induce current densities in
central nervous tissues that are well below the basic restrictions. Recent dosimetry calculations indicate that
the reference levels for power-frequency magnetic fields are conservative guidelines relative to meeting the
basic restrictions on current density for both public and occupational exposures." (ICNIRP, 1999).

[17] The WHO (2007) acknowledges that the guidance recommended by ICNIRP is more restrictive than that
recommended by ICES. As the WHO (2007) notes "The major factor responsible for this difference [between
the standards] is the cut-off frequency … at which thresholds for electric field strength and induced current
density begin to rise."

[18] The derivation of the magnetic field standard is not further addressed in this report other than the note above
that the standard is based on short-term effects due to the inadequate evidence for long-term effects.   The
exposures of the public to magnetic fields from transmission lines are more than 10 – 100 fold lower than the
ICNIRP limit.

1 **Table 4.   Scientific basis of exposure limits for the general public at 60-Hz**

Organization Recommending Exposure Limit	Health and Scientific Basis	Threshold Estimate for Internal Electric field (E-field) [a]	Safety Factor
ICNIRP Restriction Level	Effect level, not a threshold, for acute changes in central nervous system excitability. Applies to head and torso.	500 mV/m[c]	50[b]
ICES Maximum permissible exposure (MPE)	Threshold for median (50%) probability of changes in synaptic response in brain, the most sensitive tissue, reduced 3-fold to estimate threshold for a 1% response level. Applies only to head	5.9 mV/m	3

2 a. The standard is based on the internal or *in situ* E-field, called a basic restriction in both of the guidelines. The actual
3   exposure limits, expressed in kV/m, are based on the measured environmental level deemed likely to lead to that internal E-
4   field.

5 b. 50-fold safety factor based on a 10-fold reduction to reduce it to a level deemed unlikely to cause effects, and an additional
6   5-fold for general public exposure. (ICNIRP, 1998 p. 509)

7 c. The ICNIRP basic restriction or the general public is 2 mA/m^2, but has been transformed to mV/m to facilitate comparison
8   with the ICES level.

9 ## 3.2.4 Implications for human health

10 The underlying question for people who make decisions about public health and safety is
11 whether the ICNIRP reference value (4.2 kV/m) implies greater safety simply because it is
12 lower and includes a larger "safety factor." In developing public health standards, safety
13 factors are used when uncertainty is recognized, and the general rule is that smaller safety
14 factors are needed as the relevant information on risk to humans is improved. As can be seen
15 in Table 4, although ICNIRP uses a larger safety factor, it applies that factor to a higher level of
16 exposure as the estimated threshold level. ICES uses a smaller safety factor, but has used
17 highly specific data on human responses, leading to a lower, presumably more precise,
18 estimated threshold level. It is essential to understand that for effects like these that have a
19 threshold, the goal of the standard setting process is to set the exposure limit where no effects
20 will occur in the population. Therefore, further lowering of the exposure limit is not expected
21 to have any health benefit. For additional perspective on the question of the safety of
22 exceeding ICNRIP exposure limits up to the level of the ICES limits, consider that ICNIRP
23 states that EMF guidelines are conservative,[19] and that the ICNIRP recommended limit for
24 occupational exposure is 8.3 kV/m (ICNIRP, 1998).

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[19] In this context 'conservative' means that if the reference level (the screening level) is exceeded, it does not
      necessarily follow that the basic restriction is exceeded. ICNIRP explains: "In many practical exposure
      situations external power frequency electric fields at the reference levels will induce current densities in
      central nervous tissues that are well below the basic restrictions. Recent dosimetry calculations indicate that
      the reference levels for power-frequency magnetic fields are conservative guidelines relative to meeting the
      basic restrictions on current density for both public and occupational exposures." (ICNIRP, 1999).

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1 ## 3.3 Precautionary approaches

2 ### 3.3.1 General definition

3 A precautionary policy for risk management of possible, but unproven, adverse effects emerged
4 in Europe in the 1970s regarding environmental issues. The ***precautionary principle*** refers to
5 the idea that, when evidence does not support the suggestion that an exposure is a cause of a
6 particular disease but where a risk is perceived, precautionary measures may be taken that are
7 proportional to the perceived level of risk, with science as the basis for measuring that risk. A
8 key element of precautionary approaches is the recognition that a real risk from the exposure
9 may not exist, and its necessary corollary is that the reduction of exposure may not reduce the
10 level of adverse effects in the population.

11 The EC prepared a report to clarify what became known as "the precautionary principle"
12 because it had been subject to controversy and variability in interpretation.[20] The EC report
13 explained that the implementation of the precautionary principle should be science based,
14 starting with a complete scientific evaluation, and the range of actions taken should depend on
15 the extent of the risk and the degree of uncertainty surrounding the occurrence of adverse
16 effects. The EC provided guidelines for the application of the precautionary principle or other
17 risk management measures as five general principles: proportionality, non-discrimination,
18 consistency, examination of costs and benefits of actions, and examination of scientific
19 developments.[21]

20 A variant of the precautionary principle called "prudent avoidance" has been favored as a
21 policy option for EMF by some national and local governments. The WHO describes this as
22 "using simple, easily achievable, low to modest (prudent) cost measures to reduce individual or
23 public EMF exposure, even in the absence of certainty that the measure would reduce risk"
24 (WHO, 2002).

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[20] Commission of the European Communities, Communication on the Precautionary Principle, Brussels 03
February 2000 [http://europa.eu.int/comm./off/com/health_consumer/precaution.htm]

[21] Proportionality: "Measures...must not be disproportionate to the desired level of protection and must not aim at
zero risk."

Nondiscrimination: "comparable situations should not be treated differently and... different situations should not
be treated in the same way, unless there are objective grounds for doing so."

Consistency: "measures...should be comparable in nature and scope with measures already taken in equivalent
areas in which all the scientific data are available."

Examination of the benefits and costs of action or lack of action: "This examination should include an economic
cost/benefit analysis when this is appropriate and feasible. However, other analysis methods...may also be
relevant."

Examination of scientific developments: "The measures must be of a provisional nature pending the availability
of more reliable scientific data"... "Scientific research shall be continued with a view to obtaining more
complete data."

1 ### 3.3.2 Canadian perspective on precautionary approaches

2 The Government of Canada has published "A Framework for the Application of Precaution in
3 Science-based Decision Making About Risk" (2003). One of the basic general principles is
4 that sound scientific information must be the basis for both deciding whether or not to
5 implement precautionary measures, and determining what precautionary measures, if any, are
6 implemented. The document clarifies that "Scientific advisors should give weight to peer-
7 reviewed science and aim at sound and reasonable evidence on which to base their judgments"
8 (p.8).

9 ### 3.3.3 WHO recommendations regarding precautionary measures for EMF

10 The scientific evaluation completed by the WHO also discusses general policy
11 strategies for risk management, and provides a summary table of different policy
12 strategies worldwide specifically for EMF exposure in the general public (WHO,
13 2007, Chapter 13). The WHO recommended the following precautionary
14 measures:

15 • Countries are encouraged to adopt international science-based
16 guidelines.

17 • Provided that the health, social, and economic benefits of electric
18 power are not compromised, implementing very low-cost
19 precautionary procedures to reduce exposures is reasonable and
20 warranted.

21 • Policy-makers and community planners should implement very
22 low-cost measures when constructing new facilities and designing
23 new equipment including appliances.

24 • Changes to engineering practice to reduce ELF exposure from
25 equipment or devices should be considered, provided that they
26 yield other additional benefits, such as greater safety or involve
27 little or no cost.

28 • When changes to existing ELF sources are contemplated, ELF
29 field reductions should be considered alongside safety, reliability,
30 and economic aspects

31 • Local authorities should enforce wiring regulations to reduce
32 unintentional ground currents when building new or rewiring
33 existing facilities, while maintaining safety. Proactive measures to
34 identify violations or existing problems in wiring would be
35 expensive and unlikely to be justified

28

1   •   National authorities should implement an effective and open
2   communication strategy to enable informed decision-making by all
3   stakeholders; this should include information on how individuals
4   can reduce their own exposure.

5   •   Local authorities should improve planning of ELF EMF-emitting
6   facilities, including better consultation between industry, local
7   government, and citizens when siting major ELF EMF-emitting
8   sources.

9   •   Government and industry should promote research programs to
10   reduce the uncertainty of the scientific evidence on the health
11   effects of ELF field exposure. (adapted from pp. 372-373, WHO
12   2007)

13   In summary, the general recommendation of the WHO is as follows:

14   Countries are encouraged to adopt international science-based
15   guidelines. In the case of EMF, the international harmonization of
16   standard setting is a goal that countries should aim for (WHO,
17   2006). If precautionary measures are considered to complement
18   the standards, they should be applied in such a way that they do not
19   undermine the science-based guidelines (p. 367).

4   Evaluation of recent EMF research

This section summarizes an up-to-date assessment of the current literature to determine whether recent findings are consistent with the conclusions of the scientific panels presented in Section 3. Exponent 2005 reviewed the literature through December 2005; therefore, this assessment reviews literature published December 1, 2005 through August 31, 2007. Childhood leukemia, adult leukemias and lymphomas, brain cancer, breast cancer, reproductive and developmental outcomes, and neurodegenerative diseases are considered.

In carrying out this update, we considered the totality of the science (not just the new information) to determine if changes in the national and international health risk assessments were warranted. This assessment is carried out using a weight-of-evidence approach with standard epidemiologic principles and Hill's guidelines as an analytic foundation. All relevant research as identified below is taken into consideration and more weight is assigned to studies that are well designed and conducted, because studies with better methods provide stronger evidence. Therefore, this assessment reflects the current knowledge of research related to EMF and the health concerns reviewed.

As noted by the ICNIRP and IARC, there has been no consistent or strong evidence to explain how EMF exposure could affect biological processes in cells and tissues. In addition, as described in Section 2.4.1 above, such data are supplementary to epidemiology and whole animal studies, and are not directly used by health agencies to assess risk to human health. For that reason, this review systematically addresses epidemiology studies and *in vivo* studies, but relies largely on reviews and the conclusions of scientific panels with regard to studies of mechanism (see Section 4.6.3).

4.1   Details of the literature search process

A standard literature review begins with a search for relevant literature. A structured literature search was conducted according to published, standard criteria (Stroup et al., 2000) using PubMed, a search engine provided by the National Library of Medicine and the National Institutes of Health that includes over 15 million up-to-date citations from MEDLINE and other life science journals for biomedical articles dating back to the 1950s (http://www.pubmed.gov). A well-defined search strategy was used to identify epidemiologic publications between December 1, 2005 and August 31, 2007, as detailed in Figure 1 of the Appendix. Only published, peer-reviewed studies were considered. The literature review was supplemented by hand searching the reference lists of retrieved articles.

1   All fields (title, abstract, etc.) were searched for a term that referenced the exposure of interest
2   (EMF, magnetic fields, electric fields, or electromagnetic) *and* the outcome of interest: cancer
3   (cancer, leukemia, or lymphoma), neurodegenerative disease (neurodegenerative disease,
4   Alzheimer's disease, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, or Lou Gehrig's disease), or reproduction
5   (miscarriage, reproduction or development). An epidemiologist reviewed the titles and
6   abstracts of these publications, 49 of which were epidemiology-related publications on 50/60-
7   Hz[22] alternating current (AC) ELF-EMF and health effects. Of these 49 publications, 27
8   original studies and 1 pooled analysis were identified. For each disease outcome discussed
9   below (i.e., childhood leukemia [7 studies], adult leukemia/lymphoma [5 studies], brain cancer
10   [4 studies], breast cancer [6 studies], reproductive outcomes [3 studies], and neurodegenerative
11   diseases [3 studies]), the full-text of the retrieved studies was evaluated to assess the relevance
12   of the study and the adequacy of its design for assessing whether exposure to EMF was
13   associated with the adverse health outcome. The following additional inclusion criteria were
14   applied to the retrieved epidemiologic studies:

15   1. Only case-control and cohort studies were included. ***Case-series*** or case reports and
16   analyses of perceived cancer ***clusters*** were excluded. These study designs lack a
17   control group, and generally include a small sample size, which provides little
18   information for assessing causation; rather, these studies are typically only helpful for
19   hypothesis generation**.**

20   2. Included studies must address the following hypothesis in some capacity: is exposure to
21   magnetic or electric fields associated with the adverse health outcome being studied?

22   3. Included studies must assess EMF exposure beyond a self-reported job title.[23]

23   The remaining studies were considered, in concert with the review panels' conclusions, in a
24   weight-of-evidence review. When considering all of the epidemiologic reports together,
25   causality is more likely if high-quality studies report dose-response patterns and consistent
26   results across many different populations and study designs. After weighing the evidence from
27   each study, Hill's criteria were used as an analytic guide for deriving a conclusion with regard
28   the interpretation of reported associations. As discussed in Section 2, a weight-of-evidence
29   review assigns more weight to studies with a better design. While there are many factors
30   involved in the critical analysis of epidemiology studies, a few important tenets are recognized
31   in the analytic framework of several of the major reviews and are worth mentioning (FPTRPC,

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[22] The frequency associated with the transmission and distribution of electricity outside of the United States and
    Canada is typically 50-Hz. One study (Roosli et al., 2007) examined exposure to 16.7-Hz magnetic fields
    among railway workers, but was still considered given that this frequency is within the ELF range.

[23] Studies that only report associations between the health outcome under investigation and job titles that are
    presumed to have high levels of magnetic field exposure were identified and scanned, but are not evaluated
    further in this report for several reasons. First, job titles are a crude method of estimating exposure because
    they do not capture the variety of a person's occupational history or the variety of exposures a person may
    encounter within one occupation. Furthermore, hypothesis-generating case-control analyses that calculate
    associations for many occupations are subject to the bias associated with multiple comparisons. These studies
    provide relatively little information in a weight-of-evidence review, particularly when studies are available
    with more thorough exposure evaluations (as is the case for the large number of studies related to magnetic
    field exposures).

1   2005; IARC, 2002). First, the authors should clearly define the study population and the
2   disease and exposure under study. Second, it is vital to assess the impact of bias, confounding
3   and chance on the study's results. Methodologically sound studies include those that are large
4   (to decrease the role of chance and increase precision), test for relevant confounders and use
5   methods that reduce the possibility of **bias**. Finally, the methods and data upon which the
6   conclusions of the study are based should be clearly reported and based on accepted
7   techniques.

8   4.2   Leukemia and lymphomas

9   4.2.1 Childhood leukemia

10 Childhood leukemia was the first disease investigators examined to understand its possible
11 relation to magnetic field exposures in epidemiologic studies, and it remains the most
12 controversial because of suggestive (but methodologically limited) epidemiologic results that
13 conflict with experimental findings. Since the first investigation in 1979, approximately 25
14 epidemiologic studies have been conducted of varying methods and designs and by different
15 investigators in the United States (US), Canada, Germany, the United Kingdom (UK), New
16 Zealand, Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden that have addressed the possible association
17 between childhood leukemia and magnetic fields in some facet. When the data was combined
18 from a subset of these studies into one analysis, a 1.7- to 2-fold association was reported among
19 the few children exposed to long-term, average magnetic field levels greater than 3-4 mG; no
20 association was reported in the lower exposure categories (Ahlbom et al., 2000; Greenland et
21 al., 2000).

22 After considering this body of research, multidisciplinary scientific panels concluded that long-
23 term exposure to magnetic fields at levels above 3-4 mG is a *possible* cause of childhood
24 leukemia. The panels did not conclude that magnetic fields are a *known* cause of childhood
25 leukemia because, while the observed association does not appear to be a chance occurrence,
26 they could not rule out that errors in the way these studies were conducted or the lack of control
27 for unknown confounding variables are a cause of some, or all, of the observed association.
28 More importantly, the data remain unconvincing for a causal association because studies
29 conducted in animals have not reported consistent increases in the incidence of cancer among
30 highly exposed animals, nor have investigators identified a mechanism at the cellular level
31 which could explain how magnetic fields would initiate or promote carcinogenesis, or any
32 other disease process. This is reflected in the conclusion on childhood leukemia from the
33 Exponent 2005 report:

34   In summary, recent studies do not alter the conclusion that there is no
35   consistent or convincing evidence that exposure to magnetic fields is a
36   cause of childhood leukemia. The current body of evidence for a causal
37   relationship is weak, at best. Researchers are increasingly focusing on
38   new hypotheses as to what could cause childhood leukemia, including

1 whether exposure to viruses or bacteria may promote cancer (McNally and
2 Eden, 2004). (p. 36)

3 The WHO reached a similar conclusion in its June 2007 report. The report listed a causal
4 relationship as one of several alternative interpretations of the association observed in
5 epidemiologic studies. The other possible explanations included random variation or chance,
6 systematic errors (including *selection bias* and misclassification bias) and other factors that
7 could confound the association. The issue remains unresolved, and research to assess the role
8 of these factors is considered important. The WHO, as well as other scientific panels,
9 recommended that future research use novel and sound methods to understand what is causing
10 the observed statistical association (i.e., bias, confounding, or a real causal relationship).

11 Recent studies have followed-up on this recommendation by asking tangential questions:

12 • Do magnetic fields contribute to the higher rate of childhood leukemia among
13 genetically susceptible children? (Mejia-Arangure et al., 2007)

14 • Do magnetic fields contribute to a worse prognosis among those already diagnosed
15 with childhood leukemia? (Foliart et al., 2006, 2007; Svendson et al., 2007)

16 • Is the association more strongly influenced by nighttime magnetic field exposures?
17 (Schüz et al., 2007)

18 • Do trends in the incidence of childhood leukemia correlate with trends in average
19 population magnetic field exposures? (Kheifets et al., 2006)

20 The recent literature also includes two case-control studies that were conducted in non-Western
21 countries, i.e., Iran and Japan (Feizi and Arabi, 2007; Kabuto et al., 2006, respectively).[24]

22

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[24] Lowenthal et al. (2007) also included cases of leukemia among children, although most cases were among
adults so this study is included in the adult leukemia section (Section 4.2.2).

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1 **Case-control studies**

2 In the case-control study by Feizi and Arabi (2007), interviews were conducted with the
3 mothers of 60 children with leukemia and 59 children without leukemia to determine the
4 distance from their home to any nearby power lines. The study recruited cases and controls
5 from hospitals, which may introduce bias.[25] The investigators reported that children with
6 leukemia were more likely to reside in homes within 500 meters of a transmission line
7 compared to the children selected for the control group (OR=8.76, 95% CI=1.74-58.4); cases
8 were also more likely to have estimated magnetic field exposures greater than 4.5 mG
9 (OR=3.60, 95% CI=1.11-12.39), using standard formulas to calculate exposures from power
10 lines.

11 This study was based on consecutively diagnosed cases from hospitals in one city. Its *validity*
12 is significantly limited by its small size, possible selection bias, and lack of assessment of
13 confounding variables (such as socioeconomic status and mobility), and reliance upon distance
14 as a proxy for exposure. The results are similar to, but much more limited than, the much
15 larger study by Draper et al. in 2005, which reported that birth addresses of leukemia cases
16 were more likely to be within 600 meters of a high-voltage transmission line. A much higher
17 percentage of children with leukemia lived in close proximity to transmission lines in the study
18 by Feizi and Arabi compared with the study by Draper et al. (2005), which (according to the
19 authors) is a result of housing conditions in some developing countries, including Iran. The
20 WHO concluded the following, with respect to the Draper et al. findings:

21   [the] observation of the excess risk so far from the power lines, both noted
22   by the authors and others, is surprising. Furthermore, distance is known to
23   be a very poor predictor of magnetic field exposure, and therefore, results
24   of this material based on calculated magnetic fields, when completed,
25   should be much more informative. (p. 270)

26 The same conclusions apply to Feizi and Arabi (2007).

27 Kabuto et al. conducted a larger case-control study in Japan that measured the average weekly
28 magnetic field level in the bedrooms of 312 children with leukemia and 603 children without
29 leukemia. The investigators reported that children with leukemia were more likely to have
30 average magnetic field levels >4 mG, compared to children without leukemia. The association
31 was statistically significant (i.e., unlikely to be due to chance) when acute lymphocytic
32 leukemia (ALL) was considered alone and no confounding variables were controlled for in the
33 risk estimate (OR=4.67, 95% CI=1.15-19.0). This study's strength is its exposure assessment
34 in that measurements were taken continuously over a weeklong period approximately one year
35 after a diagnosis of leukemia. There are several shortcomings of this study, however, that limit
36 its overall weight in this assessment. The intent of the study was to include all leukemia cases
37 identified between 1999 and 2001 from five urban regions in Japan; however, nearly half of the
38 leukemia cases declined to participate, the lowest *participation rate* ever reported in a case-

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[25] Studies that use hospital-recruited cases and controls (as opposed to study subjects recruited from the general
    population) are typically more prone to bias because it is difficult to identify the true source population and
    the control group is also diagnosed with conditions and illnesses, which may be related to the exposure of
    interest.

1   control study of childhood leukemia and EMF. The participation rate for controls was also
2   extremely low (16%). Low participation is a significant source of bias because the association
3   may be distorted if there are important differences between the children who participated in the
4   study and those that did not (i.e., selection bias).[26] Another limitation of this study was its
5   small sample size in the highest exposure category (6 ALL cases and 3 controls had an average
6   exposure >4 mG). A small sample size makes the reported results unstable – if a few children
7   are classified in the wrong exposure category, the results can change. This is a common
8   limitation of studies of childhood leukemia, in which the association depends upon the
9   exposures of a few children at the upper end of the population distribution of exposure.

10   The WHO considered the Kabuto et al. study in its 2007 review concluding, "The low response
11   rate was a limitation of this study. Thus the addition of this study to the database will not add
12   much as far as the overall results are concerned" (p. 269).

13   Both the recent Iranian and Japanese case-control studies reported results that are consistent
14   with the previously observed association between magnetic field exposures greater than 3-4
15   mG and childhood leukemia. When these studies are examined individually for
16   methodological soundness, however, and then evaluated in the context of the entire body of
17   literature, neither study provides evidence to change the conclusion that the observed
18   association provides limited support for a causal relationship. The uncertainty surrounding the
19   impact of selection bias in Kabuto et al. and the small study size and crude methods for
20   estimating exposure in Feizi and Arabi suggest that less weight should be placed on these
21   studies relative to studies of magnetic fields and childhood leukemia that were population
22   based and also had good exposure assessments, but did not have low participation rates (e.g.,
23   Linet et al., 1997; McBride et al., 1999; UKCCS et al., 2000).

24   **Nighttime exposures**

25   Schüz et al. conducted a pooled analysis of a subset of studies to test whether the association
26   observed in the previous pooled analyses is the result of magnetic field exposures occurring
27   during the nighttime hours, as reported in an earlier study by Schüz et al. (2001) in Germany.
28   The analysis pooled results from studies that reported average 24- or 48-hour magnetic field
29   exposure levels, including studies conducted in Canada (McBride et al., 1999), the US (Linet et
30   al., 1997), Germany (Michaelis et al., 1997; Michaelis et al., 1998; Schüz et al., 2001), and the
31   UK (UKCCS, 1999). The pooled ORs reported for average 24-hour exposure levels were
32   similar to those reported for average nighttime exposure levels in the categories 1-2 mG, 2-4
33   mG, and >4 mG. When analyzed alone, the only study reporting an association for nighttime
34   exposures was the German study by Schüz et al. in 2001. Thus, the authors concluded that
35   nighttime exposures do not explain the observed association between exposure to high, average

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[26] For example, if the parents of a child with leukemia were informed that the study was investigating magnetic field exposure and they resided close to a transmission line, they may be more likely to participate than a family that lived far from a transmission line. As a result, children with leukemia that lived closer to transmission lines (and with a presumably higher magnetic field exposure) would be over-represented in the study population compared to the source population. In this scenario, the study may report that children with leukemia are more likely to have higher magnetic field exposure when, if the entire *source population* of leukemia cases had participated, there would be no difference in the exposure levels between leukemia cases and controls.

35

1　magnetic field levels and childhood leukemia. A recent experimental study in mice

2　predisposed to develop lymphoma also reported that mice exposed to magnetic fields only at

3　night exhibit no increased risk of cancer (Sommer and Lerchl, 2006).

4　**Magnetic fields and leukemia survival**

5　Foliart and colleagues tested a new hypothesis: among children already diagnosed with ALL, is

6　exposure to higher, average magnetic field levels associated with a worse prognosis (i.e., a

7　shorter survival time or more relapses, secondary malignancies, or treatment failures)?

8　Magnetic field exposure was assessed in 386 children diagnosed with ALL, using a personal

9　monitor for a 24-hour period shortly after diagnosis. Increasing exposure was not associated

10　with more events (death, relapse, secondary malignancy, or treatment failure), overall. There

11　was a statistically significant ***hazard ratio***, however, for magnetic field exposure ≥3 mG and

12　death (from any cause) compared to ≥1 mG, but the result was based on only four deaths and

13　there was only borderline evidence for a dose-response relationship in ***multivariate analyses***

14　(p=0.06). A subsequent publication on the same study population reported that magnetic field

15　exposure ≥3 mG was not associated with markers of poorer ALL prognosis (e.g., particular

16　chromosomal rearrangements, clinical factors such as platelet counts, etc.), suggesting that the

17　association observed in the earlier study is not caused by a magnetic-field effect on these

18　variables (Foliart et al., 2007). The studies were limited by a very low participation rate (29%),

19　small numbers in the highest exposure categories, and the lack of prospective information on

20　magnetic field levels among residentially mobile children. After noting these limitations, the

21　authors concluded:

22　　　　Although we report poorer survival among children with the

23　　　　highest MF exposure category, clinical inferences are limited, with

24　　　　results possibly attributable to chance alone. Independent

25　　　　confirmation is needed, as our study is the first to look at relapse

26　　　　and survival and thus our findings can be viewed only as

27　　　　hypothesis generating (p. 164).

28　Shortly after the publication of the studies by Foliart et al., Svendsen et al. (2007) evaluated the

29　same hypothesis on a group of 486 German children with ALL assembled from previous case-

30　control studies conducted in Lower Saxony, Berlin, and the former West Germany (Michaelis

31　et al., 1997; Michaelis et al., 1998; Schüz et al., 2001, respectively). Svendsen et al. used the

32　same general methods as Foliart et al., although exposure was based on measurements taken in

33　the child's bedroom up to a few years after diagnosis. The results from this study were

34　generally consistent with those reported by Foliart et al.; an elevated hazard ratio for overall

35　survival (and not event-free survival) was reported for persons exposed to >3 mG (OR=2.8,

36　95% CI=0.4-20.6, based on 1 death). Associations were also reported for the exposure

37　categories 1-2 mG (OR=2.8, 95% CI=1.2-6.2, based on 7 deaths) and ≥2 mG (OR=3.0, 95%

38　CI=0.9-9.8, based on 3 deaths).

39　The interpretation of these results, similar to Foliart et al., is limited by low participation rates,

40　small numbers in the highest exposure categories, and the lack of relevant and prospective

41　information on magnetic field exposures (measurements were made in the house where the

36

1   child lived the longest *before* diagnosis). Furthermore, the associations reported in this
2   analysis are puzzling because magnetic field exposures in the range of 1-2 mG are common.

3   **Other childhood leukemia studies**

4   Mejia-Arangure and colleagues conducted a series of studies in Mexico City to investigate
5   what environmental factors (including maternal smoking, maternal drinking, or residential
6   magnetic field exposure) might contribute to the development of childhood leukemia in
7   children with Down's syndrome (Mejia-Arangure et al., 2003; 2007). Children with Down's
8   syndrome are 10-20 times more likely to develop childhood leukemia (Hitzler and Zipursky,
9   2005; Ross et al., 2005). Thus, the intent of these analyses was to determine whether there is
10   an association between magnetic field exposure and childhood leukemia among a population
11   that is believed to be genetically susceptible. The small case-control study compared spot
12   measurements taken at the front door of the homes of children who had both Down's syndrome
13   and leukemia (N=42) with similar measurements taken at the homes of children with only
14   Down's syndrome (N=124). The 42 children with Down's syndrome who developed leukemia
15   were more likely to have spot measurements greater than 6 mG, although no association was
16   observed for the lower magnetic field exposure categories >1-3.99 mG and 4.00-5.99 mG. The
17   authors concluded that these results suggest, "genetic susceptibility to leukemia may modify an
18   effect of magnetic fields" (p. 160). As noted by the investigators, however, the study's
19   weaknesses include its small size and crude exposure assessment.

20   Some investigators have cited parallel increases in the incidence of childhood leukemia and
21   electric consumption over time to support an association between magnetic fields and
22   childhood leukemia (Milham and Ossiander, 2001). This is referred to as an ecological study,
23   in which an association is estimated using variables measured on populations and not
24   individuals (i.e., average energy consumption and annual leukemia incidence rates). Kheifets
25   et al. (2006) re-examined this question using ecological data for the US and the UK. The
26   investigators concluded that, while there has been a parallel increase, changes in other suspect
27   causes of childhood leukemia and patterns in the reporting and diagnosis of leukemia, as well
28   as the many assumptions involved with estimating changes in magnetic field exposure,
29   preclude any definitive conclusions. The inability of ecological data to be directly extrapolated
30   to individuals is a well known limitation of this type of data (i.e., ecologic fallacy), and, for this
31   reason, epidemiologists give individual-level data much more weight than data collected from
32   populations.

33   **Conclusion**

34   The recently published studies reported an association between childhood leukemia and
35   residence within 500 meters of a transmission line and magnetic field levels greater
36   than approximately 4 mG, but there was no dose-response relationship and small
37   numbers in the upper exposure categories limit inferences. New studies also suggest
38   that there may be an association between overall survival after a diagnosis of leukemia
39   and average magnetic field levels greater than 4 mG, although no associations were
40   observed between clinical indices of poorer survival and magnetic field exposure.
41   None of these recent studies, however, are sufficiently strong methodologically to alter
42   previous conclusions that the epidemiologic evidence on magnetic fields and childhood

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1 leukemia is limited. Chance, confounding, and several sources of bias cannot be ruled
2 out.

3 It is also important to recognize these studies address just one of the many exposures
4 being studied with respect to the etiology of childhood leukemia, including pesticides,
5 benzene, paternal alcohol consumption, ionizing radiation and infections (McNally and
6 Parker, 2006).

7 ## 4.2.2 Adult leukemias and lymphomas

8 The epidemiologic findings for leukemia in adults are quite different from those observed in
9 children. A large number of studies have been conducted on adult leukemia of varying quality
10 and with varying exposure metrics, study designs and sources of exposure. Some older studies
11 reported positive associations, although (as noted by the ICNIRP in 2001) there was no pattern
12 between higher quality studies being more or less likely to report a positive association. Thus,
13 review panels concluded that the evidence in support of an association between adult leukemia
14 and magnetic fields was "weak" (ICNIRP, 2001) and "inadequate" (IARC, 2002). The group
15 of studies published from 2001 to 2005 and considered in Exponent 2005 found no evidence to
16 support an association; the report concluded that "the consistent absence of an association
17 between adult leukemia and magnetic field exposure in studies published since 2001 adds
18 support to the earlier conclusions of review panels that there is weak evidence for an
19 association" (p. 38). Considering nearly the same body of studies and updating the IARC 2002
20 report, the WHO concluded,

21   In the case of adult brain cancer and leukaemia, the new studies published
22   after the IARC monograph do not change the conclusion that the overall
23   evidence for an association between ELF and the risk of these diseases
24   remains inadequate [Note: *Inadequate evidence* describes a body of
25   research where it is unclear whether the data is supportive or unsupportive
26   of causation because there is a lack of data or there are major quantitative
27   or qualitative issues]. (p. 307)[27]

28 Five studies have been published since 2005 that report on exposure to magnetic fields in
29 relation to adult leukemia (Johansen et al., 2007; Lowenthal et al., 2007; Roosli et al., 2007) or
30 lymphomas (Karipidis et al., 2007a; Mester et al., 2006; Roosli et al., 2007).[28] Mester et al.
31 (2006) was excluded from this review because exposure was based solely on self-reported
32 occupation and industry. Three of the remaining studies assessed occupational magnetic field
33 exposure in cohort studies of electrical utility workers (Johansen et al., 2007) and railway
34 workers (Roosli et al., 2007) and in a case-control study of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma (NHL)
35 (Karipidis et al., 2007a). All three studies utilized a job-exposure matrix to estimate
36 occupational magnetic field exposure. Lowenthal et al. addressed residential exposure, using

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[27] The WHO (2007) review offers no conclusions specific to lymphoma.

[28] Lymphomas and leukemias are together considered lymphohematopoietic cancers (i.e., cancers of the lymph
and blood-forming organs). Exponent 2005 did not consider lymphomas separately; however, they are
considered in this report as a separate disease entity for completeness.

1   distance as a surrogate for magnetic field exposure. The study grouped cases of some types of
2   leukemias and lymphomas as 'lymphoproliferative disorders' and groups of other types of
3   leukemia and diagnoses as 'myeloproliferative disorders.'

4   The two cohort studies are updates of previously published studies.[29] Roosli et al. extended
5   follow-up of a cohort of 20,000 Swedish railway workers by nine years. Each of the 20,000
6   men in this cohort was assigned a cumulative magnetic field exposure by linking the cohort
7   member's occupational history with exposures based on measurements and modeling. Also,
8   leukemia and lymphoma mortality was compared between stationmasters (who spent most of
9   their time in the station and on the platforms) and train attendants (who were exposed to
10 magnetic fields from the 16.7-Hz AC engines). It was assumed that, if magnetic fields were
11 associated with disease, higher mortality would be observed among the train attendants
12 compared to the stationmasters. The previous publication on this cohort provided some
13 evidence to support an association between leukemia mortality and increased magnetic field
14 exposure (Minder and Pfluger, 2001). The current study, however, which was based on 29
15 additional deaths due to leukemia, did not report an association between overall leukemia
16 mortality and increasing magnetic field exposure. Increased hazard ratios were reported for
17 myeloid leukemias with some features of a dose-response relationship, however, chance could
18 not be ruled out as an explanation for this finding. The second cohort update reported on
19 approximately 28,000 workers employed by utility companies in Denmark (Johansen et al.,
20 2007). These workers were followed for the incidence of cancer and classified into magnetic
21 field exposure categories (high, medium and background) based on their first reported job title.
22 The authors reported that male employees in high exposure jobs were no more likely to be
23 diagnosed with leukemia than persons in medium or background exposure jobs.

24 Roosli et al. was limited by the use of death certificate data[30] and small numbers, while
25 Johansen et al. was based on a relatively large number of incident cancer cases. Neither cohort
26 controlled for possible confounding factors. Both cohorts, however, had a long period of
27 follow-up and consisted of persons who were occupationally exposed to high levels of
28 magnetic fields.

29 Lowenthal et al. grouped cases in five cancer diagnostic categories (including ALL) as
30 lymphoproliferative disorders (LPD), and cases of three diseases (including some types of
31 leukemia) as myeloproliferative disorders (MPD). These groups included both adults and
32 children of all ages. They estimated exposure by obtaining a lifetime residential history and
33 assessing distance of the residences from any of three types of power lines (88 kV, 110 kV, or
34 220 kV). An individual's exposure was based on the closest distance ever having lived from a
35 power line, grouped in categories of 0-50 meters, 51-300 meters, and >300 meters. They
36 reported elevated ORs for those who lived within 50 meters of any of these power lines, and an

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[29] Extending follow-up in a cohort study means that the cohort is followed for an additional period of time beyond
    the last publication. Cohort updates provide valuable information because the longer a cohort is followed, the
    more follow-up time and events are available, resulting in increased *power* and larger numbers.

[30] Death certificates may not always contain the diagnosis of interest because they may only report immediate, and
    not underlying, causes of death. Furthermore, survival is increasing for many cancers and lymphomas. Thus,
    if a person survives their cancer, the cancer diagnosis will not be listed on their death certificate. Both of
    these limitations result in an under-ascertainment of cases, which could bias risk estimates toward 1.0.

1   indication of decreasing ORs with increasing distance. However, the numbers were small and
2   the results were imprecise (i.e., wide CIs). Chance could not be ruled out as a factor in any of
3   these results. They also reported an increased OR when only considering exposures that
4   occurred up to the age of 15; the authors presented the concept of a possible effect of childhood
5   exposure on long-term disease risk as a "novel finding" deserving further study.

6   This study of LPD and MPD included many limitations that may introduce bias, reduce validity
7   and detract from its findings (Lowenthal et al., 2007). For example, data was obtained from
8   cases by interview, using trained interviewers, but information was obtained from controls by
9   postal questionnaires, thus breaking a cardinal rule in epidemiology that information from
10 cases and controls should be obtained in the same manner. The distance measure, a poor
11 surrogate for residential magnetic fields exposure, is further reduced in value because the
12 power lines in question were at three different voltages. If, as is likely, these lines carried
13 different loads, then magnetic fields at any given distance would differ among the lines.

14 As the discussions above and previous sections illustrate, epidemiologic studies typically
15 evaluate each different type of cancer individually. There are many reasons why studies of
16 EMF have not combined different types of cancer, or adults and children, together as
17 Lowenthal et al. have done. This is because differences among cancers in patterns of age at
18 diagnosis, cell type, rate of growth and response to different treatments illustrate the unique
19 aspect of each cancer diagnosis. Therefore, studies of possible causes are studied separately for
20 each type of cancer because each cancer has a distinct etiology. The reported findings from
21 Lowenthal et al. are based on combined disease types and age groups, whereas adults and
22 children typically have different patterns of leukemia. The combination of different diseases
23 and age groups, the highly imprecise exposure surrogate, the different methods for evaluating
24 cases and controls, and the role of chance diminish the implications of the findings from this
25 study.

26 In conclusion, the recently published updates of large cohorts occupationally exposed to
27 magnetic fields are in line with the previous summary conclusions from IARC, ICNIRP, WHO,
28 and Exponent 2005. The cumulative body of evidence does not support an epidemiologic
29 association between magnetic fields and adult leukemia. Lowenthal et al. reported findings for
30 distance from power lines that cannot be distinguished from a chance finding. The reported
31 association between early exposure and later cancer cannot be evaluated without additional
32 testing.

33 Roosli et al. also reported on lymphoma mortality, including Hodgkin's disease and NHL.
34 Increased hazard ratios were reported for Hodgkin's disease with some features of a dose-
35 response relationship, however chance could not be ruled out as an explanation for this finding,
36 as the results were based on only 15 deaths spread among the 5 occupational groups.

37 The case-control analysis by Karipidis et al. enrolled persons diagnosed with NHL in New
38 South Wales and a similar group of persons randomly selected from electoral rolls. Most
39 eligible persons participated and cumulative occupational magnetic field exposure was
40 estimated from a job-exposure matrix. NHL patients were slightly more likely to have the
41 highest cumulative magnetic field exposure (OR=1.48, 95% CI=1.02-2.16). Overall, this study
42 was well conducted, with its most significant limitation being the possibility of uncontrolled

1 confounding because little is known about the causes of NHL. This is one of the first
2 population-based studies examining an association between NHL and magnetic field exposure
3 using calculated exposure estimates. Therefore, it is still a hypothesis-generating study,[31] and
4 further research is required before any conclusions can be provided.

5 ## 4.3 Other cancers

6 ### 4.3.1 Brain cancer

7 Some early studies reported associations between magnetic field exposures and brain cancers,
8 although consistent results were not reported and no patterns were identified between positive
9 studies, causing the panels to conclude that the evidence is weak and inadequate (IARC 2002;
10 ICNIRP 2003). Exponent 2005 concluded that the recent body of literature at that time
11 provided no convincing evidence of an association. Several, large cohort studies with good
12 exposure assessment techniques reported no increased risks (Sorahan et al., 2001; Hakansson et
13 al., 2002), and where an association was found, it was reported only for a particular sub-group
14 with small numbers. Exponent 2005 concluded, "recent research supports the consensus that
15 there is no cause-and-effect relationship between magnetic field exposure and brain cancer" (p.
16 40). Similarly, the WHO concluded,

17   In the case of adult brain cancer …, the new studies published after the
18   IARC monograph do not change the conclusion that the overall evidence
19   for an association between ELF and the risk of these diseases remains
20   inadequate [Note: *Inadequate evidence* describes a body of research where
21   it is unclear whether the data is supportive or unsupportive of causation
22   because there is a lack of data or there are major quantitative or qualitative
23   issues] (p. 307).

24 Four studies have been published since 2005 that report on exposure to magnetic fields in
25 relation to adult brain cancer, including the two cohort updates described above (Johansen et
26 al., 2007; Roosli et al., 2007) and two case-control studies of specific brain cancer types,
27 gliomas and acoustic neuromas (Forssén et al., 2006; Karipidis et al., 2007b, respectively). All
28 four studies examined occupational magnetic field exposure using a job-exposure matrix.

29 No association was reported between brain cancer incidence or mortality and high magnetic
30 field exposures encountered as a utility worker or railway worker in the two recent cohort
31 updates (Johansen et al., 2007; Roosli et al., 2007). Details of these studies are reported above
32 in the adult leukemia/lymphoma section.

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[31] Studies generate and test scientific questions, or hypotheses. The first studies reporting results on a specific scientific question are called hypothesis-generating to highlight that there is little available data with which to compare the results. In addition, certain study designs are useful for screening different hypotheses but are not specific enough to produce results definitive enough for assessing cause-and-effect. Therefore, hypothesis-generating studies cannot provide strong conclusions because the questions being considered require further study.

1   In a case-control study of gliomas in Australia, Karipidis et al. used three different techniques
2   to estimate exposure among glioma cases and controls: self-reported exposure, industrial
3   hygienist interpretation, and a job-exposure matrix. No significant differences in exposures
4   estimated through self-report and ***job exposure matrices*** were reported between cases and
5   controls; however, cases were more likely to be classified in the highest exposure category for
6   exposures rated by an industrial hygienist, but the association was not statistically significant.
7   This study had a number of significant limitations (low participation rates and a high
8   percentage of proxy interviews among cases) that may have influenced the findings.

9   Forssén et al. is the first case-control study to report on the association between magnetic field
10 exposure and acoustic neuroma, a benign (non-cancerous) and rare brain tumor for which
11 causes are unknown. The large study consisted of all diagnoses of acoustic neuroma in Sweden
12 over a 12-year period (N=793) and controls randomly selected from the entire Swedish
13 population (N=101,762). Magnetic field exposure was estimated by the average fields in the
14 person's occupation, and occupation was the one listed on the country's census forms. The
15 authors did not find any evidence that magnetic field exposure increases the risk of acoustic
16 neuroma, regardless of the exposure level or the time period considered. This study was
17 advanced because selection bias, recall bias, and participation bias were not an issue; however,
18 incomplete occupational data was an important limitation.

19 The recently published studies do not support a role for magnetic fields in the etiology
20 of brain cancer. Thus, recent studies add support to the previous weight-of-evidence
21 review conclusions that the data does not indicate a cause-and-effect relationship
22 between magnetic fields and brain cancer.

23 ## 4.3.2 Breast cancer

24 Since December 2005, two case-control studies have estimated the association between
25 magnetic field exposure and breast cancer, both of which focused on *occupational* magnetic
26 field exposures (McElroy et al., 2007; Ray et al., 2007).[32] Two additional studies evaluated
27 occupational magnetic field exposure, but are not considered further in this report because the
28 exposure assessment did not extend beyond job titles. The excluded studies include a brief
29 report of a proportionate mortality analysis conducted on a select group of occupational titles
30 the authors believed to be associated with electric typewriter use (Milham and Ossiander 2007)
31 and a case-control study of female breast cancer reporting associations for a wide range of
32 occupations and industries (Peplonska et al., 2007).

33 Questions about the effect of job-related exposures on breast cancer risk were first addressed
34 among men in electrical occupations. Occupational exposures among women were initially
35 more challenging to study given the rarity of females employed in electrical occupations and
36 the lack of magnetic field exposure data collected specifically for female occupations. Some of

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[32] An additional case-control study was published post-2005 that examined residential magnetic field exposure and breast cancer (Davis and Mirick, 2007), although it was not fully evaluated in this report because it was a re-analysis of a study published by the same investigators in 2001 (Davis et al., 2001a) with the addition of a few variables.

1 the initial studies reported a weak association; however, the association was often restricted to
2 a particular sub-group but showed no consistent pattern across studies. These initial analyses
3 were limited by incomplete occupational histories and crude estimates of magnetic field
4 exposure (e.g., job title from a death certificate). As noted in Exponent 2005 and in the recent
5 reviews by the WHO and SCENIHR, later studies were more methodologically sound and did
6 not provide evidence in support of an association between occupational magnetic field
7 exposure and breast cancer (Labreche et al., 2003; Kliukiene et al. 2004; Forssén et al., 2005).
8 In particular, scientific review panels have placed more weight on the large study by Forssén et
9 al. in 2005 because it was the first and only study to estimate magnetic field exposure using 24-
10 hour measurements in a representative sample of female occupations (SCENIHR, 2007; WHO,
11 2007). This conclusion was summarized in Exponent 2005 as follows:

12 This recent body of research was higher in quality compared with previous
13 studies, and, for that reason, provides strong support to previous consensus
14 statements that magnetic field exposure does not appear to influence the
15 risk of breast cancer. (p. 41)

16 In 2007, McElroy et al. evaluated whether occupational exposures to high, low, medium, or
17 background EMF levels (estimated qualitatively by an industrial hygienist) were different
18 between a large number of breast cancer cases and controls. The authors reported increasing
19 risk with increasing categories of exposure (low, medium and high), but the ORs were very
20 small and not statistically significant (1.05, 1.11, and 1.17, respectively). Given the limitations
21 of this analysis, these results do not provide strong support for an association.

22 Ray et al. (2007) was a ***nested case-control study*** in a cohort of approximately 250,000 textile
23 workers in China followed for breast cancer incidence; breast cancer cases were no more likely
24 than the women in the cohort who did not develop breast cancer to have EMF-exposed jobs.
25 The strength of the study was its large size and nested design, but, as noted by the authors,
26 "duration of employment in EMF-exposed jobs was too crude a dose metric to detect a weak to
27 modest association" (p. 390). According to the authors, research will continue on this Chinese
28 cohort to estimate exposure quantitatively.

29 **Melatonin Hypothesis**

30 The mechanism hypothesized by some investigators to explain a relationship between breast
31 cancer and magnetic field exposure involves a decrease in the production of a hormone called
32 melatonin induced by magnetic fields, which (according to the theory) could result in cancer
33 because of melatonin's putative anti-carcinogenic effects and its regulatory control of
34 reproductive hormones such as estrogen. This idea was proposed in the late 1980s and is now
35 referred to as the "melatonin hypothesis." The hypothesis has received considerable attention
36 with regard to *in vitro, in vivo*, and epidemiologic investigations into whether 1) magnetic
37 fields could decrease melatonin levels, and 2) a decrease in melatonin levels could lead to
38 cancer. The HPA published an extensive weight-of-evidence review in 2006 that evaluated the
39 available experimental and epidemiologic evidence related to the melatonin hypothesis (HPA,
40 2006). The review concluded that there is no consistent evidence in experimental or
41 epidemiologic studies to suggest that magnetic fields can alter melatonin levels. *In vitro* and *in*
42 *vivo* studies have suggested that melatonin can limit growth of cancer cells, however,

1   epidemiologic data linking reduced melatonin levels to subsequent breast cancer risk is limited.

2   Consistent with our evaluation and the reports from other review panels, the review also

3   concluded that the epidemiologic evidence does not support an association between magnetic

4   fields and breast cancer. Taking all of this evidence together, the review concluded the

5   following:

6   In aggregate, the evidence to date does not support the hypothesis that

7   exposure to power frequency EMFs affects melatonin levels or risk of

8   breast cancer. (p. 161).

9   The HPA review included a series of studies related to the role of melatonin in the etiology of

10   breast cancer conducted by a group of investigators in Seattle (Davis and Mirick, 2006). The

11   initial case-control study by these investigators reported no association between residential

12   magnetic field exposure and breast cancer (Davis et al., 2001a), but an extension of this study

13   reported that urinary levels of a melatonin metabolite (6-sulfatoxymelatonin) were reduced in

14   persons with higher magnetic field measurements in the bedroom, although the results were

15   only statistically significant when considered among persons taking medications known to

16   reduce melatonin levels (Davis et al., 2001b).[33] To explore this result further, a re-analysis of

17   the 2001 case-control study evaluated whether the association between breast cancer and

18   residential magnetic field exposure was more pronounced among persons reporting medication

19   use; no significant association was reported when medication users were considered alone

20   (Davis and Mirick, 2007). A cross-over experiment, however, by the same group of

21   investigators reported statistically lower urinary levels of 6-sulfatoxymelatonin in women

22   exposed to controlled magnetic field levels over the course of five consecutive nights (Davis et

23   al., 2006). The latter investigations were not considered in the HPA review, although when

24   considered with the entire body of research, they do not provide sufficient evidence to alter the

25   conclusion that neither epidemiologic nor experimental data support a role for melatonin in the

26   etiology of breast cancer.

27   Thus, recent studies do not provide strong evidence to support the conclusion that magnetic

28   fields experienced in the workplace cause breast cancer (McElroy et al., 2007; Ray et al., 2007)

29   or that magnetic fields cause breast cancer through a melatonin-driven pathway (Davis and

30   Mirick, 2007; Davis et al., 2006). The conclusion from Exponent 2005 remains: "the weight of

31   the available epidemiologic evidence to date does not support the hypothesis that EMF is a

32   cause of breast cancer" (p. 45).

33

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[33] The HPA review considered these results in their evaluation, along with other epidemiologic investigations correlating magnetic field exposure and 6-sulfatoxymelatonin, noting that the evidence is not strong because associations were only reported in specific sub-groups (i.e.., medication users).

1   This conclusion is consistent with a recently published review of the literature by Feychting
2   and Forssén (2006) in Sweden, which concluded the following:

3   … considering the results of the latest well designed studies
4   performed specifically to test the hypothesis that ELF magnetic
5   field exposure increase breast cancer risk, one must conclude that
6   the weight of the evidence available today suggest that power
7   frequency magnetic field exposure most likely is not a risk factor
8   for breast cancer development. (p. 557)

9   ## 4.4   Reproductive and developmental outcomes

10   With regard to reproductive and developmental outcomes, Exponent 2005 focused on two
11   studies that received considerable attention because of a reported association between peak
12   magnetic field exposure and miscarriage, a prospective cohort study of women in early
13   pregnancy (Lee et al., 2002) and a nested case-control study of women who miscarried
14   compared to their late-pregnancy counterparts (Li et al., 2002). The authors focused on a
15   statistical association with peak exposures, although no association was found for average
16   exposures.

17   These two studies improved on the existing body of literature because average exposure among
18   the pregnant women was assessed using 24-hour personal magnetic field measurements (early
19   studies on the potential effect of magnetic fields on miscarriage were limited because they used
20   surrogate measures of exposure, including visual display terminal use, electric blanket use or
21   wire code data). Following the publication of these two studies, however, a hypothesis was put
22   forth that the observed association may be the result of behavioral differences between women
23   with healthy pregnancies (less physically active) and women who miscarried (more physically
24   active) (Savitz et al., 2002). It was proposed that physical activity is associated with an
25   increased opportunity for peak magnetic field exposures, and the nausea experienced in early,
26   healthy pregnancies and the cumbersomeness of late, healthy pregnancies would reduce
27   physical activity levels, thereby decreasing the opportunity for exposure to peak magnetic
28   fields. The scientific panels that have considered these studies concluded that the possibility of
29   this bias precludes making any conclusions about the effect of magnetic fields on miscarriage
30   (NRPB, 2004; FPTRPC, 2005; WHO, 2007). The WHO concluded, "There is some evidence
31   for increased risk of miscarriage associated with measured maternal magnetic field exposure,
32   but this evidence is inadequate" (p. 254). Similarly, Exponent 2005 concluded, "no strong
33   research has been published post-2001 in support of a cause-and-effect relationship between
34   magnetic field exposure and miscarriage" (p. 46).

35   It is not possible to directly "test" for the effects of this bias in the original studies, but two
36   recent analyses examined whether reduced physical activity was associated with a lower
37   probability of encountering peak magnetic fields (Mezei et al., 2006; Savitz et al., 2006;). In a
38   study of seven-day personal magnetic field measurements in 100 pregnant women, Savitz et al.
39   reported that active women were more likely to encounter peak magnetic fields. This finding
40   supports the hypothesis that reduced activity among women in early pregnancies because of

1   nausea and later pregnancies because of cumbersomeness may explain the observed association
2   between peak magnetic fields and miscarriage. In addition, an analysis by Mezei et al. of pre-
3   existing databases of magnetic field measurements also found that increased activity levels
4   were associated with peak magnetic fields (Mezei et al., 2006).

5   Thus, these two recently published studies support Savitz's hypothesis that the associations
6   observed in Lee et al. and Li et al. were due to a bias and there is no convincing epidemiologic
7   evidence linking magnetic field exposure to the risk of miscarriage. Furthermore, there
8   remains no biological basis to indicate that magnetic field exposure increases the risk of
9   miscarriage (see Section 4.6.2).

10 An additional study was recently published related to developmental outcomes. Fadel et al.
11 (2006) conducted a cross-sectional study in Egypt of 390 children 0-12 years of age living in an
12 area within 50 meters of an electrical power line and 390 children 0-12 years of age living in a
13 region with no power lines in close proximity. Measurements were taken as proxies of growth
14 retardation, and radiological assessments were performed on carpal bones. The authors
15 reported that children living in the region near power lines had a statistically significant lower
16 weight at birth and a reduced head and chest circumference and height at all ages. The authors
17 concluded that "exposure to low frequency electromagnetic fields emerged (sic) from high
18 voltage electric power lines increases the incidence of growth retardation among children" (p.
19 211). However, this conclusion fails to adequately take into account the many limitations of
20 their cross-sectional analysis (namely, inadequate control for the possible confounding effects
21 of nutritional and socioeconomic status) and the pre-existing body of literature, which does not
22 support such an association (WHO, 2007). The WHO concluded in 2007 that "Overall the
23 evidence for developmental effects and for reproductive effects is inadequate" (p. 254).
24 Furthermore, this study does not provide sufficient evidence to alter that conclusion. Recent
25 studies of animals *in vivo,* summarized in Section 4.6, also do not provide evidence to change
26 the conclusions expressed by the WHO.

27 ## 4.5   Neurodegenerative diseases

28 Neurodegenerative diseases were not systematically evaluated in Exponent 2005 because the
29 report was primarily structured as a rebuttal to another expert's opinions, which did not include
30 any statements regarding neurodegenerative disease. For completeness, the epidemiologic
31 literature related to neurodegenerative diseases and magnetic field exposure is evaluated in this
32 section.

33

1   Research into the possible effects of magnetic fields on the development of neurodegenerative
2   diseases began around 1995, and the majority of research since then has focused on
3   Alzheimer's disease and a specific type of motor neuron disease called ALS or Lou Gehrig's
4   disease.[34] The WHO evaluated this body of research in their 2007 report; in addition, the
5   National Radiation Protection Board of Great Britain (NRPB) published a report in 2001 that
6   specifically addressed neurodegenerative diseases. The conclusions of the WHO and NRPB
7   reports were used to summarize and evaluate the body of literature published pre-2005; three
8   epidemiologic studies were identified in the literature search post-2005 (Davanipour et al.,
9   2007; Seidler et al., 2007; Sorahan and Kheifets, 2007), and these studies are evaluated to
10   determine whether they are consistent with the conclusions of previous weight-of-evidence
11   reviews.

12   **Alzheimer's disease**

13   The WHO classified the evidence in support of an association between magnetic field exposure
14   and Alzheimer's disease as "inadequate" (p. 206, WHO, 2007). The NRPB noted the
15   inconsistency of the studies and concluded that there is "only weak evidence to suggest that it
16   [i.e., ELF magnetic fields] could cause Alzheimer's disease" (p. 20, NRPB, 2001b). The first
17   studies to generate the hypothesis of a link with Alzheimer's disease reported a 2-fold
18   association between Alzheimer's disease and persons thought to be highly exposed in their
19   occupations. This series of studies, however, was limited by a number of important biases
20   including possible selection bias, lack of validation of exposure, and the use of proxy
21   respondents to ascertain occupational history (Sobel et al., 1995; Sobel et al., 1996).

22   Subsequent studies did not consistently support an association between occupational magnetic
23   field exposure and Alzheimer's disease, although these studies continued to have significant
24   methodological limitations that make them difficult to interpret. The onset of Alzheimer's
25   disease occurs late in life and is difficult to define precisely because it is preceded by a period
26   of dementia that is difficult to distinguish from other etiologies, such as cerebrovascular
27   disease. Since magnetic field exposure occurs throughout a person's life, it is a challenge to
28   design studies that ascertain lifetime exposure accurately and at the ***etiologically*** relevant time
29   period (Brown et al., 2005). A large portion of these studies relied on crude estimates of
30   exposure such as occupational titles reported on death certificates (Savitz et al., 1998a),
31   occupational titles from census data (Feychting et al., 2003; Hakansson et al., 2003), and proxy
32   respondents (Feychting et al., 1998; Qiu et al., 2004). An additional complication is that a
33   number of these studies used death certificates to ascertain cases (Savitz et al., 1998a,b;
34   Johansen and Olsen, 1998; Feychting et al., 2003). Use of death certificates or other mortality
35   data is likely to result in a large number of missed cases, and therefore possible bias, because a
36   large percentage of elderly Alzheimer's patients die from other causes and Alzheimer's disease

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[34] A few epidemiologic studies have also been conducted on Parkinson's disease and multiple sclerosis, although since initial studies did not report suggestive results, subsequent publications focused on Alzheimer's disease and ALS. The WHO concluded the following with respect to Parkinson's disease and multiple sclerosis: "No study has provided clear evidence of an association with above-average exposure to extremely low frequency EMFs and, in the absence of laboratory evidence to the contrary, it seems unlikely that such field are involved in the disease." (p. 203)

1   may not be mentioned on the death certificate (Brown et al., 2005). Furthermore, none of these
2   studies estimated residential exposure and most did not control for the possible confounding
3   effect of other risk factors for Alzheimer's disease (increasing age, family history, Down's
4   syndrome, and a genetic predisposition). After considering the entire body of literature and its
5   limitations, the WHO report concluded,

6   When evaluated across all the studies, there is only very limited
7   evidence of an association between estimated ELF exposure and
8   [Alzheimer's] disease risk (p. 194).

9   **ALS**

10   Early studies on ALS, which had no obvious biases and were generally well conducted,
11   reported some suggestive findings. The review panels, however, were hesitant to conclude that
12   the associations provided strong support for a causal relationship between ALS and
13   occupational magnetic field exposure. Rather, the reviewers felt that an alternative explanation
14   (i.e., electric shocks) may be the source of the observed association. The NRPB concluded: "In
15   summary, the epidemiologic evidence suggests that employment in electrical occupations may
16   increase the risk of ALS, possibly, however, as a result of the increased risk of receiving an
17   electric shock rather than from the increased exposure to electromagnetic fields" (p. 20, NRPB,
18   2001b). The WHO reported a similar conclusion, specifically recommending that additional
19   work be carried out to clarify the role of magnetic fields and/or electrical shocks in the etiology
20   of ALS.

21   **Recent studies**

22   Three studies were published following the studies reviewed by the WHO report. Davanipour
23   et al. extended the early hypothesis-generating study by Sobel et al. by collecting cases from
24   eight California Alzheimer's Disease Diagnostic and Treatment Centers (Sobel et al. examined
25   the 9th Center in 1996). Occupational information was collected from verified diagnoses of
26   Alzheimer's disease and compared to occupational information collected from persons
27   diagnosed with other dementia-related problems at the Centers. The results of this study were
28   consistent with the previous studies by Sobel et al.; cases were approximately twice as likely to
29   be classified as having medium/high exposures, compared with controls. The strengths of this
30   study included its large size and that disease status was based on expert diagnosis. The main
31   limitation was that the exposure assessment only considered a person's primary occupation,
32   classified as low, medium or high exposure. The WHO noted other limitations of the 1996
33   publication that are relevant to this publication as well, including the use of controls with
34   dementia (which some studies found had an increased risk of Alzheimer's disease) and the
35   classification of seamstresses, dressmakers and tailors as "high exposure" occupations which
36   drives the increase in risk. Seidler et al. conducted a similar case-control study in Germany,
37   except cases included all types of dementia (55% of which had Alzheimer's disease).
38   Cumulative magnetic field exposure was estimated from occupational histories taken from
39   proxy respondents, and no difference was reported between cases of dementia or probable
40   Alzheimer's disease and controls (although an association was reported among electrical and

1   electronics workers). The authors reported that exposure misclassification was likely to be a

2   significant problem, and concluded that their results indicate a strong effect of low-dose EMF

3   is "rather improbable." (p. 114)

4   Sorahan and Kheifets followed a cohort of approximately 84,000 electrical and generation

5   workers in the UK for deaths attributed to neurodegenerative disease on death certificates.

6   Cumulative magnetic field exposure was calculated for each worker, using job and facility

7   information. The authors reported that the cohort did not have a significantly greater number

8   of deaths due to Alzheimer's disease or motor neuron disease, compared to the general UK

9   population. They also reported that persons with higher estimated magnetic field exposures did

10   not have a consistently greater risk of Alzheimer's disease or motor neuron disease. A

11   statistically significant excess of Parkinson's disease was observed in the cohort, although there

12   was no association between calculated magnetic field exposure and Parkinson's disease. The

13   authors concluded "our results provide no convincing evidence for an association between

14   occupational exposure to magnetic fields and neurodegenerative disease" (p. 14). This result is

15   consistent with two other Alzheimer's mortality follow-up studies of electric utility workers in

16   the US (Savitz et al., 1998) and Denmark (Johansen and Olsen 1998). The findings may be

17   limited by the use of death certificate data, but are strengthened by the detailed exposure

18   assessment.

19   In conclusion, the WHO stated that there is inadequate data in support of an association

20   between magnetic fields and Alzheimer's disease or ALS; the recent studies do not alter this

21   conclusion. While some studies reported an association between occupational magnetic field

22   exposure and Alzheimer's disease or ALS, the studies are weak in design, meaning the data in

23   support of a causal relationship is still limited. Furthermore, there are no consistent biological

24   data that would support the plausibility of such an association. The WHO panel highly

25   recommended that further studies be conducted with regard to neurodegenerative diseases,

26   particularly studies where the association between magnetic fields and ALS is estimated while

27   controlling for the possible confounding effect of electric shocks.

28 ## 4.6   Experimental research

29   This section reviews the recent studies of cancerous tumors and developmental effects in whole

30   animals to update the previous report. The literature search described in Section 4.1 identified

31   seven *in vivo* studies (Al-Akhras et al. 2006; Anselmo et al., 2006; Jelenkovic et al., 2006;

32   Juutilainen et al., 2006; Sommer and Lerchl, 2006; Udroiu et al, 2006; Yamaguchi et al., 2006)

33   and one additional study was identified by hand-searching reference lists (Okundan et al.

34   2006). Original research studies of whole animals using 50-60-Hz AC fields were the focus,

35   and reviews were omitted (Juutilainen et al., 2006) as well as studies of other EMF frequencies

36   (Yamaguchi et al., 2006). Studies of effects on cellular processes and hypothesized

37   mechanisms were omitted as they were beyond the scope of this update (Jelenkovic et al.,

38   2006; Udroiu et al, 2006).

49

1   ## 4.6.1 Studies related to cancer

2   The results of these experimental animal studies regarding cancer were consistent with the
3   previous review of the literature through 2005 and did not report evidence that magnetic fields
4   cause, enhance, or promote the development of cancer overall, or of leukemia and lymphoma
5   specifically (Exponent, 2005). Likewise, the WHO report (2007) concluded that large-scale
6   long-term studies in rodents have not shown any consistent increase in any type of cancer,
7   including leukemia, lymphoma, mammary, brain and skin tumors. No animal studies provide
8   evidence that exposure to EMF at these low frequencies causes tumors (p. 322).

9   These conclusions were based on a number of *in vivo* studies, including two large-scale studies
10   that completed the National Toxicology Program (NTP) protocol of testing in both sexes, two
11   species, three exposure concentrations, two years of exposure, and comprehensive
12   histopathology (Boorman, et al. 1999; McCormick, et al. 1999; NTP, 2006). In these studies,
13   lifetime magnetic field exposure did not increase leukemia or lymphoma rates, or cancers of
14   the breast, brain, or any other site. In addition, studies specifically designed to test cancer
15   promotion have not found evidence that magnetic fields promote cancer. For example, using
16   mice prone to lymphoma, Babbitt et al (2000) evaluated possible *promotional and co-*
17   *promotional* effects of chronic exposure to power-frequency magnetic fields. The study used a
18   large number of animals (2,600 mice) genetically predisposed to develop leukemia/lymphoma.
19   To study promotion, lymphoma was first induced by ionizing radiation (gamma or X-
20   irradiation), then animals were exposed to either 1.4 mT (14,000 mG) or no magnetic field for
21   the duration of the study. The occurrence of cancer was similar in magnetic field-exposed and
22   unexposed mice that received the same pre-treatment with ionizing radiation. This study
23   indicated that magnetic fields do not promote (i.e., increase the incidence of) radiation-induced
24   leukemia/lymphoma.

25   The literature search located one experimental *in vivo* study of cancer (Sommer and Lerchl,
26   2006). The possible effects of exposure to 50-Hz magnetic fields were studied in a strain of
27   mice that carry a virus that predisposes them to develop a type of lymphoma (Sommer and
28   Lerchl, 2004, 2006). In the first study of chronic exposure the animals were exposed to 1 and
29   100 µT (10 and 1,000 mG) for 24 hours every day for 32 weeks. As noted in the WHO review
30   (2007), this prolonged exposure to mice predisposed to develop cancer did not increase the
31   incidence of cancer in the exposed groups (Sommer and Lerchl, 2004). In the follow-up study,
32   the exposure was increased to 1 mT (1,000 µT or 10,000 mG), and some of the animals were
33   exposed only 12 hours at night, to test the hypothesis that nighttime exposure may have a
34   stronger effect than continuous exposure (Sommer and Lerchl, 2006). There was no influence
35   of exposure on body weight, time to tumor, cancer incidence, or survival time. This new study
36   is consistent with and reinforces previous conclusions that exposure to magnetic fields does not
37   increase the incidence of cancer, even in animals predisposed to cancer.

38   ## 4.6.2 Studies related to developmental and reproductive outcomes

39   Exponent 2005 noted that, despite years of research, there is no biological basis to indicate that
40   magnetic fields increase the risk of miscarriage. Large studies of laboratory animals exposed

1   to pure 60-Hz magnetic fields have shown no increase in birth defects, no multigenerational

2   effects, and no changes that would indicate an increase in miscarriage or loss of fertility. The

3   WHO concluded that exposure of animals up to 20 mT (200,000 mG) did not result in gross

4   external, visceral, or skeletal malformation, but subtle effects on skeletal development cannot

5   be ruled out (based on some findings in chick embryos). However, the WHO noted that studies

6   in mammalian species carry more weight that those in non-mammalian experimental models.

7   The literature search found three *in vivo* studies related to pregnancy or fetal development and

8   exposure to magnetic (Al-Akhras et al., 2006; Anselmo et al., 2006) or electric fields (Okundan

9   et al., 2006). In a study designed to assess the effect of magnetic field exposure on the

10   development of motor reflexes, researchers exposed pregnant females to 3 μT (30 mG) for two

11   hours daily during pregnancy (Anselmo et al., 2006). The study reported that development of 6

12   of the 7 reflexes was delayed in the first 21 days among male pups born to female rats that

13   were fed a diet deficient in several nutrients during pregnancy. In newborn rats born to females

14   exposed to magnetic fields, but with an adequate diet during pregnancy, delay was observed in

15   4 of the 7 reflexes. For example, the auditory startle reflex occurred at day 10.5 in the control

16   group, but at day 12 in the offspring of exposed maternal rats.

17   Al-Akhras et al. (2006) reported that exposures of adult male rats to 50-Hz magnetic fields at

18   250 mG for 18 weeks produced no effect on testes weight, but reduced the weight of seminal

19   vesicles, sperm count, and preputal gland. Lower levels of testosterone were found at 6 and 12

20   weeks compared to controls, but not at 18 weeks. Changes in organ weights and hormone

21   levels are indirect measures of reproductive effects (changes in fertility are direct measures of

22   reproductive function). As summarized in Exponent 2005:

23   Large studies of laboratory animals exposed to pure 60-Hz

24   magnetic fields have shown no increase in … loss of fertility (e.g.,

25   Ryan et al., 1996; Ryan et al., 1999; Ryan et al., 2000; Ohnishi et

26   al., 2002; Chung et al., 2003; Juutilainen et al., 2003; Elbetieha et

27   al., 2002) (p. 43).

28   This study provides no convincing evidence of biologically significant changes in fertility,

29   and is unlikely to change the WHO's conclusion that the evidence is inadequate to support the

30   hypothesis that ELF-EMF causes adverse reproductive effects

31   Most *in vivo* studies have exposed animals to magnetic fields, because buildings and vegetation

32   shield residents from electric fields. One study of electric field exposures examined effects on

33   fetal development. Okundan et al. (2006) studied the effect of exposure to 50-Hz electric fields

34   *in utero* and 14 days after birth on rat bones. The investigators exposed one pregnant female

35   rat (and her pups) to 50-Hz electric fields at 10 kV/m, and another to 0-Hz (static) at 10 kV/m.

36   A third pregnant female was not exposed to the fields but was otherwise maintained under the

37   same conditions for the duration of the experiment. After the 28-day experiment, bone mineral

38   content and density was assessed overall, and in femoral and lumbar bones. Whole body bone

39   mineral content and bone mineral density was lower and tested statistically significant in the

40   female and pups exposed to 50-Hz electric fields compared to controls. The most serious

41   limitation of this study is the use of only one pregnant rat in each group; therefore, there is no

42   way to separate results related to the exposure from those that arose from inherent differences

1   among the three adult female rats. The interpretation of this study is limited for several other
2   reasons: results were not consistent among bone types, there was no long-term follow-up of the
3   offspring to see if these differences were permanent, and no information to assess whether
4   these differences were of biological significance.

5   Weaknesses in study design limit the interpretation of the study of effects of electric fields on
6   rat bone development (Okundan et al., 2006) and of magnetic fields on fertility (Al-Akras et al,
7   2006). Few studies exist to compare the results of the study on maternal magnetic field
8   exposure on reflexes in newborn rats. Previous studies, however, of function and behavior in
9   the offspring of rats exposed to higher levels of magnetic fields for longer periods have not
10   shown clear behavioral or functional deficiencies (Sienkowitz, et al., 1996; Chung, et al.,
11   2004).

12   4.6.3 *In vitro* studies

13   There has been no consistent or strong evidence to explain how EMF exposure could affect
14   biological processes in cells and tissues. In addition, as described in Section 2.4.1 above, such
15   data are supplementary to epidemiology and whole animal studies, and are not directly used by
16   health agencies to assess risk to human health. For that reason, this review relies largely on
17   reviews and the conclusions of scientific panels with regard to studies of mechanism.

18   The IARC and other scientific review panels that systematically evaluated *in vitro* studies
19   concluded that there is no clear evidence indicating how ELF magnetic fields could adversely
20   affect biological processes in cells (IARC, 2002; ICNIRP, 2003; NRPB, 2004). The WHO
21   panel reviewed the *in vitro* research published since the time of the previous reviews and
22   reached the same conclusion. The WHO noted that previous studies have not indicated a
23   genotoxic effect of ELF magnetic fields on mammalian cells, however a recent series of
24   experiments reported DNA damage in human fibroblasts exposed intermittently to 50-Hz
25   magnetic fields (Ivancsits et al., 2002a,b; Ivancsits et al., 2003a,b). These findings have not
26   been replicated by other laboratories (e.g., Scarfi et al., 2005), and the WHO recommended
27   continued research in this area. Research in the field of *in vitro* genotoxicity of magnetic fields
28   combined with known DNA-damaging agents is also recommended, following suggestive
29   findings from several laboratories. As noted by the Swedish Radiation Protection Authority,
30   the levels at which these effects were observed are much higher than the levels we are exposed
31   to in our everyday environments and are therefore not directly relevant to questions about low-
32   level, chronic exposures (SSI, 2007). *In vitro* studies investigating other possible mechanisms,
33   including gene activation, cell proliferation, apoptosis, calcium signaling, intercellular
34   communication, heat shock protein expression and malignant transformation, have produced
35   "inconsistent and inconclusive" results (p. 347, WHO, 2007).

36   4.7   Summary of recent literature

37   Approximately 27 epidemiologic and 7 *in vivo* studies have been published since the Exponent
38   report to the BCUC in 2005. Overall, very few of these studies used high quality methods,
39   meaning there is little evidence available from these new studies that could alter previous

1   conclusions. Many of the recent epidemiologic studies still used proxy measures for exposure
2   and suffered from significant study design limitations. A few epidemiologic studies tested new
3   hypotheses that require further study, such as the reported statistical association between
4   magnetic fields and childhood leukemia survival and the incidence of childhood leukemia in
5   Down's syndrome patients.

6   The weak statistical association between high, average magnetic fields and childhood leukemia
7   remains unexplained. Recent research (which focused largely on occupational exposures)
8   supports the conclusion that there is no association between magnetic fields and adult
9   leukemia/lymphoma, brain cancer and breast cancer. Recent studies suggest that the observed
10   association between peak magnetic field exposure and miscarriage is due to a bias in the
11   collection of the data, although future studies still need to confirm some components of this
12   hypothesis. Although the current body of evidence does not provide strong evidence in support
13   of causal relationship, further research is required on Alzheimer's disease and ALS to clarify
14   the association observed in some studies. In conclusion, the recent studies do not provide
15   evidence to alter the conclusion that the body of research does not suggest that electric or
16   magnetic fields are the cause of cancer or any other disease process at the levels we encounter
17   in our everyday environment.

1   # 5   Pacemakers and ICDs

2   The heart's rhythm is controlled naturally by electrical signals. When there is a disturbance to
3   this rhythm, a pacemaker or an implantable cardiac defibrillator (ICD) is implanted to restore
4   normal cardiac function. Pacemakers and ICDs have two distinct systems – a system that
5   senses the heart's rhythm and a system that provides electrical signals to the heart based on the
6   input it receives. Because the sensing system of these devices is naturally responsive to the
7   heart's electrical signal, other electrical signals can interfere with the normal functioning of
8   pacemakers and ICDs, a phenomenon called electromagnetic interference (EMI). Most sources
9   of EMF are too weak to affect a pacemaker or ICD; however, EMF from certain sources, e.g.,
10   some appliances and industrial equipment, may cause interference. Other potential sources of
11   EMI include cellular telephones, anti-theft devices in stores, MRI machines, slot machines, and
12   certain medical procedures (e.g., radiation therapy, electrocautery and defibrillation).

13   Pacemakers are specially designed to reject signals outside of the frequency range of the heart's
14   electrical signal. If the external signal is the right frequency, but the wrong modulation or
15   shape, the pacemaker identifies the signal as noise and reverts to the "asynchronous mode." In
16   this mode, the pacemaker delivers a regular electrical signal to the heart without responding to
17   the heart's natural rhythm. This mode was specifically designed to prevent interference, and
18   research suggests that it presents little risk to the patient. Potentially more serious health
19   effects can occur if the external signal has the same characteristics as the heart's signal. In this
20   case, triggering or inhibition of the pacemaker's output can occur. This can be a serious
21   problem if prolonged inhibition occurs and the patient is completely dependent on a pacemaker
22   for normal cardiac functioning.

23   Experimental tests have been conducted to determine the threshold level for interference in
24   implanted cardiac pacemakers (Butrous et al., 1982; Butrous et al., 1983; Kaye et al., 1988;
25   Moss and Carstensen 1985; Toivonen et al., 1991; Astridge et al., 1993; Scholten and Silny
26   2001a; Scholten and Silny 2001b; Frank et al., 2003; Trigano et al., 2005). Summarizing the
27   specific findings of these studies is challenging because the pacemakers' responses varied
28   significantly based on a number of factors, including the manufacturer and model of the
29   pacemaker. In general, the magnetic field levels that caused pacing abnormalities in these
30   experimental tests were much higher than the levels people encounter on an everyday basis,
31   including the magnetic field levels from transmission lines. Interference from electric fields,
32   on the other hand, occurred at levels that can be produced by certain electrical sources.
33   Overall, the lowest electric field level that affected a pacemaker was approximately 1 kV/m.
34   Most pacemakers, however, withstood much higher levels (i.e., up to 20 kV/m) without any
35   pacing abnormalities. Single lead (unipolar) pacemakers were much more sensitive to
36   interference, compared with two lead (bipolar) pacemakers. The most common response was a
37   reversion to the asynchronous pacing mode. In the most recent study of electric fields and
38   interference, the authors defined the conditions that influence the likelihood of interference,
39   including the implantation position of the pacemaker, the pacemaker's configuration, and the
40   geometry and anatomy of the patient's body (Scholten and Silny 2001a). The authors reported
41   that the conditions when interference is conceivable are rare, such as bare feet, a raised arm,
42   and a height of 2 meters.

1   No cases of interference to patients' pacemakers by EMF associated with transmission lines
2   have been reported in the literature. As noted above, most devices are now constructed with
3   features that prevent interference. The only limits that have been recommended to prevent
4   pacemaker interference are for workers who might encounter high field sources in the course of
5   their occupations. The American Conference of Governmental Industrial Hygienists (ACGIH)
6   recommends that workers with pacemakers limit their exposure to 1 kV/m and 1,000 mG to
7   protect against interference (ACGIH, 2001).

8   In summary, interference from strong electric fields is theoretically possible under certain
9   circumstances. The likelihood of interference occurring is low, particularly with respect to
10   sources that produce low levels of EMF. It is recommended that concerned patients contact
11   their physician to discuss the make and model of their implanted device, their clinical
12   condition, and any lifestyle factors that put them in close contact with strong electric or
13   magnetic fields.

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1 # 6   EMF and the environment

2 ## 6.1   Fauna

3   Research has also been conducted on the possible effects of EMF on the health, behavior and
4   productivity of wild and domestic animals. Since the 1970s, this research has been carried out
5   in response to concerns about the effects of high-voltage and ultra-high-voltage transmission
6   lines in the vicinity of farms and the natural habitat of wild animals. National agencies and
7   agricultural universities overseas and across Canada and the US, (including McGill University,
8   the University of Minnesota, Montana State University, Iowa State University, and Oregon
9   State University), have conducted research on an assortment of animals using a variety of study
10   designs, from observational studies of animals in their natural habitats to highly controlled
11   experimental studies.

12   In summary, the research to date does not suggest that magnetic or electric fields result in any
13   adverse effects on the health, behavior or productivity of fauna, including livestock such as
14   cows, sheep, and pigs, and a variety of small mammals, deer, elk, birds and bees (Busby et al.,
15   1974; Ware, 1974; Goodwin, 1975; Schreiber et al., 1976; Williams and Beiler 1979; Amustutz
16   and Miller, 1980; Rogers et al., 1980; Rogers et al., 1981; Algers et al., 1982; Hennichs, 1982;
17   Rogers et al., 1982; Mahmoud and Zimmerman, 1983; Mahmoud and Zimmerman, 1984;
18   Algers and Hennichs, 1985; Picoton et al., 1985; Algers and Hultgren, 1987; Stormshak et al.,
19   1992; Beaver et al., 1993; Hill et al., 1993ab; Lee et al., 1993; McCoy et al., 1993; Lee et al.,
20   1995; Thompson et al., 1995; Burchard et al., 1996; Zapotosky et al., 1996; Miller and Lamont,
21   1996; Zapotosky et al., 1996; Burchard et al., 1998a,b,c; Burchard et al., 1999; Hefeneider et
22   al., 2001; Rodriquez et al., 2002; Burchard et al., 2003; Rodriquez et al., 2003; Burchard et al.,
23   2004; Rodriguez et al., 2004). The research indicates that some species of animals, unlike
24   humans, are able to detect magnetic fields at levels that may be associated with transmission
25   lines, and this detection may be important for navigational purposes in particular species such
26   as birds. However, detection does not imply that the fields result in any effects, or that these
27   effects are adverse. The best insight is offered by studies with continuous or semi-continuous
28   exposure to high magnetic field levels under controlled conditions with a non-exposed group
29   for comparison. Several of these studies were conducted on livestock, including cows, sheep
30   and pigs (Stormshak et al., 1992; Lee et al., 1993; Thompson et al., 1995; Burchard et al.,
31   1996; Burchard et al., 1998a,b,c; Burchard et al., 1999; Rodriquez et al., 2002; Burchard et al.,
32   2003; Rodriquez et al., 2003; Burchard et al., 2004; Rodriguez et al., 2004). Overall, there
33   were no significant differences between the animals living with constant, high levels of EMF
34   and the animals with normal EMF exposure. Some differences were reported; however, they
35   were not reported consistently between studies, the changes were still within the range of what
36   is normal, and it did not appear that the changes were adverse in nature or had any ecological
37   significance. Furthermore, studies of small mammals and birds associated with the research
38   programs by the U.S. Navy and the Bonneville Power Administration reported that there were
39   not any changes in the movement patterns of these animals to suggest that they were avoiding
40   areas near high-voltage ROWs, nor were there any physiological changes or alterations in

1   homing behavior (Schreiber et al., 1976; Rogers et al., 1980; Rogers et al., 1981; Rogers et al.,
2   1982; Zapotosky et al., 1996). Reports by two investigators found that commercial honeybees
3   can be impacted by EMF from transmission lines because of a current induced by metal parts
4   on the hive; however, this effect is easily remedied and does not apply to wild bees (Rogers et
5   al., 1980; Greenberg et al., 1981; Rogers et al., 1981; Rogers et al.,1982; Lee et al., 1983;
6   Zapotosky et al., 1996). In summary, the research does not suggest that EMF exposure, or
7   audible noise, would cause any harm to fauna living in the vicinity of high-voltage
8   transmission lines.

9   ## 6.2   Flora

10   Numerous studies have been carried out to assess the possible effects of exposure to
11   transmission-line EMF on plants (Hodges et al., 1975; Bankoske et al., 1976; McKee et al.,
12   1978; Miller et al., 1979; Rogers et al., 1980; Lee and Clark, 1981; Warren et al., 1981; Rogers
13   et al., 1982; Greene 1983; Hilson et al., 1983; Hodges and Mitchell, 1984; Brulfert et al., 1985;
14   Reed and McKee, 1985; Parsch and Norman, 1986; Conti et al., 1989; Krizaj and Valencic
15   1989; Ruzic et al., 1992; Reed et al., 1993; Smith et al., 1993; Mihai et al., 1994; Davies 1996;
16   Zapotosky et al., 1996). These studies have involved both forest species and agriculture crops
17   and have taken place both inside and outside of the laboratory. At the levels of EMF produced
18   by high-voltage transmission lines, researchers have found no adverse effects on plant
19   responses, including seed germination, seedling emergence, seedling growth, leaf area per
20   plant, flowering, seed production, longevity, and biomass production. The only confirmed
21   adverse effect of transmission-line EMF on plants was damage to the tops of plants growing in
22   close proximity to transmission lines with voltages above 1,200-kV. These effects were
23   attributed to corona-induced damage to the branch tip. Furthermore, the trees on or near the
24   ROW would be cleared or trimmed to prevent flash over and other interference.

Glossary

2   **Association** – An association is a measure of how things vary together. They are measured by
3   odds ratios and relative risks. Associations are described as positive or negative. For example,
4   a study may show that persons with coronary artery disease eat fewer vegetables than persons
5   without the disease (i.e., a negative association). Or, persons with coronary artery disease may
6   eat more vegetables than persons without the disease (i.e., a positive association).

7   **Basic restriction** – The basic restriction is the electric field level or current density inside the
8   body that is recommended as a limit to protect exposed populations. The term is used in
9   standards or guidelines that recommend exposure limits.

10   **Bias** – Bias refers to any error in the design, conduct or analysis of a study that results in a
11   distorted estimate of an exposure's effect on the risk of disease. For example, the
12   characteristics of persons selected by telephone calls to participate in a study may not
13   accurately reflect those of the entire community and this can introduce error into the study's
14   findings.

15   **Carcinogenesis** – Carcinogenesis describes the process of the progression of normal cells to
16   cancerous cells.

17   **Causation or cause** – A cause is an exposure or condition of the individual that has been
18   proven through a sound weight-of-evidence review to increase risk of a disease.

19   **Cause-and-effect relationship** – A cause-and-effect relationship between an exposure and a
20   disease is a statistically significant association that is determined through a weight-of-evidence
21   review to be causal in nature.

22   **Case-control study** – A case-control study compares persons without a disease (controls) to
23   persons with a disease (cases) to see if they differ on any factors or exposures of interest.

24   **Case-series** – A study design that analyzes the characteristics of a small group of persons with
25   a disease, with no inclusion of persons without the disease.

26   **Chance** – Chance refers to random sampling variation, like a coincidence. An association can
27   be observed between an exposure and disease that is simply the result of a chance occurrence.

28   **Cluster** – A group of relatively uncommon diseases in space and/or time in amounts that are
29   believed to be greater than what would be expected as a result of chance.

30   **Cohort study** – A cohort study follows a group of people over a long period of time to observe
31   whether the occurrence of disease differs among exposed and unexposed persons in the group.

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1   **Confidence interval** – A confidence interval is a range of values for an estimate of effect that
2   has a specified probability (e.g., 95%) of including the "true" estimate of effect. A 95%
3   confidence interval indicates that, if the study were conducted a very large number of times,
4   95% of the measured estimates would be within the upper and lower confidence limits.

5   **Confounding** – Confounding is a situation in which an association is distorted because the
6   exposure is associated with other risk factors for the disease. For example, a link between
7   coffee drinking in mothers and low birth weight babies has been reported in the past. However,
8   some women who drink coffee also smoke cigarettes. It was found that when the smoking
9   habits of the mothers are taken into account, coffee drinking was not associated with low birth
10 weight babies because of the confounding effect of smoking.

11 **Dose-response assessment/relationship** – Data from scientific research in which a change in
12 amount, intensity, or duration of exposure is associated with a change in risk of a specified
13 outcome. A pattern of a stronger association with increasing exposure, or dose.

14 **Electric fields** – The electric field is a property of a location or point in space and its electrical
15 environment, and describes the forces that would be experienced by a charged body in that
16 space by virtue of its charge. The electric field is expressed in measurement units of volts per
17 meter (V/m) or kilovolts per meter (kV/m); a kilovolt per meter is equal to 1,000 V/m.
18
19 **Electromagnetic spectrum** – The range of wavelengths of electromagnetic energy, including
20 visible light, arranged by frequency. Wavelength decreases with increasing frequency; the ELF
21 range includes the power frequencies of 50/60-Hz.

22 **Epidemiology** – The study of the frequency and distribution of disease and health events in
23 human populations and the factors that contribute to disease and health events.

24 **Etiological** – Etiological means pertaining to the cause of an event or disease.

25 **Extremely low frequency (ELF) fields –** Extremely low frequency refers to electromagnetic
26 fields in the range of 0-300 Hz.

27 **Hazard identification** – The identification of adverse effects on health from a specific
28 exposure based on a weight-of-evidence review of the scientific research.

29 **Hazard ratio** – Comparison of risk or occurrence of an event in two groups that were
30 compared over a time to a specific endpoint or "failure." Hazard ratio is mathematically
31 similar to the relative risk.

32 *In vitro* – Laboratory studies of isolated cells that are artificially maintained in test tubes or
33 culture dishes are called *in vitro* studies, literally "in glass." Researchers expose isolated cells
34 or groups of cells (tissues) to a specific agent under controlled conditions. These studies help
35 explain the mechanisms by which exposures might affect biological processes.

36 *In vivo* – Studies in living animals or experimental studies of processes in whole living
37 organisms are called *in vivo* studies. Scientists expose laboratory animals to a specific agent
38 under controlled conditions and look for effects on body function, measures of health, or

1   disease. Experience has shown that effects in laboratory animals can help to predict effects that
2   occur in people.

3   **Initiation** – The first stage in the development of cancer, initiation typically results from
4   exposure to an agent that can cause mutations in a cell. Initiation is believed to be irreversible,
5   and increases the likelihood of cancer occurring.

6   **Job-exposure matrix** – A job-exposure matrix cross-classifies job titles and exposure
7   estimates. Job-exposure matrices are used to estimate cumulative occupational exposure (e.g.,
8   magnetic field exposure) based on an individual's job history.

9   **Magnetic fields** – The magnetic field is a state of region in space, and describes the forces that
10 would be experienced by a moving charge (or magnetic material) in proportion to its charge
11 and velocity. The strength of magnetic fields is expressed as magnetic flux density in units
12 called gauss (G), or in milligauss (mG), where 1 G = 1,000 mG.

13 **Meta-analysis** – An analytic technique that combines the results of many studies into one
14 summary estimate of the association between a particular exposure and disease.

15 **Multivariate analysis** – In statistics, any analytic method that allows for simultaneous study of
16 two or more dependent variables on an outcome.

17 **Nested case-control study** – A case-control study in which the cases and controls are drawn
18 from a cohort study's population.

19 **Odds ratio** – An odds ratio is a measure of association that describes the ratio of the odds of
20 exposure among persons with a disease to the odds of exposure among persons without a
21 disease. For example, an odds ratio of two would suggest that persons with the disease are two
22 times more likely to have had exposure than persons without the disease.

23 **Participation rate** – A study's participation rate is the number of study subjects who
24 participate in a study divided by the number of eligible subjects.   Eligible subjects that do not
25 participate in the study include study subjects who refuse to participate, study participants who
26 are excluded, and study subjects who fail to complete the study's requirements.

27 **Pooled analysis** – A pooled analysis combines individual-level data across many studies and
28 analyzes the data together to get a summary estimate of the association between a particular
29 exposure and disease.

30 **Precautionary principle** – The precautionary principle refers to the idea that, when evidence
31 does not support the suggestion that an exposure is a cause of a particular disease but where a
32 risk is perceived, precautionary measures may be taken that are proportional to the perceived
33 level of risk, with science as the basis for measuring that risk.

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1   **Promotion –** Promotion is a later stage in cancer development, following initiation. If there is
2   sufficient exposure to the agent, promoters increase the frequency of tumor formation that
3   occurs after initiation.

4   **Reference level** – The reference level is a measurable level of electric or magnetic field outside
5   of the body that is used as a screening value.   It is a practical measure to determine whether the
6   internal level identified as the basic restriction is likely to be exceeded.

7   **Relative risk** – A relative risk is an estimate that compares the risk of disease among persons
8   who are exposed to the risk of disease among persons who are unexposed. For example, a
9   relative risk of two means that that exposed persons in the study are two times more likely to
10 develop the disease than unexposed persons.

11 **Risk characterization** – A quantitative estimation of the likelihood of adverse effects that may
12 result from exposure to a specific agent in a specific situation.

13 **Safety factor** – A multiplicative factor (usually less than 1.0) incorporated into risk
14 assessments or safety standards to allow for unpredictable types of variation, such as variability
15 in responses from test animals to humans or person-to-person variability.

16 **Selection bias** – Selection bias occurs when there are differences in the type of person who
17 participates in the study compared to the type of person who doesn't participate in the study.
18 Selection bias introduces systematic error into a study, and limits the conclusions and
19 generalizations that can be drawn.

20 **Source population –** The population from which the study participants are drawn.

21 **Spot measurement** – A spot measurement is an instantaneous magnetic or electric field
22 reading that is taken at one location as an estimate of exposure.

23 **Statistically significant** – An association is statistically significant if one can conclude (with
24 an established level of confidence using standard statistical tests) that the association is not due
25 to a chance occurrence.

26 **Systematic review** – The identification and review of a body of literature using explicit,
27 thorough, and standardized methods that are designed to reduce bias or errors.

28 **Time-weighted average (TWA)** - The average exposure over a given specified time period
29 (i.e., an 8-hr workday or a 24-hr day) of a person's exposure to a chemical or physical agent.
30 The average is determined by sampling the exposure of interest throughout the time period.

31 **Validity** – An expression meaning the degree to which a measurement reflects what it purports
32 to measure.

33 **Voltage** – Voltage is the difference in electric potential between any two conductors of a
34 circuit. It is the electric 'pressure' that exists between two points and is capable of producing
35 the flow of current through an electrical conductor.

1   **Weight-of-evidence review** – A weight-of-evidence review critically evaluates the strength of
2   the evidence for causality for a particular exposure and disease. It entails a comprehensive
3   assessment of *all* relevant scientific research, in which each of the studies is critically
4   evaluated, and more weight is given to studies of better quality.

5   **Wire code categories** – Wire coding categories are based on a classification system of homes
6   using characteristics of power lines outside the home (e.g., thickness of the wires) and their
7   distances from the home. This information is used to code the homes into categories based on
8   their predicted magnetic field level.

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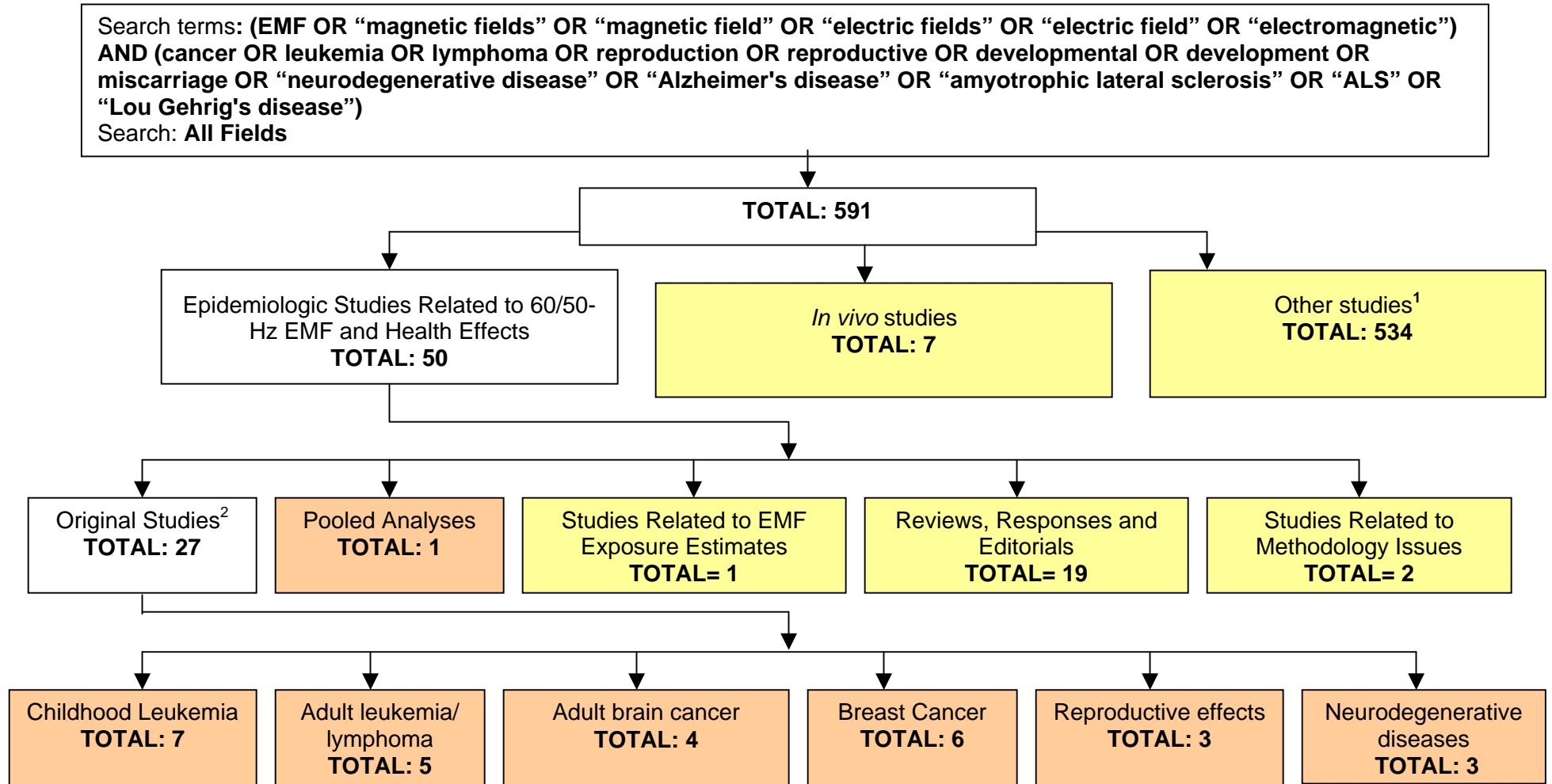36 Pacific Northwest Laboratories. Portland, Oregon. 1981.

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Appendix A - Figure 1.   Structured Literature Review – Epidemiologic Studies Related to 60/50-Hz EMF and Relevant Health Effects

Search terms**: (EMF OR "magnetic fields" OR "magnetic field" OR "electric fields" OR "electric field" OR "electromagnetic") AND (cancer OR leukemia OR lymphoma OR reproduction OR reproductive OR developmental OR development OR miscarriage OR "neurodegenerative disease" OR "Alzheimer's disease" OR "amyotrophic lateral sclerosis" OR "ALS" OR "Lou Gehrig's disease")**
Search: **All Fields**

TOTAL: 591

Epidemiologic Studies Related to 60/50-Hz EMF and Health Effects
TOTAL: 50

In vivo studies
TOTAL: 7

Other studies[1]
TOTAL: 534

Original Studies[2]
TOTAL: 27

Pooled Analyses
TOTAL: 1

Studies Related to EMF Exposure Estimates
TOTAL= 1

Reviews, Responses and Editorials
TOTAL= 19

Studies Related to Methodology Issues
TOTAL= 2

Childhood Leukemia
TOTAL: 7

Adult leukemia/ lymphoma
TOTAL: 5

Adult brain cancer
TOTAL: 4

Breast Cancer
TOTAL: 6

Reproductive effects
TOTAL: 3

Neurodegenerative diseases
TOTAL: 3

[1] This group includes *in vitro* studies and studies looking at other frequencies on the electromagnetic spectrum.

[2] 27 original studies were identified. Two of these studies examined both adult leukemia and nervous system tumors (Johansen et al., 2007; Roosli et al., 2007), and one study examined thyroid cancer and was not considered further (Lope et al., 2006).