

# NIH Public Access

**Author Manuscript**

J Radiol Prot. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2014 June 01.

# Published in final edited form as:

J Radiol Prot. 2013 June ; 33(2): 395–411. doi:10.1088/0952-4746/33/2/395.

# **Chernobyl cleanup workers from Estonia: follow-up for cancer incidence and mortality**

**Kaja Rahu**1, **Anssi Auvinen**2,3, **Timo Hakulinen**4, **Mare Tekkel**1, **Peter D Inskip**5, **Evelyn J Bromet**6, **John D Boice Jr**7,8, and **Mati Rahu**<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, National Institute for Health Development, Tallinn, Estonia

<sup>2</sup>School of Health Sciences, University of Tampere, Tampere, Finland

<sup>3</sup>Radiation and Nuclear Safety Authority, Helsinki, Finland

<sup>4</sup>Finnish Cancer Registry, Helsinki, Finland

<sup>5</sup>Radiation Epidemiology Branch, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA

<sup>6</sup>Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Science, Stony Brook University School of Medicine, Stony Brook, NY, USA

<sup>7</sup>National Council on Radiation Protection and Measurements, Bethesda, MD, USA

8School of Medicine, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, TN, USA

# **Abstract**

This study examined cancer incidence (1986–2008) and mortality (1986–2011) among the Estonian Chernobyl cleanup workers in comparison with the Estonian male population. The cohort of 4,810 men was followed through nationwide population, mortality and cancer registries. Cancer and death risks were measured by standardized incidence ratio (SIR) and standardized mortality ratio (SMR), respectively. Poisson regression was used to analyze the effects of year of arrival, duration of stay, and time since return on cancer and death risks. The SIR for all cancers was 1.06 with 95% confidence interval 0.93–1.20 (232 cases). Elevated risks were found for cancers of pharynx, oesophagus, and the joint category of alcohol-related sites. No clear evidence of an increased risk of thyroid cancer, leukaemia, or radiation-related cancer sites combined was apparent. The SMR for all causes of death was 1.02 with 95% confidence interval 0.96–1.08 (1,018 deaths). Excess mortality was observed for mouth and pharynx cancer, alcohol-related cancer sites together, and suicide. Duration of stay rather than year of arrival was associated with increased mortality. Twenty-six years of follow-up of this cohort indicates no definite health effects attributable to radiation, but the elevated suicide risk has persisted.

# **1. Introduction**

Health consequences of the accident in the Chernobyl Nuclear Power Station on April 26, 1986 were summarized in 2011 by the United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation (UNSCEAR) [1] and in the related overview by Cardis and Hatch [2]. Early responders and fire fighters experienced acute high-dose radiation effects leading to death or serious conditions. The only other direct radiation effect of the accident convincingly demonstrated so far was an elevated incidence of thyroid neoplasms among the

kaja.rahu@tai.ee.

residents of Belarus, Ukraine and Russia who were exposed to radioactive iodines as children or adolescents [3–6]. To assess possible radiation-related health risks, the Estonian cohort study of Chernobyl cleanup workers, the first of its kind, was initiated. It concerned nearly 5,000 men from Estonia sent to the Chernobyl area to participate in the environmental cleanup activities [7]. Previously published Estonian data revealed an increased suicide rate [8], which did not diminish with time [9]. During the follow-up period 1986–1998 no elevated cancer incidence was observed in the cohort [10]. The current paper provides updated results of cancer incidence and mortality analyses.

# **2. Materials and Methods**

The cohort of Estonian Chernobyl cleanup workers was assembled in 1992 from several data sources: the General Staff of Estonian Defense Forces (lists of the former Soviet Army), the former Estonian Chernobyl Radiation Registry, the former Ministry of Social Welfare, and the Estonian Chernobyl Committee (including lists of the former Green Movement) [7]. Compiling the database was a linkage task, because the same person could be in multiple lists. To identify cohort members we used surname, given name(s), father's name (commonly used during the Soviet rule), date of birth, and place of residence. Unique personal identification numbers were introduced in Estonia in 1992 with the establishment of the Estonian Population Registry; this greatly facilitated subsequent record linkages. The linkages resulted in a cohort of 4,831 men who had worked in the Chernobyl area in 1986– 1991. Each cohort member was followed for vital status from his return to Estonia until December 31, 2011 via the population registry. We failed to trace 21 (0.4%) persons, and they were excluded from the analysis. Date of return to Estonia (start of follow-up) was missing for 144 cohort members. If for those persons date of arrival in the Chernobyl area was known (16 subjects), date of return was assumed to be 92 days (median duration of stay) later; otherwise (128 subjects) January 1, 1987 was imputed.

Follow-up for cancer incidence was restricted to the period 1986–2008. Cancer cases diagnosed in the cohort were obtained from the Estonian Cancer Registry, and were coded according to ICD-10 (C00–C97) [11]. Combined radiation-related sites (a), and alcoholrelated sites (b) with sufficient evidence in humans were defined according to Cogliano et al. (12): (a) salivary glands (ICD-10 C07– C08), oesophagus (C15), stomach (C16), colon (C18), trachea, bronchus and lung (C33–C34), bone (C40–C41), non-melanoma skin (C44), urinary organs (C64–C68), central nervous system (CNS) (C70–C72), thyroid gland (C73), and leukaemia (except chronic lymphocytic leukaemia) (C91–C95, except C91.1); (b) oral cavity (C01–C08), pharynx (C09–C14), oesophagus (C15), colon (C18), rectum (C19–C21), liver (C22), and larynx (C32).

Deaths with date of death and underlying cause of death were determined by linkage with the Estonian scientific mortality database created for the purposes of linkage and mortality analysis, and containing all deaths with personal identifiers recorded in the Estonian Causes of Death Registry since 1983 [13, 14]. Overall and cause-specific mortality analyses covered the period 1986–2011, during which three classifications for coding causes of death were used: in 1986–1993 the abridged Soviet classification based on ICD-9 but less detailed [15], in 1994–1996 ICD-9, and in 1997–2011 ICD-10. Follow-up for deaths from radiationrelated cancers and alcohol-related cancers started in 1994, because the Soviet classification did not have separate codes for all these sites. Selected alcohol-related deaths included mental disorders due to alcohol (ICD-10 F10), degeneration of nervous system due to alcohol (G31.2), alcoholic liver disease (K70), and alcohol poisoning (X45). Because of under-coding of alcohol poisoning in the Estonian Causes of Death Registry, it was not appropriate to treat this category separately [14].

The risk of cancer or death in the Chernobyl cohort, compared with the Estonian male population, was assessed by the standardized incidence ratio (SIR) or the standardized mortality ratio (SMR), respectively. Both measures were expressed as the ratio of observed to expected number of cases. The expected number of cancer or death cases was calculated by multiplying the number of person-years at risk stratified by 5-year age groups and 5-year calendar periods by corresponding cancer incidence or mortality rates in the male population. The 95% confidence intervals (CI) for the SIR and the SMR were computed assuming that the observed number of cases followed a Poisson distribution.

To estimate the effect of different characteristics on death or cancer risk, ratios of SIRs or SMRs (RR) for selected cancer sites and causes of death were modelled with Poisson regression, with logarithm of the expected number of cases as the offset variable [16]. The following characteristics were included in the models: age at start of follow-up (<30; 30–39; ≥40 years), year of arrival in the Chernobyl area (1986; 1987–1991), duration of stay (<92; 92 days), time since return from the Chernobyl area  $\langle 2, 7, 7-13, 14 \rangle$  years), ethnicity (Estonian; non-Estonian), and education (higher or secondary; basic or less). Information on ethnicity and education has been obtained by a questionnaire study conducted among the cleanup workers mainly in 1992–1993 [7], and updated from the population registry and mortality records. We excluded from the first model data for 167 men with missing date of arrival in or return from the Chernobyl area. From the second model we excluded additionally 389 subjects because of unknown ethnicity or education. For the third model (not presented in the tables) we included documented radiation dose  $\langle 5.0; 5.0-9.9; 10.0 \rangle$ cGy), abstracted from the worker records and reflecting external whole-body exposure [7]. Because of unrecorded values we excluded an additional 561 subjects.

Linkages and data analyses were performed using Visual FoxPro 6.0 (Microsoft Corporation, Redmond, Washington) and Stata 10 (StataCorp LP, College Station, Texas).

This study stage was approved by the Tallinn Medical Ethics Committee (No. 1939, Feb. 11, 2010).

# **3. Results**

Approximately a third of the cleanup workers were sent to the Chernobyl area immediately after the accident in April or May, 1986, and another third later in the same year (Table 1). The majority of the men worked in the contaminated area for less than five months with median duration of 92 days. Estonians and non-Estonians were almost equally represented in the cohort. Nearly 60% of the men had secondary level education. A total of 4,810 men contributed 98,979 person-years at risk (average, 20.6 person-years) during the follow-up period 1986–2011. The median age at the start of follow-up was 31 years. Documented radiation doses were not high (median, 8.8 cGy; average, 9.9 cGy; maximum 58.0 cGy), and, for 15.9% of the subjects, the dose was not recorded.

Overall, 232 cancer cases were reported in the cohort compared to 218.00 expected (SIR 1.06; 95% CI: 0.93–1.20) in 1986–2008 (Table 2). Significantly elevated risks were found for cancers of pharynx (SIR 2.41; 95% CI: 1.38–3.91) and oesophagus (SIR 2.38; 95% CI: 1.23–4.15) based on 16 and 12 cases, respectively. There were almost twice as many CNS cancers observed than expected, but the finding did not quite reach statistical significance (SIR 1.91; 95% CI: 0.99–3.34). An excess of cancer cases was found for the broad category of alcohol-related sites (SIR 1.42; 95% CI: 1.09–1.80). No evidence was observed for an increase in the incidence of radiation-related cancer sites combined. Elevated thyroid cancer and leukaemia risks were not seen – two thyroid cancers were diagnosed vs. 1.42 expected,

and seven leukaemias vs. 5.75 expected. The first leukaemia was diagnosed in 2000, and four of the seven cases were chronic lymphocytic leukaemias.

The overall cancer incidence in the cohort was not influenced by the year of arrival, duration of stay, or time since return from the mission (Table 3). The RRs did not show statistically significant differences between subgroups in the cohort for risk of radiation-related or alcohol-related cancers either. Adding education and ethnicity to the model did not change noticeably the RRs for the variables concerning the Chernobyl mission but less educated persons had significantly higher risk for overall and alcohol-related cancer incidence (Table 3).

A total of 1,018 deaths registered vs. 999.32 expected (SMR 1.02; 95% CI: 0.96–1.08) in 1986– 2011 (Table 4). A statistically significant excess mortality was observed for cancer of the mouth and pharynx (SMR 1.82; 95% CI: 1.11–2.81), alcohol-related cancer sites together (SMR 1.64; 95% CI: 1.23–2.15), and suicide (SMR 1.30; 95% CI: 1.05–1.60). Suicide combined with undetermined injury gave a slightly lower point estimate for SMR than suicide alone (SMR 1.24; 95% CI: 1.01–1.47). No significant excess of mortality was found for the combined category of radiation-related cancer sites. No thyroid cancer deaths were reported, and the number of leukaemia deaths was close to the expected (4 vs. 4.33). We did not find elevated mortality for diseases of the circulatory, respiratory or digestive system. There was no increased mortality from all external causes combined or selected alcohol-related causes.

All-cause mortality was lower among persons who were sent to the Chernobyl area in 1986 (adjusted RR 0.87; 95% CI: 0.76–0.99), and higher for those who worked there longer (adjusted RR 1.23; 95% CI: 1.09–1.40) (Table 5). The risk of death rose significantly after seven years since return from the mission, and stayed at the same level in the latest time period ( 14 years). Mortality due to cancer or circulatory diseases did not depend on year of arrival, duration of stay, or time since return. Excess mortality from external causes or selected alcohol-related causes was seen for persons with duration of stay exceeding three months. Suicide risk did not decrease appreciably with time since return: adjusted RR 1.06; 95% CI: 0.63–1.78 for 7–13 years, and adjusted RR 0.91; 95% CI: 0.52– 1.58 for 14 years compared to less than seven years. RRs for the variables describing the Chernobyl mission remained almost the same after additional adjustment for education and ethnicity, but both characteristics had strong effect on mortality due to selected causes of death in Table 5 – non-Estonians and less educated experienced higher risk of death. Only mortality due to circulatory diseases or suicide was not associated with ethnicity.

We did not observe a radiation dose effect based on recorded doses  $(5.0-9.9 \text{ cGy } vs. <5.0$ cGy, and 10.0 cGy vs. <5.0 cGy) on overall cancer incidence (adjusted RR 1.01; 95% CI: 0.70–1.46, and adjusted RR 1.33; 95% CI: 0.93–1.92, respectively) or radiation-related cancer incidence (adjusted RR 0.83; 95% CI: 0.52–1.34 and adjusted RR 0.98; 95% CI: 0.61–1.58). The same pattern was seen in all-cause mortality (adjusted RR 0.88; 95% CI: 0.74–1.05 and adjusted RR 1.10; 95% CI: 0.93– 1.31) and mortality from malignant neoplasms (adjusted RR 0.95; 95% CI: 0.63–1.44 and adjusted RR 1.08; 95% CI: 0.71– 1.64).

## **4. Discussion**

The Estonian cohort study of Chernobyl cleanup workers was undertaken primarily to investigate the effect of protracted exposure to low-dose radiation on cancer incidence, with particular interest in leukaemia. However, 26 years of follow-up has not yielded evidence of an appreciable burden of radiation-related cancer. Instead, greater evidence has emerged of

excess occurrence of outcomes not directly attributable to radiation exposure, namely, higher incidence of alcohol-related cancers and a persistent elevation in risk of suicide in the cohort compared to the Estonian male population.

We failed to find excess cases of leukaemia, frequently reported in populations exposed to radiation [17]. We did not expect to see increased leukaemia incidence in the period 1999– 2008, the interval since the last published analysis [10]. Radiation-induced leukaemia risk should have emerged during 2–5 years after exposure and declined afterwards [1, 18], but, in the Estonian cohort, the first leukaemia case was diagnosed in 2000, 13 years following return from the Chernobyl area. This result is inconsistent with the increased leukaemia risk observed in Russian and Ukrainian cleanup worker studies, both of which were based on substantially larger cohorts [19, 20] but without advantage of a population-based cancer registry. We did not observe excess leukaemia mortality either, based on three years longer follow-up than for incidence. Thus, leukaemia risk in the cohort of Estonian cleanup workers has not been high, and a small excess would have been impossible to show in such a small cohort with low radiation doses.

In addition to leukaemia, there has been particular interest in thyroid cancer incidence in the cohorts of Chernobyl cleanup workers due to potential exposure to radioiodine. We observed a 41% higher, not statistically significant thyroid cancer risk in the cohort compared to the male population, but as thyroid cancer is a rare disease, this was based on just two cases. Both thyroid cancers were detected through screening [21], diagnosed in 1995 in men who were on mission soon after the explosion. High thyroid cancer risk in the cohorts of cleanup workers has been reported in the Latvian and Russian studies [10, 22]; however, thyroid screening and medical examinations offered to the cleanup workers have likely resulted in detection bias relative to the male population.

Elevated CNS cancer incidence in the Estonian Chernobyl cohort alone and in the combined cohort with Latvian veterans has been published for the period 1986–1998 [10]. In the current extended analysis we observed almost twofold excess of CNS cancers, although the SIR was of borderline statistical significance. Excess risk of CNS cancer per unit dose was not found in the Russian cohort of cleanup workers [23]. The association between adult radiation exposure and tumours of CNS (dominantly benign) has been documented in UNSCEAR 2006 Report [24], based mainly on atomic bomb survivor data [25]. Causal relationship between ionizing radiation and CNS cancer was evaluated recently by the Working Group at the International Agency for Research on Cancer [12]. We cannot confirm or exclude that the elevated CNS cancer risk in the cohort was attributable to radiation, given the low doses received by the cohort members, and small number of cases.

We did not find increased overall cancer risk, nor elevated incidence for a combined category of radiation-related sites; however, we did observe evidence of a possible effect of alcohol – twofold higher risk for pharyngeal and oesophageal cancers, and a 35% higher risk for combined alcohol-related sites in relation to the male population. We expected to see higher cancer risk for those cleanup workers who were sent to the Chernobyl area shortly after the accident or who remained there for longer periods, and probably received higher cumulative radiation doses. However, we did not find statistically significant differences between subgroups.

We did not observe significantly elevated overall cancer mortality, or mortality from radiation-related cancer sites. Alcohol was clearly involved – mortality from alcohol-related cancer sites combined was 61% higher in the cohort than in the male population. Cancer mortality did not increase with time since return from the mission.

So far, the burden of diseases other than cancer in the cohort could be estimated only through cause-specific mortality data. Inconsistent results have been reported in studies concerning the effect of low-dose radiation on circulatory diseases [26]. Evidence that lowdose radiation can increase the risk of circulatory disease mortality has been found in the Life Span Study, but no clear association was seen below 0.5 Gy [27]. Ivanov et al. [28] reported a dose-dependent excess of some diseases of the circulatory system in the Russian cohort of cleanup workers. We did not find elevated risk for circulatory disease mortality in the Estonian cohort; the SMRs for all circulatory diseases, ischemic heart disease and cerebrovascular disease were near one. Mortality rates for diseases of the respiratory or digestive system did not exceed those in the male population. Higher alcohol-related cancer incidence and mortality suggested higher mortality from selected alcohol-related causes other than cancer, but the respective SMR did not show increased risk.

All-cause mortality in the Chernobyl cohort was at the expected level, but this finding could be biased because of the healthy worker effect; i.e., a majority of cleanup workers were military reservists or in regular army service [7], and likely were healthier than the male population. On the other hand, it is known that less educated or non-Estonian (mainly Russian) men experience higher mortality (especially alcohol-related mortality) [29–31], and the Estonian Chernobyl cohort represents somewhat different distributions by education and ethnicity than the male population. According to the 1989 census, Estonians made up 60.3%, and persons with higher education 13.2% of the male population of Estonia aged over 20 years [32]. A small proportion of men with higher education, and overrepresentation of non-Estonians in the cohort should have given higher mortality compared to the male population. The healthy worker effect probably counterbalanced the effect of education and ethnicity.

The previously observed statistically significant suicide risk has not diminished with extended follow-up – SMR 1.30 (1986–2011) vs. SMR 1.32 (1986–2002) [9]. The rate of death due to undetermined injury increased rapidly after Estonia regained its independence, and some suicides could have been hidden in this nonspecific category [33]. The point estimate for the SMR for the joint category of suicide and undetermined injury was lower than for suicide alone but still demonstrated a statistically significant excess risk in the cohort. The increased suicide risk is in accord with results from a study of cleanup workers from Ukraine that found a twofold elevated risk of suicide ideation, major depression, and post-traumatic stress disorder relative to population-based controls [34]. Other studies of Chernobyl cleanup workers have also reported increased cognitive and emotional impairments [35], but these studies lack systematic methodologies. Epidemiologic studies of trauma [36] and recent studies of World Trade Center rescue and recovery workers [37, 38] confirm that psychiatric symptoms related to catastrophic environmental exposures are intractable; they are frequently associated with suicide attempts, depression, and posttraumatic stress disorder, which in turn relate strongly to the risk for suicide [39]. Systematic studies are needed to document the long-term psychiatric, cognitive, and psychosocial impairments in clean-up workers. Given the current findings, we recommend routinely incorporating these endpoints in ongoing medical monitoring surveys of these workers.

Ratios of SMRs indicated that duration of stay in the contaminated area rather than year of arrival to Chernobyl raised the mortality risk, with the sole exception of suicide. Tarlap described in his memoirs [40] that most of cleanup workers had drunk more during the mission than ever in their civil lives. Probably longer mission contributed to drinking habits. Since heavy alcohol use is highly prevalent in men in Estonia [41] and is a common method for coping with stress [42], it is reasonable to infer that the elevated rate of alcohol-related cancer incidence among the cleanup workers is also attributable to the chronic health-related anxiety in the cohort.

The emotional aftermath of Chernobyl led the Chernobyl Forum and UNSCEAR 2008 Report to consider mental health to be the major public health issue among the exposed populations [1, 43]. The Chernobyl cleanup workers in particular were sent into a stressful and dangerous environment without adequate information or protective gear. Although research has shown that the low-level radiation is not associated with substantially increased cancer incidence, the cleanup workers and other exposed populations live in fear about potential adverse health outcomes [1, 35]. Deliberate withholding of information by Soviet authorities has led to suspicion and mistrust of any attempts to put the potential health risk in perspective and relieve their anxiety. Uncertainty about the future has given rise to rumours and exaggerated fears which help to perpetuate myths about the health effects of low-level radiation [44].

Recent studies of Chernobyl cleanup workers have focused on dose-response analysis of leukaemia and thyroid cancer [19, 20, 22, 45, 46]. Because of low power and uncertainties in the dose estimates, Estonian study alone cannot substantially contribute to the evaluation of the shape of the dose-response curve. The expected effect size due to a mean dose of 10 cGy is approximately 10% increase in cancer incidence if risk estimates derived from atomic bomb survivors are applied [47]. Documented doses for Estonian cleanup workers could have been underestimated, when personal dosimeters did not work properly, or overestimated, when persons working close to the reactor took along dosimeters of friends to reach the maximum allowed cumulative dose of 25 roentgens [40]. Although the average documented dose was equal to the average dose estimated from biological markers  $\left(\sim 10\right)$ cGy), the individual doses for the studied sub-cohort of cleanup workers showed little correlation, which may be due to dose level being close to the threshold of detectability for biodosimetric methods [48, 49]. We can treat the Estonian Chernobyl cohort as a cohort with low-dose radiation exposure in general, but we cannot trust documented individual doses. The small size and relatively low dose level of the cohort reduce the statistical power. However, the power was sufficient to detect an elevated risk of suicide among the cleanup workers.

The strengths of our study include comprehensive construction of the cohort from multiple sources, as well as long and nearly complete follow-up through computerized linkage with population-based registers.

In conclusion, our study suggests that after a quarter century follow-up of the Estonian cohort of Chernobyl cleanup workers, there is an increased risk of alcohol-related cancers, and of suicide. No definite indication of health effects directly attributable to radiation exposure was found.

#### **Acknowledgments**

This study was supported financially by the Estonian Ministry of Education and Science (target funding SF0940026s07) and the Intramural Research Program of the National Institutes of Health, National Cancer Institute, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics. The initial work was financed by U.S. National Cancer Institute Contract N01-CP-85638-03. The authors thank Dr. Margit Mägi and Pille Härmaorg from the Estonian Cancer Registry, and Gleb Denissov from the Estonian Cause of Death Registry for their invaluable contribution to data collection.

## **References**

- [1]. Sources and Effects of Ionizing Radiation. Vol. vol 2. United Nations; New York: 2011. United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation.
- [2]. Cardis E, Hatch M. The Chernobyl accident an epidemiological perspective. Clin. Oncol. (R. Coll. Radiol.). 2011; 23:251–60. [PubMed: 21396807]

- [3]. Brenner AV, et al. I-131 dose response for incident thyroid cancers in Ukraine related to the Chornobyl accident. Environ. Health Perspect. 2011; 119:933–9. [PubMed: 21406336]
- [4]. Zablotska LB, et al. Thyroid cancer risk in Belarus among children and adolescents exposed to radioiodine after the Chornobyl accident. Br. J. Cancer. 2011; 104:181–7. [PubMed: 21102590]
- [5]. Zablotska LB, et al. A cohort study of thyroid cancer and other thyroid diseases after the Chornobyl accident: dose-response analysis of thyroid follicular adenomas detected during first screening in Ukraine (1998–2000). Am. J. Epidemiol. 2008; 167:305–12. [PubMed: 17989057]
- [6]. Ivanov VK, Kashcheev VV, Chekin SY, Maksioutov MA, Tumanov KA, Vlasov OK, Shchukina NV, Tsyb AF. Radiation-epidemiological studies of thyroid cancer incidence in Russia after the Chernobyl accident (estimation of radiation risks, 1991–2008 follow-up period). Radiat. Prot. Dosimetry. 2012; 151:489–99. [PubMed: 22416255]
- [7]. Tekkel M, Rahu M, Veidebaum T, Hakulinen T, Auvinen A, Rytömaa T, Inskip PD, Boice JD Jr. The Estonian study of Chernobyl cleanup workers: I. Design and questionnaire data. Radiat. Res. 1997; 147:641–52. [PubMed: 9146710]
- [8]. Rahu M, Tekkel M, Veidebaum T, Pukkala E, Hakulinen T, Auvinen A, Rytömaa T, Inskip PD, Boice JD Jr. The Estonian study of Chernobyl cleanup workers: II. Incidence of cancer and mortality. Radiat. Res. 1997; 147:653–7. [PubMed: 9146711]
- [9]. Rahu K, Rahu M, Tekkel M, Bromet E. Suicide risk among Chernobyl cleanup workers in Estonia still increased: an updated cohort study. Ann. Epidemiol. 2006; 16:917–9. [PubMed: 17027293]
- [10]. Rahu M, Rahu K, Auvinen A, Tekkel M, Stengrevics A, Hakulinen T, Boice JD Jr, Inskip PD. Cancer risk among Chernobyl cleanup workers in Estonia and Latvia, 1986–1998. Int. J. Cancer. 2006; 119:162–8. [PubMed: 16432838]
- [11]. Aareleid, T.; Härmaorg, P.; Mägi, M.; Rahu, K.; Rahu, M. Estonia Cancer Incidence. In: Curado, MP.; Edwards, B., et al., editors. Five Continents. Vol. vol 9. IARC; Lyon: 2007. p. 290-1.
- [12]. Cogliano VJ, et al. Preventable exposures associated with human cancers. J. Natl. Cancer Inst. 2011; 103:1827–39. [PubMed: 22158127]
- [13]. Rahu M, Rahu K, Baburin A. The mortality register of Estonia: its formation and utilization of data for research. Eesti Arst. 2006; 85:463–9. (in Estonian).
- [14]. Rahu K, Palo E, Rahu M. Diminishing trend in alcohol poisoning mortality in Estonia: reality or coding peculiarity? Alcohol Alcohol. 2011; 46:485–9. [PubMed: 21593123]
- [15]. USSR State Committee of Statistics. The Short List of Causes of Death for 1981, Based on the Ninth Revision of the International Classification of Diseases, Injuries and Causes of Death from 1975. USSR State Committee of Statistics; Moscow: 1980. (in Russian)
- [16]. Clayton, D.; Hills, M. Epidemiology. Oxford University Press; New York: 1993. Statistical Models; p. 141-52.
- [17]. Daniels RD, Schubauer-Berigan MK. A meta-analysis of leukaemia risk from protracted exposure to low-dose gamma radiation Occup. Environ. Med. 2011; 68:457–64.
- [18]. Cardis E, et al. Cancer consequences of the Chernobyl accident: 20 years. J. Radiol. Prot. 2006; 26:127–40. [PubMed: 16738412]
- [19]. Ivanov VK, Tsyb AF, Khait SE, Kashcheev VV, Chekin SY, Maksioutov MA, Tumanov KA. Leukemia incidence in the Russian cohort of Chernobyl emergency workers. Radiat. Environ. Biophys. 2012; 51:143–9. [PubMed: 22246583]
- [20]. Romanenko AY, et al. The Ukrainian-American study of leukemia and related disorders among Chornobyl cleanup workers from Ukraine: III. Radiation risks Radiat. Res. 2008; 170:711–20.
- [21]. Inskip PD, et al. Thyroid nodularity and cancer among Chernobyl cleanup workers from Estonia. Radiat. Res. 1997; 147:225–35. [PubMed: 9008215]
- [22]. Ivanov VK, Chekin SY, Kashcheev VV, Maksioutov MA, Tumanov KA. Risk of thyroid cancer among Chernobyl emergency workers of Russia. Radiat. Environ. Biophys. 2008; 47:463–7. [PubMed: 18551301]
- [23]. Ivanov VK, Gorski AI, Tsyb AI, Ivanov SI, Naumenko RN, Ivanova LV. Solid cancer incidence among the Chernobyl emergency workers residing in Russia: estimation of radiation risks. Radiat. Environ. Biophys. 2004; 43:35–42. [PubMed: 14762668]
- [24]. United Nations Scientific Committee. Effects of Ionizing Radiation. Vol. vol 1. United Nations; New York: 2008. Effects of Atomic Radiation.

- [25]. Preston DL, Ron E, Yonehara S, Kobuke T, Fujii H, Kishikawa M, Tokunaga M, Tokuoka S, Mabuchi K. Tumors of the nervous system and pituitary gland associated with atomic bomb radiation exposure. J. Natl. Cancer Inst. 2002; 94:1555–63. [PubMed: 12381708]
- [26]. Little MP, Tawn EJ, Tzoulaki I, Wakeford R, Hildebrandt G, Paris F, Tapio S, Elliot P. Review and meta-analysis of epidemiological associations between low/moderate doses of ionizing radiation and circulatory disease risks, and their possible mechanisms. Radiat. Environ. Biophys. 2010; 49:139–53. [PubMed: 19862545]
- [27]. Shimizu Y, et al. Radiation exposure and circulatory disease risk: Hiroshima and Nagasaki atomic bomb survivor data, 1950–2003. BMJ. 2010; 340:b5349. [PubMed: 20075151]
- [28]. Ivanov VK, Maksioutov MA, Chekin SY, Petrov AV, Biryukov AP, Kruglova ZG, Matyash VA, Tsyb AF, Manton KG, Kravchenko JS. The risk of radiation-induced cerebrovascular disease in Chernobyl emergency workers. Health Phys. 2006; 90:199–207. [PubMed: 16505616]
- [29]. Leinsalu M, Vågerö D, Kunst AE. Estonia 1989–2000: enormous increase in mortality differences by education. Int. J. Epidemiol. 2003; 32:1081–7. [PubMed: 14681279]
- [30]. Leinsalu M, Vågerö D, Kunst AE. Increasing ethnic differences in mortality in Estonia after the collapse of the Soviet Union. J. Epidemiol. Community Health. 2004; 58:583–9. [PubMed: 15194720]
- [31]. Rahu K, Pärna K, Palo E, Rahu M. Contrasts in alcohol-related mortality in Estonia: education and ethnicity. Alcohol Alcohol. 2009; 44:517–22. [PubMed: 19505956]
- [32]. Statistical Office of Estonia. Eesti rahvastik rahvaloenduste andmetel Population of Estonia by Population Censuses. Statistical Office of Estonia; Tallinn: 1995.
- [33]. Värnik P, Sisask M, Värnik A, Yuryev A, Kõlves K, Leppik L, Nemtsov A, Wasserman D. Massive increase in injury deaths of undetermined intent in ex-USSR Baltic and Slavic countries: Hidden suicides? Scand. J. Public Health. 2010; 38:395–403. [PubMed: 19933222]
- [34]. Loganovsky K, Havenaar JM, Tintle N, Guey LT, Kotov R, Bromet EJ. The mental health of clean-up workers 18 years after the Chornobyl accident. Psychol. Med. 2008; 38:481–8. [PubMed: 18047772]
- [35]. Bromet EJ, Havenaar JM, Guey LT. A 25 year retrospective review of the psychological consequences of the Chernobyl accident. Clin. Oncol.(R. Coll. Radiol.). 2011; 23:297–305. [PubMed: 21330117]
- [36]. Kessler RC, Sonnega A, Bromet E, Hughes M, Nelson CB. Posttraumatic stress disorder in the National Comorbidity Survey. Arch. Gen. Psychiatry. 1995; 52:1048–60. [PubMed: 7492257]
- [37]. Luft BJ, et al. Exposure, probable PTSD and lower respiratory illness among World Trade Center rescue, recovery and clean-up workers. Psychol. Med. 2012; 42:1069–80. [PubMed: 22459506]
- [38]. Wisnivesky JP, et al. Persistence of multiple illnesses in World Trade Center rescue and recovery workers: a cohort study. Lancet. 2011; 378:888–97. [PubMed: 21890053]
- [39]. Nock MK, Borges G, Bromet EJ, Cha CB, Kessler RC, Lee S. Suicide and suicidal behavior. Epidemiol. Rev. 2008; 30:133–54. [PubMed: 18653727]
- [40]. Tarlap, T. Chernobyl 1986: Memoirs of an Estonian Cleanup Worker. IECM; Tallinn: 1995.
- [41]. Pärna K, Rahu K, Helakorpi S, Tekkel M. Alcohol consumption in Estonia and Finland: Finbalt survey 1994– 2006. BMC Public Health. 2010; 10:261. [PubMed: 20482852]
- [42]. Bacon AK, Ham LS. Attention to social threat as a vulnerability to the development of comorbid social anxiety disorder and alcohol use disorders: an avoidance-coping cognitive model. Addict. Behav. 2010; 35:925–39. [PubMed: 20605074]
- [43]. Balonov MI. The Chernobyl Forum: major findings and recommendations. J. Environ. Radioact. 2007; 96:6–12. [PubMed: 17493715]
- [44]. Rahu M. Health effects of the Chernobyl accident: fears, rumours and the truth. Eur. J. Cancer. 2003; 39:295–9. [PubMed: 12565980]
- [45]. Kesminiene A, et al. Risk of hematological malignancies among Chernobyl liquidators. Radiat. Res. 2008; 170:721–35. [PubMed: 19138033]
- [46]. Kesminiene A, et al. Risk of thyroid cancer among Chernobyl liquidators. Radiat. Res. 2012; 178:425–36. [PubMed: 22998226]

- [47]. Preston DL, Ron E, Tokuoka S, Funamoto S, Nishi N, Soda M, Mabuchi K, Kodama K. Solid cancer incidence in atomic bomb survivors: 1958–1998. Radiat. Res. 2007; 168:1–64. [PubMed: 17722996]
- [48]. Bigbee WL, et al. Biodosimetry of Chernobyl cleanup workers from Estonia and Latvia using the glycophorin A in vivo somatic cell mutation assay. Radiat. Res. 1997; 147:215–24. [PubMed: 9008214]
- [49]. Littlefield LG, et al. Do recorded doses overestimate true doses received by Chernobyl cleanup workers? Results of cytogenetic analyses of Estonian workers by fluorescence in situ hybridization. Radiat. Res. 1998; 150:237–49. [PubMed: 9692369]

Characteristics of the Estonian cohort of Chernobyl cleanup workers.



Education

Rahu et al. Page 11



Observed number of cancer cases and standardized incidence ratio in the Estonian cohort of Chernobyl cleanup workers by cancer site, 1986–2008.



Number of cancer cases, crude and adjusted relative cancer risks in the Estonian cohort of Chernobyl cleanup workers by cancer site and selected characteristics, 1986–2008.





 ${}^{2}$ For year of arrival, duration of stay, and time since return from the Chernobyl area 167 subjects with unknown values were excluded; for ethnicity and education 556 subjects with unknown values were excluded.

 $<sup>b</sup>$ Model 1: includes age at start of follow-up, year of arrival, duration of stay, and time since return from the Chernobyl area (167 subjects with</sup> unknown values were excluded).

 $c$  Model 2: includes age at start of follow-up, year of arrival, duration of stay, time since return from the Chernobyl area, ethnicity and education (556 subjects with unknown values were excluded).

Observed number of deaths and standardized mortality ratio in the Estonian cohort of Chernobyl cleanup workers by cause of death, 1986–2011.



 $^a$ Follow-up since 1994.

Number of deaths, crude and adjusted relative death risks in the Estonian cohort of Chernobyl cleanup workers by cause of death and selected characteristics, 1986–2011.







a For year of arrival, duration of stay, and time since return from the Chernobyl area 167 subjects with unknown values were excluded; for ethnicity and education 556 subjects with unknown values were excluded.

 $<sup>b</sup>$ Model 1: includes age at start of follow-up, year of arrival, duration of stay, and time since return from the Chernobyl area (167 subjects with</sup> unknown values were excluded).

 $c$ Model 2: includes age at start of follow-up, year of arrival, duration of stay, time since return from the Chernobyl area, ethnicity and education (556 subjects with unknown values were excluded).