

1 **Maternal cell phone use during pregnancy and child behavioral problems in five birth**
2 **cohorts**

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47

48 **ABSTRACT**

49 Introduction: Previous studies have reported associations between prenatal cell phone use and
50 child behavioral problems, but findings have been inconsistent and based on retrospective
51 assessment of cell phone use. This study aimed to assess this association in a multi-national
52 analysis, using data from three cohorts with prospective data on prenatal cell phone use,
53 together with previously published data from two cohorts with retrospectively collected cell
54 phone use data.

55 Methods: We used individual participant data from 83,884 mother-child pairs in the five
56 cohorts from Denmark (1996-2002), Korea (2006-2011), the Netherlands (2003-2004),
57 Norway (2004-2008), and Spain (2003-2008). We categorized cell phone use into none, low,
58 medium, and high, based on frequency of calls during pregnancy reported by the
59 mothers. Child behavioral problems (reported by mothers using the Strengths and Difficulties
60 Questionnaire or Child Behavior Checklist) were classified in the borderline/clinical and
61 clinical ranges using validated cut-offs in children aged 5-7 years. Cohort specific risk
62 estimates were meta-analyzed.

63 Results: Overall, 38.8% of mothers, mostly from the Danish cohort, reported no cell phone
64 use during pregnancy and these mothers were less likely to have a child with overall
65 behavioral, hyperactivity/inattention or emotional problems. Evidence for a trend of
66 increasing risk of child behavioral problems through the maternal cell phone use categories
67 was observed for hyperactivity/inattention problems (OR for problems in the clinical range:

68 1.11, 95%CI 1.01, 1.22; 1.28, 95%CI 1.12, 1.48, among children of medium and high users,
69 respectively). This association was fairly consistent across cohorts and between cohorts with
70 retrospectively and prospectively collected cell phone use data.

71 **Conclusions:** Maternal cell phone use during pregnancy may be associated with an increased
72 risk for behavioral problems, particularly hyperactivity/inattention problems, in the offspring.
73 The interpretation of these results is unclear as uncontrolled confounding may influence both
74 maternal cell phone use and child behavioral problems.

75

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78

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106 1. INTRODUCTION

107 Cell phone use is widespread throughout the world (World Bank, 2014) and radio frequency
108 electromagnetic field (RF-EMF) exposure from cell phone use has been well documented
109 (Cardis et al., 2011). Health consequences regarding this exposure have been researched but
110 strong conclusions are not yet justified (Kostoff and Lau, 2013; Swerdlow, 2012). While short
111 term exposure to RF-EMF is generally considered safe in adults, long term exposure have not
112 been thoroughly explored (World Health Organization, 2002). If long-term RF-EMF exposure
113 does in fact impact human health, there is concern that fetuses or children would be more
114 vulnerable than adults to this potential influence, given the rapid development of neurological
115 and organ systems in early life and the extended exposure over the entire lifespan (Kheifets et
116 al., 2005; Leung et al., 2011). Therefore, cohort studies with prospective data on RF-EMF
117 exposure and neuropsychological development in children have been identified as a high-
118 priority research need (National Research Council, 2008; van Deventer et al., 2011). Some
119 studies in rats or mice have shown that extended RF-EMF exposure in pregnant dams was
120 linked to hyperactivity, altered neurons, or impaired cognition in offspring (Aldad et al., 2012;
121 Haghani et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2015), while another study in rats did not support these
122 findings (Shirai et al., 2014); but the relevance of these studies to human health is not clear.

123 Recently, in a large prospective cohort study, researchers in Denmark produced two
124 independent analyses (n=12,796 and n=28,745) showing that mothers who more often used
125 cell phones (the main sources of RF-EMF exposure to the head) during pregnancy were more
126 likely to have children with behavioral problems at age 7 (Divan et al., 2012, 2008). These
127 results were corroborated in a further analysis (n=51,190) where cell phone use (during
128 pregnancy and at age 7) was associated with emotional and behavioral difficulties at age 11
129 (Sudan et al., 2016). In a smaller sample (n=2,532), researchers in The Netherlands did not

130 find associations between prenatal cell phone use and behavioral problems in children at age 5
131 in their cohort (Guxens et al., 2013), but confidence intervals overlapped with estimates in the
132 Danish analyses (Sudan et al., 2013). A main limitation in both studies was potential recall
133 bias since mothers recalled their prenatal cell phone use when the child was 7 years old.

134 Considering that a true association would have a large health impact worldwide given the
135 ubiquity of cell phones, it is necessary to explore this association among cohorts wherein
136 mothers reported cell phone use prospectively during pregnancy, i.e. long before the onset of
137 any behavioral symptoms in the child. Therefore, the aim of this study was to assess the
138 association between maternal cell phone use during pregnancy and behavioral problems in
139 children ages 5-7 using data from three birth cohorts from Korea, Norway, and Spain where
140 mothers reported cell phone use prospectively at 1st and/or 3rd trimester of pregnancy, together
141 with the data from the Danish and Dutch cohorts where maternal cell phone use during
142 pregnancy was reported retrospectively when children were 7 years old.

143 **2. METHODS**

144 **2.1 Study Population**

145 As part of the Generalized EMF Research using Novel Methods (GERoNiMO) Project
146 (“Generalized EMF research using novel methods,” 2014), five population-based prospective
147 birth cohorts spanning Europe and Asia (Table 1) were harmonized for analysis regarding
148 maternal cell phone use during pregnancy. These were: the Amsterdam Born Children and
149 their Development Study (ABCD) (Eijsden et al., 2011), the Danish National Birth Cohort
150 (DNBC) (Olsen et al., 2001), the Spanish Environment and Childhood Project (INMA)
151 (Guxens et al., 2012), the Norwegian Mother and Child Cohort Study (MoBa) (Magnus et al.,
152 2006), and the Korean Mothers and Children’s Environment Health Study (MOCEH) (Kim et

153 al., 2009). Informed consent was obtained from all participants in accordance with each
154 study's institutional review board or ethics committee. Enrollment in the five cohorts spanned
155 1996-2011 with more than 190,000 mother-child pairs (Table 1). Across

Table 1. Description of participating birth cohorts, exposures, and outcomes in analysis

Cohort	Location	Enrollment		Cell phone use during pregnancy		Behavioral problems			N included in analysis ^a
		Time period	N	Time of collection	N collected	Assessment	Age at assessment	N collected	
ABCD	The Netherlands	2003-2004	8,266	Postnatal 7 years	2,611	SDQ	5 years	4,511	2,420
DNBC	Denmark	1996-2002	91,661	Postnatal 7 years	50,040	SDQ	7 years	54,907	50,039
INMA	Spain	2003-2008	2,270	Pregnancy	1,993	SDQ	4-7 years	1,288	1,205
MoBa	Norway	2004-2008	93,891	Pregnancy	93,891	Adapted CBCL	5 years	32,587	29,720
MOCEH	Korea	2006-2011	1,751	Pregnancy	1,435	CBCL	5 years	500	500
Total N			197,839		149,970			93,793	83,884

157 Abbreviations: CBCL, child behavior checklist; SDQ, strengths and difficulties questionnaire.

158 ^aWith data on cell phone use and behavioral problems

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Table 2: Maternal cell phone use during pregnancy by cohort [% (n)]

Categorization used in analysis		Netherlands	Denmark	Spain ^a	Norway		Korea ^a		Total
None	none	6.7 (163)	60.8 (30,419)	2.9 (35)	Seldom/ never ^b	6.5 (1,938)	none	0.8 (4)	38.8 (32,564)
Low (reference)	0-1 calls/day	43.4 (1,051)	21.9 (10,947)	37.6 (451)	A few times a week	38.9 (11,572)	1-2 calls/day	17.5 (85)	28.7 (24,191)
Medium	2-3 calls/day	27.4 (662)	12.4 (6,207)	38.3 (459)	Daily	50.0 (14,855)	3-5 calls/day	52.0 (253)	26.8 (22,518)
High	4 calls or more/day	22.5 (544)	4.9 (2,466)	21.3 (255)	More than an hour a day	4.6 (1,355)	6 or more calls/day	29.8 (145)	5.7 (4,804)

^aIn the INMA and MOCEH cohorts, 5 and 13 women, respectively, reported using a cell phone during pregnancy but did not report frequency and therefore were excluded from frequency of calls analyses.

^bSeldom/never was the lowest call frequency category collected in the MoBa cohort.

160 all cohorts, 83,884 mother-child pairs met our inclusion criteria of having information on
161 frequency of maternal cell phone use during pregnancy and having collected a behavioral
162 assessment of the child at 5-7 years (Table 1).

163 **2.2 Maternal cell phone use during pregnancy**

164 When children were 7 years old in the Dutch and Danish cohorts, mothers were asked to
165 recall frequency of cell phone use during pregnancy. In Spain, Norway, and Korea, mothers
166 were asked during pregnancy to report frequency of cell phone use (Table 1). In each cohort,
167 questionnaires captured frequency of maternal cell phone use using different questions and
168 number of calls categorization (Table 2 and Supplemental Table S1). Mothers in the Dutch
169 cohort were also asked to recall cordless phone use during pregnancy. For the purpose of this
170 study, we created a frequency of use variable (none, low, medium, and high) to classify
171 maternal cell phone use during pregnancy in all cohorts (Table 2). We created the same
172 categories for maternal cordless phone use during pregnancy. The creation of these
173 classifications was blind to child behavioral problems.

174 **2.3 Behavioral problems**

175 In all cohorts, overall behavioral problems, hyperactivity/inattention problems, and emotional
176 problems were assessed. In the Danish, Dutch, and Spanish cohorts, child behavioral
177 problems were assessed by using the parental Strength and Difficulties Questionnaire (SDQ)
178 (Goodman, 1997) at ages 5-7, depending on cohort (Table 1). The SDQ is a short screening
179 form, in this case completed by parents, consisting of 25 items with 5 for each dimension:
180 emotional problems, conduct problems, hyperactivity/inattention problems, peer/social
181 problems, and pro-social behavior (Goodman, 1997). Each item has a scaled response (very
182 true, partly true, not true). Each dimension yields a score, and summation of 4 dimensions
183 (pro-social behavior is excluded) yields an overall behavior difficulties score (Goodman,

184 1997). In the Spanish cohort, hyperactivity/inattention problems were also assessed by
185 teachers at 5 years using the Attention Deficit and Hyperactivity Disorder criteria of the
186 Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-IV (ADHD DSM-IV) (American
187 Academy of Pediatrics, 2004). The ADHD DSM-IV consists of 18 symptoms, nine for
188 inattention and nine for hyperactivity/impulsivity. Each symptom is rated on a 4-point scale
189 (never or rarely, sometimes, often, or very often) (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2004).
190 For the Spanish cohort, the SDQ assessment was used in our main analysis to be comparable
191 with other cohorts, while the ADHD DSM-IV was used for a sensitivity analysis.

192

193 In the Korean cohort, children's behavioral problems were assessed at 5 years by the parental
194 Child Behavior Checklist (CBCL) (Achenbach, 2011). The CBCL is a standardized form that
195 parents fill out to describe their children's behavioral and emotional problems. The version
196 for ages 1½ to 5 years includes 99 competence items and problems, asking the parent to
197 indicate how each item applies to the child (not true, somewhat or sometimes true, and very
198 true or often true) (Achenbach, 2011). The CBCL's questions are associated with various
199 disorders from the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-IV-TR)
200 (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2004) and syndrome scales, including overall behavioral
201 problems, hyperactivity/inattention problems, and emotional problems. The Norwegian
202 cohort used an adapted 25-item version of the CBCL with selected items of five subscales of
203 the full CBCL (Garthus-Niegel et al., 2010). In this adapted CBCL, almost all items from the
204 complete CBCL are present for the attention deficit/hyperactivity problems subscale. After
205 administering this shorter CBCL from years 2004-2009, in 2010 MoBa added two items to
206 this adapted version in order to complete the anxious/depressed subscale to assess emotional
207 problems.

208 For all tests, higher scores indicated more behavioral problems. For cohorts in the
209 Netherlands, Denmark, Spain, and Korea we used validated cut-offs to yield proxies for
210 overall behavioral problems, hyperactivity/inattention problems, and emotional problems
211 within the borderline/clinical range and within the clinical range only, specific for each test
212 (Achenbach, 2011; American Academy of Pediatrics, 2004; Goodman, 1997) (Supplemental
213 Table S2). For Norway's adapted version of the CBCL we applied the cohort's 93rd and 98th
214 percentiles as cut-off scores to classify children with overall problems,
215 hyperactivity/inattention problems and anxious/depressed problems (from here on referred to
216 as emotional problems) within the borderline/clinical range and the clinical range,
217 respectively (Supplemental Table S2). These percentile cutoffs were chosen based on the
218 expected prevalence in the population if the full CBCL had been used, as the score cutoffs for
219 the full CBCL are designed to select the 93rd and 98th percentiles (Achenbach, 2011).

220 **2.4 Covariate data**

221 Covariate information was collected in all cohorts during pregnancy or after birth through
222 questionnaires or medical registries. Covariates for this analysis were identified based on
223 previous studies (Divan et al., 2012, 2008; Guxens et al., 2013; Sudan et al., 2016). Covariates
224 included age of child at time of assessment, geographical region (in Spain and Korea where
225 this was heterogeneous), and the following maternal characteristics: age at birth, parity,
226 country of birth (in the Netherlands, Denmark, and Spain where this was heterogeneous),
227 marital status during pregnancy (living with the father or living alone), education (highest
228 level completed: primary, secondary, university or higher), history of psychopathology
229 (defined within cohorts, Supplemental Table S3), smoking during pregnancy (yes or no),
230 secondhand smoking during pregnancy (defined within cohorts, Supplemental Table S4)

231 alcohol consumption during pregnancy (yes or no), pre-pregnancy body mass index (BMI),
232 and height.

233 **2.5 Statistical Analysis**

234 Differences in covariates between included and not-included subjects were compared using
235 chi-square test or Student's t-test. Among children with available data on exposure and
236 outcome variables (n=83,884), we performed multiple imputation of missing covariate values
237 using chained equations where 15 completed datasets were generated and analyzed using the
238 standard combination rules for multiple imputation (Graham et al., 2007; Sterne et al., 2009).
239 Distributions in imputed datasets were very similar to those observed (data not shown).

240 Maternal and child characteristics according to categories of the prenatal cell phone use were
241 described using means (standard deviation) or proportions, with chi-square or ANOVA tests
242 applied.

243 For behavioral problems scores, we used the SDQ for the Danish, Dutch and Spanish cohorts
244 and the CBCL and adapted CBCL for Korea and Norway, respectively. Logistic regression
245 models were used in order to examine the association between prenatal cell phone use and
246 each one of the child behavior problem scales (normal vs. borderline/clinical range and
247 normal vs. clinical range). We considered mothers that were low cell phone users during
248 pregnancy as the reference category since only a small proportion of mothers reported no cell
249 phone use in all cohorts, except Denmark.

250 First, models were adjusted for child's age at time of behavioral assessment (minimally-
251 adjusted models). Then, models were additionally adjusted for all the potential confounding
252 variables described above (fully-adjusted models). Cohort specific risk estimates were then
253 meta-analyzed and evaluated for heterogeneity using the Q test and the I^2 statistic (Higgins et

254 al., 2003; Thompson and Sharp, 1999). If estimates were heterogeneous (Cochran's Q test
255 $p < 0.05$ and/or $I^2 \geq 25\%$), random effects analysis was used.

256 We performed the following sensitivity analyses: i) meta-analysis excluding one cohort at a
257 time to determine the influence of a particular cohort, ii) meta-analysis of associations among
258 mothers who were very high cell phone users (10 or more calls a day in the Netherlands and
259 Spain, 11 or more calls a day in Korea) during pregnancy in cohorts where this data was
260 available (the Netherlands, Korea, and Spain), iii) meta-analysis of no prenatal cell phone use
261 in the mother versus any prenatal cell phone use and behavioral problems in children, iv)
262 meta-analysis stratified by timing of maternal cell phone use data collection (prospectively vs
263 retrospectively), v) analysis of cohort specific associations in the Dutch cohort of maternal
264 cordless phone use during pregnancy and behavioral problems , vi) analysis of cohort specific
265 associations in the Spanish cohort using Attention Deficit and Hyperactivity Disorder criteria
266 of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-IV (ADHD DSM-IV)
267 (American Academy of Pediatrics, 2004) to assess hyperactivity/inattention problems instead
268 of the SDQ, vii) and analysis of children born from 1996-2004 and those born from 2005-
269 2011 to investigate possible time trends in cell phone use and behavioral problems.

270 All analyses were performed using Stata 14 statistical software (Stata Corporation, College
271 Station, Texas). Data from all cohorts was sent to and analyzed at ISGlobal, except those from
272 the Norwegian cohort which was analyzed onsite in Norway and summary results sent to
273 ISGlobal for the joint meta-analysis. A consensus protocol was followed for all the analyses.

274 **3. RESULTS**

275 Compared with excluded mothers (those with cell phone use or child's behavioral problems
276 missing), mothers included in the present analysis were generally older, more often

277 primiparous, more often had university education or higher, and were generally taller (data
278 not shown). In the Norwegian cohort, mothers of children with the CBCL including the
279 emotional subscale versus mothers of those without had higher education, were less likely to
280 smoke or use alcohol and had lower BMI (data not shown).

281 In this study population of 83,884 mother-child pairs, 6.6% of children scored for having
282 overall behavioral problems in the borderline/clinical range with 2.7% scoring within the
283 clinical range (Table 3). For hyperactivity/inattention problems, 8.3% and 4.1% of children
284 scored within the borderline/clinical range and clinical range, respectively. For emotional
285 problems, 12.0% of children scored within the borderline/clinical range and 6.0% scored
286 within the clinical range.

287 Overall, 38.8% of mothers reported no cell phone use during pregnancy (Table 2). This was
288 largely driven by 30,419 mothers in the Danish cohort reporting no cell phone use (60.8%),
289 due to recruitment period that started prior to ubiquitous use of cell phones. Other use
290 categories were classified as low or medium frequency cell phone users during pregnancy
291 with 28.7% of mothers classified as low and 26.8% classified as medium. The remaining
292 5.7% of mothers were classified as high frequency cell phone users.

293 For overall behavioral problems, hyperactivity/inattention problems, and emotional problems
294 within the borderline/clinical range and clinical range, non-users were at a lower risk than low
295 cell phone users (OR 0.76 95%CI 0.68, 0.87 for overall behavioral problems within the
296 clinical range) (Table 4). For hyperactivity/inattention problems within the borderline/clinical
297 and clinical ranges, mothers who were medium or high cell phone users during pregnancy
298 were at higher risk compared to low cell phone users (medium users: OR 1.07 95%CI 1.00,
299 1.14 and OR 1.11 95%CI 1.01, 1.22; high users: OR 1.24 95%CI 1.12, 1.37 and OR 1.28

300 95%CI 1.12, 1.48 for hyperactivity/inattention problems in the borderline/clinical and clinical
301 ranges, respectively) (Table 4, Figure 1). This resulted in trends of increasing risk for
302 hyperactivity/inattention problems through the cell phone categories (p for trend <0.001 for
303 problems within borderline/clinical and clinical ranges, Supplemental Table S5). For overall
304 behavioral problems this comparison of risk between high and low users did not reach
305 statistical significance (OR 1.24 95%CI 0.92, 1.67 for overall behavioral problems within
306 clinical range) (Table 4, Figure 2) nor did the trend (Supplemental Table S5). For emotional
307 problems, high cell phone users were at an increased risk in DNBC, but a decreased risk in
308 Norway (Figure 3), giving rise to heterogeneity between cohorts (Cochran's Q test $p < 0.05$
309 and/or $I^2 \geq 25\%$) and no increase in the risk of these problems in the meta-analysis result
310 (Table 4, Figure 3). None of the other heterogeneous associations were statistically
311 significant. For forest plots not shown here, please see supplemental figures for all other fully
312 adjusted associations (Supplemental Figures 1-15).

Table 3: Child behavioral problems within borderline and clinical ranges among cohorts [% (n)]

Cohort	Assessment	n	Overall problems		Hyperactivity/inattention problems		Emotional problems ^a	
			borderline/ range	clinical range	borderline/ clinical range	clinical range	borderline/ clinical range	clinical range
Netherlands	SDQ	2,420	3.2 (77)	1.5 (36)	7.9 (192)	4.4 (107)	4.0 (97)	2.1 (50)
Denmark	SDQ	50,039	6.3 (3,141)	3.0 (1,511)	8.6 (4,312)	5.1 (2,555)	13.9 (6,945)	7.4 (3,706)
Spain	SDQ	1,205	16.9 (204)	8.5 (103)	25.1 (302)	15.5 (187)	18.3 (220)	9.9 (119)
Norway	CBCL ^b	29,720	7.0 (2,080)	2.0 (594)	7.0 (2,080)	2.0 (594)	7.0 (1,136)	2.0 (324)
Korea	CBCL	500	8.0 (40)	3.6 (18)	7.2 (36)	2.0 (10)	9.6 (48)	1.8 (9)
Total			6.6 (5,542)	2.7 (2,262)	8.3 (6,922)	4.1 (3,453)	12.0 (8,446)	6.0 (4,208)

Abbreviations: CBCL, child behavior checklist; SDQ, strength and difficulties questionnaire.

^aNorway cohort collected this subscale only for subset of n=16,229.

^bNorway cohort administered adapted version of CBCL

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Table 4: Meta-analyses of maternal cell phone use during pregnancy and associations with behavioral problems in children ages 5-7 in five cohorts

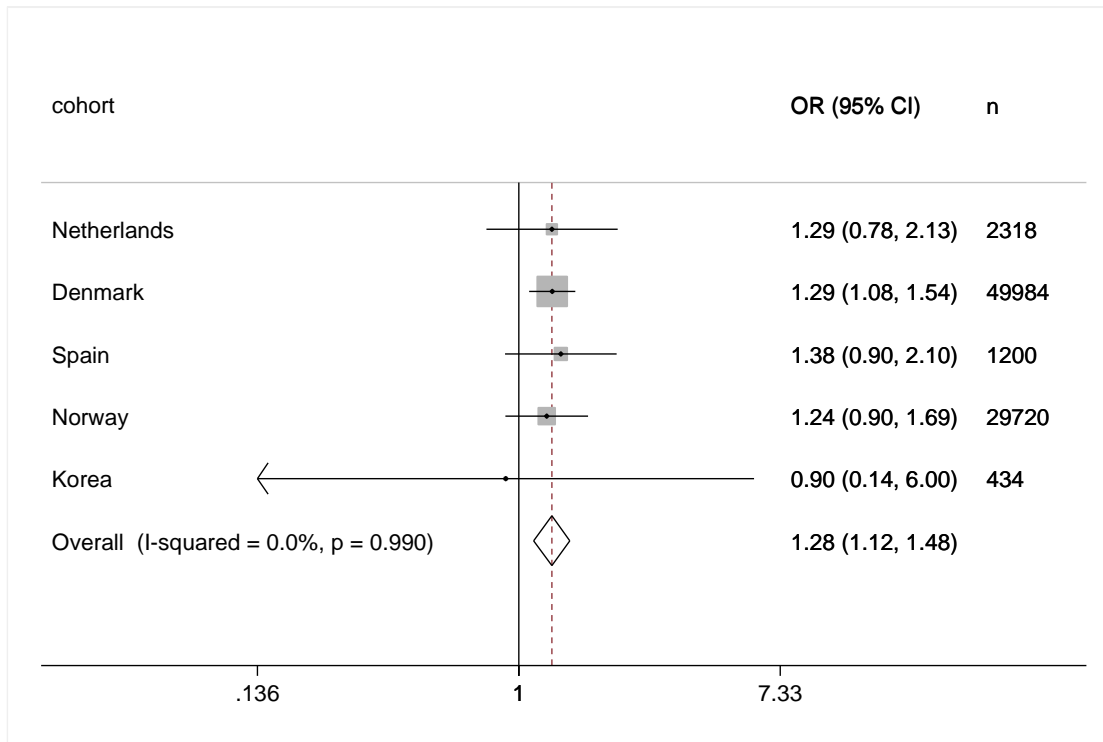
Behavioral problems	Frequency of maternal cell phone use during pregnancy	OR (95%CI) for problems within the borderline/clinical range		OR (95%CI) for problems within the clinical range			
		cases	minimally adjusted ^a	fully adjusted ^b	cases	minimally adjusted ^a	fully adjusted ^b
Overall problems	None	1,690	0.77 (0.70, 0.83)	0.82 (0.75, 0.89)	755	0.78 (0.58, 1.05) ^c	0.76 (0.68, 0.87)
	Low	1,621	ref	ref	628	ref	ref
	medium	1,726	1.02 (0.82, 1.28) ^c	1.03 (0.91, 1.16) ^c	632	1.17 (0.94, 1.45) ^c	1.07 (0.95, 1.21)
	High	436	1.09 (0.75, 1.60) ^c	1.10 (0.81, 1.50) ^c	203	1.25 (0.86, 1.82) ^c	1.24 (0.92, 1.67) ^c
Hyperactivity/inattention problems	None	2,495	0.83 (0.78, 0.89)	0.87 (0.81, 0.93)	1,407	0.82 (0.75, 0.90)	0.87 (0.79, 0.96)
	Low	2,252	ref	ref	993	ref	ref
	medium	2,425	1.11 (1.00, 1.23) ^c	1.07 (1.00, 1.14)	992	1.19 (1.09, 1.31)	1.11 (1.01, 1.22)
	High	604	1.31 (1.18, 1.44)	1.24 (1.12, 1.37)	317	1.39 (1.21, 1.59)	1.28 (1.12, 1.48)
Emotional problems	None	3,893	0.81 (0.76, 0.86)	0.89 (0.84, 0.95)	1,980	0.87 (0.62, 1.21) ^c	0.84 (0.78, 0.92)
	low	2,411	ref	ref	1,165	ref	ref
	medium	2,304	1.04 (0.93, 1.16) ^c	1.00 (0.90, 1.11) ^c	984	1.07 (0.98, 1.18)	1.01 (0.92, 1.10)
	high	621	0.99 (0.81, 1.22) ^c	1.00 (0.84, 1.19) ^c	331	1.02 (0.70, 1.47) ^c	1.03 (0.73, 1.44) ^c

^aModels adjusted for age of child at behavior assessment

^bModels adjusted for age of child at behavior assessment, region (where applicable) and the following maternal characteristics: age at birth, parity, country of origin (where applicable), marital status during pregnancy, education, history of psychopathology, smoking during pregnancy, secondhand smoking during pregnancy, alcohol consumption during pregnancy, pre-pregnancy BMI, and height. Missing covariates have been imputed.

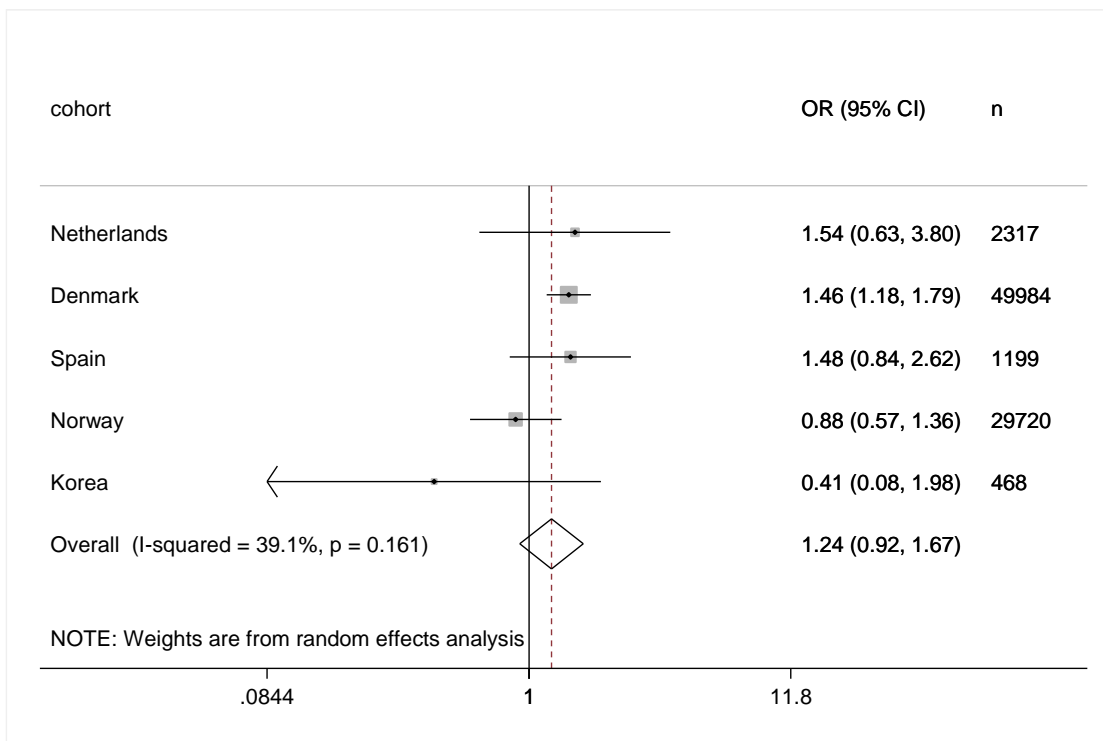
^cHeterogeneity existed among cohorts (Cochran's Q test $p < 0.05$ and/or $I^2 \geq 25\%$), weights are from random effects analysis.

Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval; OR, odds ratio; ref, reference category.



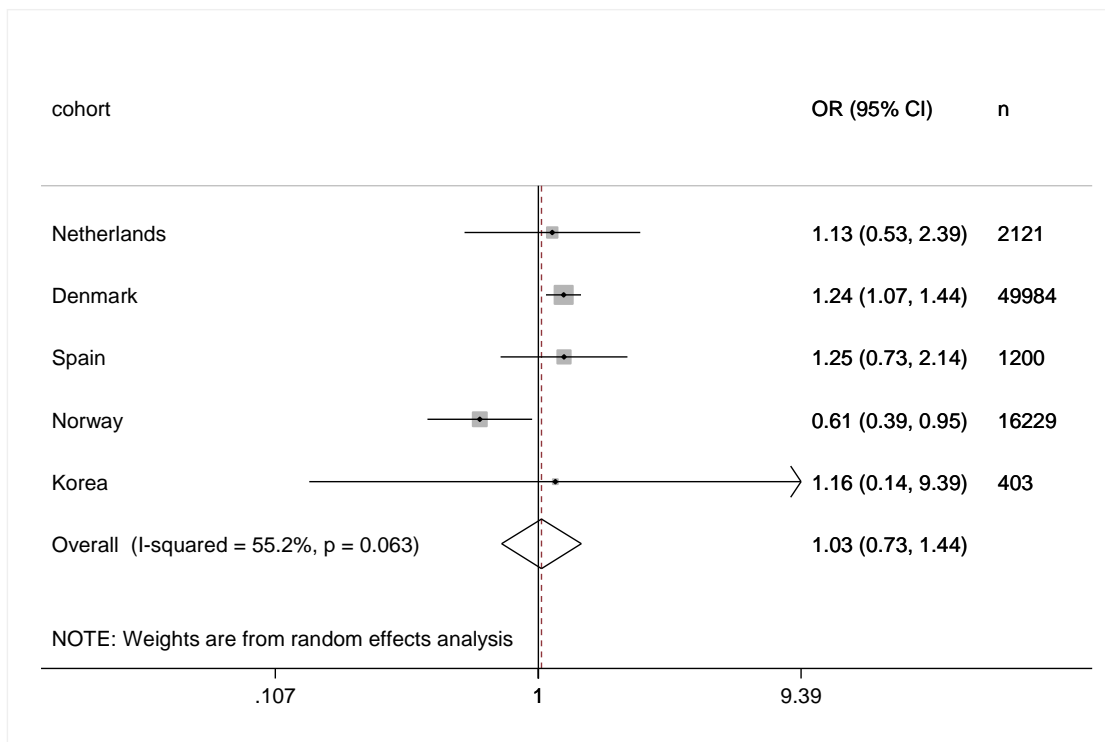
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321 Figure 1: Meta-analysis of high frequency maternal cell phone use during pregnancy and risk for hyperactivity/inattention
 322 problems within the clinical range in children ages 5-7, as compared to low frequency maternal cell phone use.



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324 Figure 2: Meta-analysis of high frequency maternal cell phone use during pregnancy and risk for overall behavioral
 325 problems within the clinical range in children ages 5-7, as compared to low frequency maternal cell phone use.
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329 Figure 3: Meta-analysis of high frequency maternal cell phone use during pregnancy and risk for emotional problems within
 330 the clinical range in children ages 5-7, as compared to low frequency maternal cell phone use.

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332 Sensitivity analysis revealed that when excluding Denmark (the largest cohort with the largest
 333 proportion of non-users) from the main analysis, the reduced effect estimate remained among
 334 mothers who reported no cell phone use during pregnancy but lost statistical significance;
 335 while ORs remained significant for hyperactivity/inattention problems in the
 336 borderline/clinical and clinical ranges among children of high users (Supplemental Table S6).
 337 When excluding the Norwegian cohort, ORs became statistically significant for overall
 338 clinical behavioral problems and emotional clinical problems among high users and
 339 heterogeneity disappeared. Children of very high cell phone users (10 or more calls/day in
 340 cohorts the Netherlands, Spain, and 11 or more calls/day in Korea, where this data was
 341 available) had the highest risk for both overall and hyperactivity/inattention problems (ORs
 342 ranging from 1.30 to 1.73), but the estimates were not statistically significant (Supplemental

343 Table S7). Comparing no cell phone use to any cell phone use during pregnancy, we found a
344 statistically significant risk for overall behavioral problems, hyperactivity/inattention
345 problems, and emotional problems; but after excluding Denmark, this risk only remained
346 statistically significant for hyperactivity/inattention problems (Supplemental Table S8). In
347 sensitivity analysis stratified by timing of maternal cell phone use data collection
348 (prospectively *vs* retrospectively), prospectively collected data had fewer statistically
349 significant results (Figures 4A & 4B, Supplemental Table S9).

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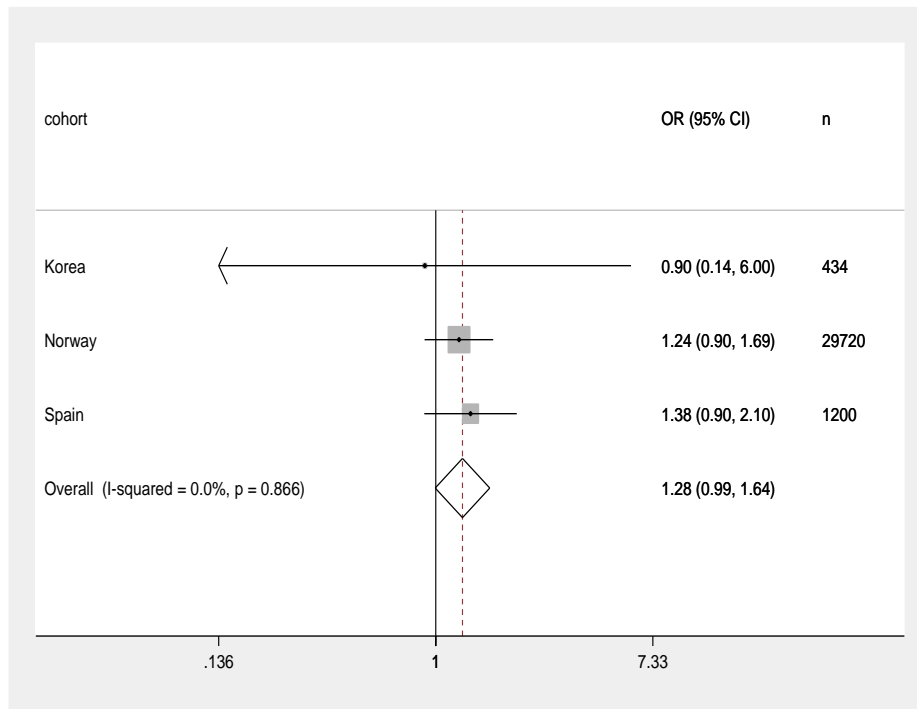
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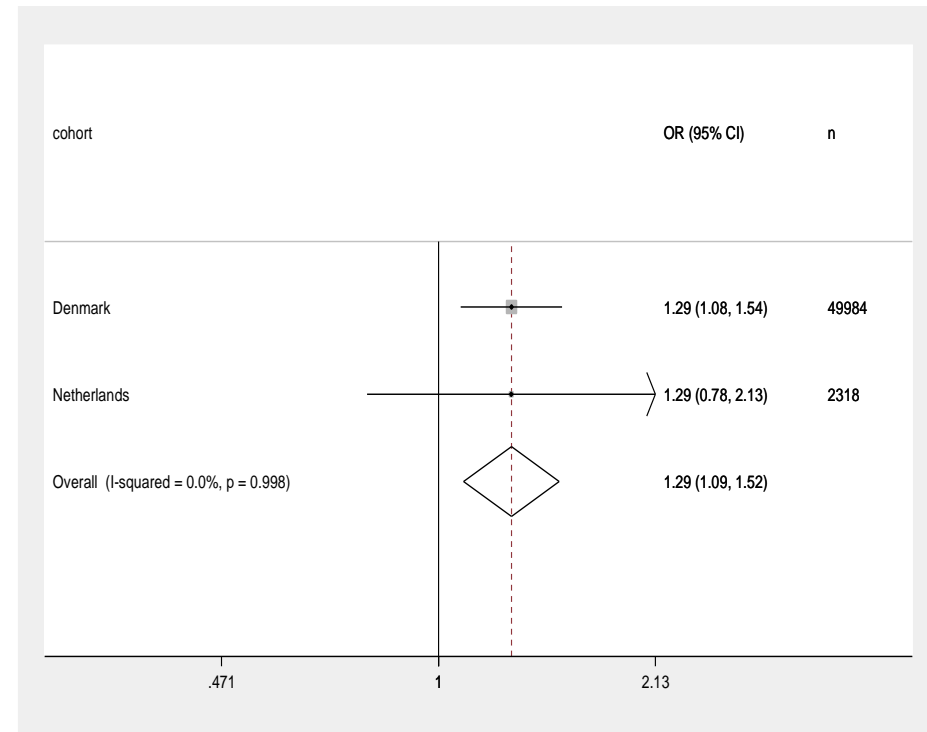


364 Figure 4A: Meta-analysis of high frequency maternal cell phone use during pregnancy and risk for
 365 hyperactivity problems within the clinical range in children ages 5-7, as compared to low frequency
 366 maternal cell phone use in cohorts where cell phone data was collected prospectively.

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367 Figure 4B: Meta-analysis of high frequency maternal cell phone use during pregnancy and risk for
 368 hyperactivity problems within the clinical range in children ages 5-7, as compared to low frequency
 369 maternal cell phone use in cohorts where cell phone data was collected retrospectively.

373 In analysis of cordless phone use in the Dutch cohort, we found children of mothers who were
374 high cell phone users or high cordless phone users had similar cohort specific risks for
375 hyperactivity/inattention problems. Children of mothers who did not use cordless phones had
376 high risks for all outcomes (Supplemental Table S10). In analyses of risk for
377 hyperactivity/inattention problems in the Spanish cohort as assessed by the ADHD-DSM-IV
378 tool, risks among high cell phone users were consistent with cohort specific results regarding
379 risk for hyperactivity/inattention as scored by the SDQ (Supplemental Table S11). In analyses
380 of children born 1996-2004 and those born 2005-2011, risk for hyperactivity/inattention
381 problems was slightly diminished among children born later (2005-2011). However the
382 reduced risk for overall or hyperactivity/inattention problems among children of non-users
383 was persistent during both time periods (Supplemental Table S12). For a summary of
384 sensitivity analysis results regarding hyperactivity/inattention problems in the clinical range,
385 see Table 5.

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Table 5: Summary of sensitivity analyses for risk of hyperactivity/inattention problems in the clinical range for children among mothers who were high cell phone users during pregnancy compared to low users^a

Analysis	Number of cases with high cell phone use ^b	Fully adjusted OR (95% CI) among high cell phone users ^b
All cohorts - main analysis	317	1.28 (1.12, 1.48)
<i>Excluding one cohort at a time:</i>		
Excluding Netherlands	286	1.28 (1.11, 1.48)
Excluding Denmark	130	1.28 (1.02, 1.60)
Excluding Spain	269	1.27 (1.10, 1.48)
Excluding Norway	269	1.30 (1.11, 1.51)
Excluding Korea	314	1.29 (1.12, 1.48)
<i>By timing of cell phone use data collection:</i>		
Prospective (Spain, Norway, Korea)	99	1.28 (0.99, 1.64)
Retrospective (Netherlands, Denmark)	218	1.29 (1.09, 1.52)
<i>By years of birth:</i>		
1996-2004 (Netherlands, Denmark, part Spain, part Norway)	234	1.34 (1.14, 1.57)
2005-2011 (part Spain, part Norway, Korea)	83	1.17 (0.88, 1.54)
<i>Very high cell phone use versus low cell phone use (Netherlands, Spain, and Korea)</i>		
	78	1.55 (0.94, 2.56)
<i>Any cell phone use versus no cell phone use</i>		
	2,302	1.24 (1.14, 1.34)

^aAll models adjusted for age of child at behavioral assessment, region (where applicable) and the following maternal characteristics: age at birth, parity, country of birth (where applicable), marital status during pregnancy, education, history of psychopathology, smoking during pregnancy, secondhand smoking during pregnancy, alcohol consumption during pregnancy, pre-pregnancy BMI, and height. Missing covariates have been imputed.

^bExcept in the analyses of very high cell phone use versus low cell phone use and any cell phone use versus no cell phone use.

395

396 4. DISCUSSION

397 In this meta-analysis of individual participant data among five birth cohorts, children whose
 398 mothers did not use cell phones during pregnancy had a lower risk of overall behavioral
 399 problems, hyperactivity/inattention problems, and emotional problems. Increased use of cell
 400 phones during pregnancy was associated with increased risk for hyperactivity/inattention
 401 problems in offspring. The association for hyperactivity/inattention problems was fairly
 402 consistent across cohorts and was observed both in cohorts with retrospective assessment of
 403 cell phone use and in those with prospective assessment.

404 The increased risks observed in cell phone users compared to non-users are in line with
405 previous studies published using data from the Danish and Dutch cohorts (Divan et al., 2012,
406 2008; Guxens et al., 2013; Sudan et al., 2016), though results from the previous Dutch study
407 were not statistically significant. In our study, the group of pregnant women who did not use
408 cell phones during pregnancy largely consisted of mothers from Denmark (93% of non-users).
409 This makes sense, as the Danish cohort is the oldest, beginning enrollment in 1996 and ending
410 in 2002, before cell phones were as ubiquitous as they are today. During those years, cell
411 phone users in Denmark were more likely to be younger and have less education, while in
412 later cohorts this trend was reversed (Supplemental Table S13). In sensitivity analyses without
413 Denmark, cell phone users were still at an increased risk at a similar magnitude for overall
414 problems and hyperactivity/inattention problems in children, but statistical significance was
415 only maintained among high users. In a previous publication from the Danish cohort, authors
416 explored the possibility that cell phone use was indicative of a mother's inattention to the
417 child and used proxy measures (breastfeeding, hours per day spent with child, hours per day
418 that child spent in daycare) to capture attentiveness, but accounting for these factors did not
419 diminish associations between prenatal cell phone use and behavioral problems (Divan et al.,
420 2012). It has also been proposed that recall bias in the mother could influence this association,
421 but in our sensitivity analysis the increased risk among cell phone users was still present at a
422 similar magnitude, though borderline statistically significant, for overall problems and
423 hyperactivity/inattention problems in cohorts where cell phone use data was collected
424 prospectively (at time of pregnancy).

425 Pregnant women who were medium and high frequency cell phone users during pregnancy
426 were more likely to have a child with hyperactivity/inattention problems within both
427 borderline/clinical and clinical ranges. In a 2008 study with Danish data, an increase in risk

428 for hyperactivity was also found among mothers who used cell phones ever during pregnancy
429 (Divan et al., 2008). In Guxens et al.'s analysis of the Dutch cohort, the main analysis
430 reported no associations with hyperactivity/inattention problems, but supplemental materials
431 showed an increased risk for hyperactivity/inattention problems within the borderline/clinical
432 range among prenatal cell phone users making five or more calls per day, without statistical
433 significance (Guxens et al., 2013). Similarity of results for hyperactivity/inattention problems
434 across cohorts with retrospective and prospective data collection indicates that biased recall of
435 cell phone use is an unlikely explanation of the association, though the association in cohorts
436 with prospective data collection was borderline statistically significant. Further, this
437 association was hardly influenced by the one-by-one exclusion of cohorts (ORs for clinical
438 hyperactivity/inattention problems ranging between 1.27 and 1.30), indicating that cohort-
439 specific biases are unlikely to explain the overall result. In the Spanish cohort, prevalences of
440 hyperactivity/inattention problems within borderline/clinical and clinical ranges were
441 particularly high. Past studies evaluating SDQ scores in Spanish children have shown similar
442 results (Marzocchi et al., 2004; 2011), and found that cross-national differences in SDQ
443 scores do not actually reflect differences in rates of disorders (Goodman et al., 2012).
444 However, sensitivity analysis revealed that even when hyperactivity/inattention was assessed
445 more strictly using the ADHD-DSM-IV administered by teachers, borderline/clinical and
446 clinical prevalences were cut in half but cohort specific associations with high cell phone use
447 remained the same.

448 The interpretation of our results is as yet unclear, mainly due to the small RF-EMF exposure
449 expected to reach the fetus from maternal cell phone use and to the potential presence of
450 residual confounding. Firstly, specific absorption rate (SAR) models indicate that RF-EMF
451 from the mother holding the cell phone to her head or near the body would only result in very

452 low SAR levels to reach the fetus (below the basic restriction of 0.08 W kg^{-1})(Varsier et al.,
453 2014); and these SAR models vary depending on pregnancy stage and position of the fetus,
454 relying on many assumptions and extrapolations (Dimbylow, 2007; Dimbylow et al., 2009;
455 Varsier et al., 2014). Also, RF-EMF exposure to the fetus could depend on where the mother
456 carries her cell phone (Sudan et al., 2016), data which was not available for this analysis.
457 Secondly, RF-EMF is also emitted from cordless phones, therefore it has been argued that
458 similar associations should be seen in children of high cordless phone users if the association
459 were due to RF-EMF exposure in the mother (Guxens et al., 2013; Swerdlow, 2012).
460 However, it should be noted that 1) cordless phone users also use cell phones; 2) RF-EMF
461 emitted from cordless phones is comparable to that from third generation (3G) phones, but
462 lower than that emitted from second generation (2G) phones (Cardis et al., 2011; Schüz et al.,
463 2006), which were used by the vast majority of pregnant women in this study (pregnancies
464 through 2008, (Cardis et al., 2011)); and 3) cordless phone use habits should be expected to
465 differ from cell phone use habits, such as longer duration of calls, possibly resulting in higher
466 overall exposure per call. Therefore comparisons of cell phone use with cordless phone use
467 should be approached with caution. Nevertheless, sensitivity analysis in the Dutch cohort
468 revealed similar cohort specific coefficients for hyperactivity/inattention problems among
469 children of high prenatal cordless phone users. Curiously, children of mothers who did not use
470 cordless phones saw the same increased risk for hyperactivity/inattention problems and very
471 high risk for overall behavioral problems. We cannot explain this finding, but we should note
472 that 25% of non-cordless phone users included high cell phone users, again cautioning the
473 interpretation of this sensitivity analysis. Furthermore, researchers in the Danish cohort found
474 evidence that childhood (postnatal) cell phone use is linked to behavioral problems, but more
475 so for older children (11 years) and less for the age group in our study (5-7 years) (Sudan et

476 al., 2016). Indeed, very few children in this age group use phones, with recent data showing
477 less than 10% of children with cell phone ownership at age 7 (GSM Association et al., 2015).
478 Therefore, childhood cell phone use was not used in our models. Finally, there is concern that
479 over time both cell phone use and prevalence of child behavioral problems have increased
480 (Sudan et al., 2013), introducing a bias in our results. In fact, the sensitivity analysis of
481 children born earlier (1996-2004) versus later (2005-2011) found that the reduced risk for
482 overall behavioral and hyperactivity/inattention problems among children of non-users was
483 consistent during both time periods, while increased risk for hyperactivity/inattention
484 problems for children of high users was slightly diminished in later years. We suspect that this
485 is due to a dilution of our exposure assessment, since in more recent years, exposure to other
486 sources of RF-EMF such as nearby cell phone users, wifi networks, or newly constructed cell
487 phone base stations, would be more likely. Confounding by various unmeasured factors could
488 explain our findings. The factors linked to maternal cell phone use (pre and postnatally) and
489 behavioral problems in the child are numerous and complex. One important aspect, parenting
490 style, could account for some of these factors, capturing parental responsiveness and
491 demandingness through a four category typology: indulgent, authoritarian, authoritative, or
492 uninvolved (Maccoby and Martin, 1983). While research shows parenting styles to be related
493 with various outcomes in the child, including behavioral problems (Baumrind, 1991), studies
494 have yet to demonstrate their associations with maternal cell phone use, though it is not
495 difficult to imagine a correlation. Unfortunately, neither parenting styles nor postnatal
496 maternal cell phone were collected in any cohorts in this study. This type of uncontrolled
497 confounding may explain the similar decreases in risk observed among non-users compared to
498 any users for overall, emotional, and hyperactivity/inattention problems. In the Danish cohort,
499 they have previously performed a sibling analysis to account for unmeasured in-family

500 confounding in the associations between maternal cell phone use and child behavior
501 problems, but found it hard to isolate the influence of rapidly changing cell phone use from
502 birth order and time period effects; they concluded that in-family confounding could not fully
503 explain associations (Sudan et al., 2014). Also, in our analysis of non-users, the reduced risk
504 hardly varies from unadjusted to fully adjusted models, suggesting that confounding may not
505 fully explain these findings. Regarding the persistent increased risks for
506 hyperactivity/inattention problems among children of cell phone users in our analysis, it is
507 possible that mothers with adult hyperactivity/inattention problems were more likely to make
508 more cell phone calls or cordless phone calls and also passed hyperactivity/inattention
509 problems to their child through genetics, as hyperactivity/inattention problems are some of the
510 most heritable psychiatric traits (Faraone and Mick, 2010). While cohorts in this analysis have
511 accounted for history of psychopathology in the mother as possible confounders, adult
512 hyperactivity/inattention is largely untreated or undiagnosed (Asherson et al., 2016; Faraone
513 SV et al., 2004) and thus mostly unaccounted for in these prospective cohorts. Furthermore,
514 associations in our unadjusted models for hyperactivity/inattention problems slightly varied
515 from adjusted models, indicating the influence of uncontrolled confounding. This is also
516 demonstrated in Supplemental Table S13, showing the strong correlations between covariates
517 and cell phone use. It should be noted that maternal history of psychopathology was assessed
518 differently at different times in each cohort. Even so, prevalences of maternal
519 psychopathology were more or less comparable for four cohorts, but not in the case of the
520 Dutch. The Dutch cohort's method of collecting this information may have been the most
521 exhaustive, asking the mother if she had ever/never had nine disorders. Despite this, we can
522 assume an over-estimation of maternal psychological disorders in the Netherlands would bias
523 towards a null effect in our associations of interest. Overall, to improve our interpretation of

524 observed associations between prenatal cell phone use and behavioral problems, further
525 studies would need to include postnatal cell phone use, adjust for parenting styles, possible
526 other social and behavioral determinants of cell phone use, and maternal
527 hyperactivity/inattention problems.

528 We observed no statistically significant increased risk for overall or emotional problems in
529 children of mothers who used cell phones at medium or high frequencies as compared to low
530 frequency users, but there was heterogeneity among cohorts. One of the previous studies in
531 the Danish cohort reported a small increased risk for emotional problems among children of
532 cell phone users (Divan et al., 2008) while the previous Dutch study found no associations
533 (Guxens et al., 2013). In our study, risks in the Danish and other cohorts were negated by the
534 Norwegian cohort where mothers who used cell phones were less likely to have children with
535 emotional problems. This heterogeneity could be due to confounding factors related to
536 hyperactivity/inattention problems but not related to emotional problems. Upon exclusion of
537 Norway from meta-analyses, our main results remained intact, but statistically significant
538 risks emerged for overall clinical behavioral problems, and clinical emotional problems
539 among high frequency users.

540 Our study has some important strengths, including its large sample size and the harmonized
541 and detailed information regarding individual maternal characteristics, enabling adjustment
542 across cohorts for possible confounders collected prospectively, protecting from recall bias.
543 Furthermore, this is the first study on this association to include cohorts that collected cell
544 phone use prospectively.

545 Our study has several limitations. While the cell phone use frequency categorizations we used
546 were useful for combining these five cohorts, it was not precise in categorizing number of

547 calls made per day by the mother during pregnancy. Still, studies have shown that cell phone
548 users are not exact estimators of use (Shum et al., 2011; Vrijheid et al., 2006), therefore we
549 felt that classifying mothers in different exposure groups from no use to high use within each
550 cohort would better capture the variability of cell phone use specific to that cohort. It should
551 be noted that for three of the cohorts, our exposure categories referred to the same number of
552 calls in the Netherlands, Denmark, and Spain. It was only for Norway and Korea that the
553 frequency categories differed in exact number of calls. Norway's classification of high cell
554 phone users was difficult to compare with other cohorts. While all other cohorts' high users
555 were classified by frequency of calls, Norway's high users were classified by duration of calls
556 ("more than an hour a day"), which was quite restrictive. Only 5% of Norwegian mothers
557 reported high use, versus 20-30% in other cohorts (the Netherlands, Spain, and Korea) where
558 women were pregnant during the same technology era (2004-2008). In excluding Norway and
559 Korea from analyses (also the only cohorts not using the SDQ to evaluate outcomes),
560 associations were statistically significant or borderline significant for all outcomes among
561 high frequency users. Misclassification of calls, due to errors in self-reports or due to our
562 imperfect categorization, would most likely have resulted in an attenuation of associations and
563 is unlikely to explain the associations we observed (Blair et al., 2007). Even if we assumed
564 errors in self-reports, we believe the difference of calls per day between low and high users is
565 considerable. In Denmark, the Netherlands, and Spain low users made 0-1 calls per day, as
566 compared to high users making 4 or more calls per day. In Norway low users (a few times a
567 week) were compared to high users (more than an hour a day) and in Korea, low users were
568 making 1-2 calls/day and high users were making 6 or more calls/day. In the Netherlands,
569 Spain, and Korea analysis of very high cell phone use in mothers during pregnancy compared
570 to low use showed that children of these very high users were at the highest risk for all

571 behavioral problems (overall, hyperactivity/inattention, and emotional). These associations
572 had wide confidence intervals, perhaps due to small number of cases included in this
573 sensitivity analysis, but this increased risk among children of very high users provides further
574 evidence for this association with the added strength that the exposure groups were even less
575 likely to overlap.

576 While our outcome assessments varied across cohorts, various studies have shown the SDQ
577 and CBCL overall scales and subscales to be comparable (Goodman and Scott, 1999; Klasen
578 et al., 2000; Koskelainen et al., 2000). However, ours would be the first study to use
579 Norway's adapted CBCL scores with the SDQ and complete CBCL, presenting an important
580 limitation in our study and possible explanation for the inconsistency between Norway and
581 other cohorts for risks for overall behavioral problems and emotional problems. Even so,
582 prevalences of borderline/clinical and clinical scores were very similar between Norway and
583 Korea, suggesting Norway's adapted format would not be the reason for this inconsistency in
584 associations. Furthermore, the SDQ and CBCL are valuable screening tools used
585 internationally for pediatric behavioral issues but are not a substitute for diagnosis by a
586 physician, which would be the most reliable, but perhaps under diagnosed measure of
587 behavioral outcomes (Stone et al., 2010).

588

589 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

590 Maternal cell phone use during pregnancy may be associated with an increased risk of
591 behavioral problems, particularly hyperactivity/inattention problems, in the offspring. This is
592 the largest study to date to evaluate these associations and to show mostly consistent results
593 across cohorts with retrospectively and prospectively assessed maternal cell phone use. Still,

594 the interpretation of these results is unclear and should take into consideration that
595 uncontrolled confounding by social factors or maternal hyperactivity may influence both
596 maternal cell phone use and child behavioral problems.

597 **6. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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