

Radiological Protection of the Environment

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The need for radiological environmental protection?

The system for ensuring the protection of humans from ionising radiation is internationally well established (ICRP, 2007), having begun development early in the twentieth century. However, there was an assumption that the control (or regulation) required to protect humans would ensure that other species were not put at risk. The 1990 Recommendations of the ICRP (International Commission on Radiological Protection) stated: *'The Commission believes that the standard of environmental control needed to protect man to the degree currently thought desirable will ensure that other species are not put at risk. Occasionally, individual members of non-human species might be harmed, but not to the extent of endangering whole species or creating imbalance between species. At the present time, the Commission concerns itself with mankind's environment only with regard to the transfer of radionuclides through the environment, since this directly affects the radiological protection of man.'* (ICRP, 1991). This assumption was generally accepted and adopted by those national authorities responsible for radiation protection and the impact of authorised releases of radioactivity on the environment (or wildlife) was not routinely assessed. Consequently, there were no commonly used models for conducting radiological environmental impact assessments.

From about 1990, the statement of the ICRP with regard to protection of the environment was increasingly questioned. Criticisms included: a lack of supporting data for the statement, potential scenarios where wildlife may be more exposed than humans and the need to demonstrate protection of the environment from any human activity. At about the same time some countries began to establish requirements and guidelines for the protection of wildlife (often termed 'non-human species'). To support these requirements, approaches and models were developed to assess the potential impact of authorised releases of radionuclides on the environment

Subsequently, the ICRP amended its recommendations to include the consideration of radiological protection of the environment with the objective *'to maintain biological diversity, conservation of species, protection of the health and status of natural habitats, communities and ecosystems, with targets related to populations or higher organisational levels rather than individual organisms'* (ICRP, 2007). The revised ICRP recommendations acknowledged the need for the development of a framework to assess non-human species, which the ICRP has subsequently begun. The International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) has a role in transforming the ICRP's recommendations into practical guidance for application in regulatory frameworks and the latest IAEA Safety Fundamentals acknowledges the need to consider the environment within radiological assessment: *'People and the environment, present and in the future, must be protected against radiation risks'* (IAEA, 2006). In response to changes in international recommendations, radiological environmental impact

43 assessments are being conducted in many countries for a wide range of facility types (e.g.,
44 see Brown *et al.* (2016)).

45 **Environmental radiological assessment approaches**

46 A number of assessment approaches have been developed over the last 20 years. In
47 common with approaches considering other non-radioactive environmental stressors, the
48 more comprehensive methodologies use a tiered assessment approach beginning with a
49 simplistic screening tier that requires comparatively little input and is highly conservative.
50 An aim of this initial tier is to identify sites of negligible concern and remove them from the
51 need for more refined higher tier assessments that require increasingly more data and
52 resources. Software implementing two of these tiered assessment approaches has been
53 made freely available: the ERICA Tool (<http://www.ERICA-tool.com/> Brown *et al.* (2016)) and
54 RESRAD-BIOTA (<https://resrad.evs.anl.gov/codes/resrad-biota/>, US DOE (2004)). The goal of
55 radiological assessment, in common with other areas of environmental regulation, is usually
56 to protect populations.

57 The developed approaches are primarily for the assessment of ‘planned releases’ (i.e., from
58 operating or planned sites) and existing contamination scenarios (e.g., sites contaminated
59 by historical activities). The approaches are not designed to assess the dynamic nature of
60 accidental releases, although the Fukushima accident demonstrated the desire to predict
61 the potential exposure of wildlife following large-scale accidents (Strand *et al.*, 2014). Below
62 we give an overview of how the approaches estimate the exposure and risk of wildlife from
63 ionising radiation.

64 *Simplifying the ecosystem*

65 It would be impossible to have screening tier assessment approaches that considered every
66 potential species in any potential ecosystem. Therefore, the approaches make
67 simplifications; ecosystems are usually simplified as generic marine, freshwater or
68 terrestrial. Similarly, simplifications are made with regard to how organisms are represented
69 within the approaches. The USDOE RESRAD-BIOTA approach simplifies ‘organism’ as a
70 generic plant or generic animal (US DOE, 2004). The ICRP (2008) proposed a set of
71 Reference Animals and Plants which they defined as: ‘*A hypothetical entity, with the
72 assumed basic biological characteristics of a particular type of animal or plant, as described
73 to the generality of the taxonomic level of family, with defined anatomical, physiological,
74 and life history properties, that can be used for the purposes of relating exposure to dose,
75 and dose to effects, for that type of living organism*’. The ERICA Tool (Brown *et al.*, 2016)
76 uses an approach similar to that of the ICRP with 13 ‘Reference Organisms’ for each of the
77 three generic ecosystems. Reference Organisms are not specific species but are
78 representative of an organism type (e.g., ‘amphibian’, ‘reptile’, ‘macroalgae’, ‘mammal’,
79 ‘tree’, etc.). The ERICA Tool Reference Organisms encompass organism types that are: likely
80 to be highly exposed; radiosensitive organisms; representative of different ecological niches;
81 and representative of (European) protected species.

82 *Dosimetry*

83 In order to estimate the exposure (or dose rate) of organisms, dose coefficients (DCs), which
84 relate dose rate (e.g., $\mu\text{Gy/h}$), to the activity concentration (e.g., Bq/kg) in environmental
85 media (water, soil, air, sediment) or within an organism, are used to calculate external or
86 internal dose rate respectively (Vives i Batlle *et al.*, 2011). To calculate the DCs, organisms

87 are typically assumed to have a homogenous geometry (usually an ellipsoid). The ERICA Tool
88 and ICRP approaches select geometries (dimensions and masses) representative of a
89 representative species for the reference organism type. RESRAD-BIOTA takes a more
90 conservative approach in its initial screening tier by assuming a small geometry for the
91 external DC and a large geometry for the internal DC; these assumptions maximise both
92 external and internal dose rate estimates respectively. Weighted dose rates are estimated
93 by applying a radiation-weighting factor to account for the relative biological effectiveness
94 of different types of radiation. An overview of factors influencing DC values can be found in
95 Vives i Batlle *et al.* (2011).

96 More complex and more realistic models (i.e., including individual organs) have been
97 generated for a number of wildlife types (e.g., see Ruedig *et al.* (2015)). These are not
98 proposed for regulatory assessments, but they have been useful in demonstrating whether
99 simple homogenous geometry assumptions are generally fit for purpose in the available
100 regulatory assessment models. **Voxel** models could also have a useful role in interpreting
101 wildlife dose-effect studies.

102 *Estimating organism activity concentrations*

103 If organism activity concentrations need to be predicted, equilibrium concentration ratios
104 ($CR_{wo-media}$) relating whole organism radionuclide activity concentration to those in media
105 (typically soil, water or air) are commonly used (Beresford *et al.*, 2008). This approach is
106 pragmatic being simple to apply and some data are available (IAEA, 2014). However,
107 $CR_{wo-media}$ values can be highly variable, ranging over four orders of magnitude for a given
108 radionuclide-organism combination, leading to considerable uncertainty in predictions.

109 *Benchmarks*

110 For assessments, estimated dose rates need to be put into context with some form of risk
111 criteria (i.e., we need to be able to judge if the estimated dose rate will potentially cause
112 harm or not). Prior to the development of radiological environmental protection
113 approaches, a number of publications had compiled
114 data on the effects of radiation on wildlife from the
115 available literature considering population relevant
116 endpoints such as mortality, fertility and fecundity
117 (NCRP, 1991; IAEA, 1992; UNSCEAR, 1996). Through
118 'expert judgement', these reviews reached broadly
119 similar conclusions (Text Box 10.x; see original
120 references for exact wording). Although these values
121 were not originally proposed as benchmarks for
122 environmental assessment, they are now sometimes
123 being used as such.

124 The ICRP have proposed 'derived consideration
125 reference levels' (DCRLs) for their suite of Reference
126 Animals and Plants (ICRP, 2008). These are defined as
127 '*one order of magnitude broad bands of dose rates
128 covering the level where the dose rates warrant a
129 more considered level of evaluation of the situation*'.

130 The DCRLs range from 0.1 - 1 mGy/d (for Reference Deer, Rat, Duck and Pine tree) to 10 –
131 100 mGy/d (for Reference Seaweed, Bee, Crab and Earthworm). As for the UNSCEAR, IAEA

Text Box 10.x: Early estimates of dose rates below which population level effects would not be expected in wildlife.

IAEA (1992)

Terrestrial plants: 10 mGy/d

Terrestrial animals: 1 mGy/d

Aquatic organisms: 10 mGy/d

NCRP (1991)

Aquatic organisms: 10 mGy/d

UNSCEAR (1996)

Terrestrial plants: < 10 mGy/d

Terrestrial animals: 400 µGy/h (mortality)

Terrestrial animals: 40-100 µGy/h

(reproduction)

Aquatic organisms: 400 µGy/h

132 and ICRP reviews the DCRLs were based on expert judgement, though the decision process
133 was better documented.

134 To be consistent with approaches used for chemical regulation, Garnier-Laplace *et al.* (2010)
135 applied the species sensitivity distribution approach as described in Chapters 3 (Section 3.)
136 and 12 (Section 12.) to derive a screening dose rate (equating to a predicted no-effect
137 concentration as used for risk assessment of chemical stressors). This approach provided a
138 framework for a more transparent and objective derivation of the screening dose rate than
139 the previous derivation of benchmarks using expert judgement. The resultant estimated
140 screening dose rate was 10 $\mu\text{Gy}/\text{h}$ and this value is used as the default in the ERICA Tool.
141 The screening dose rate derived was generic across all ecosystem and organism types. It
142 would be beneficial to be able to derive organism-specific (e.g., at the level of terrestrial
143 vertebrates, plants, fish, etc.) screening dose rates as the application of a single screening
144 dose rate identifies the most exposed and not necessarily the most at-risk organism.
145 However, data availability precluded Garnier-Laplace *et al.* (2010) from being able to derive
146 organism-specific values. The screening dose rate is for use in screening assessments to help
147 screen sites out from the requirement for further assessment and to identify those that
148 need more detailed consideration; it is not a regulatory 'limit'. The screening dose rate is
149 applicable to the additional dose rate arising from the source(s) under assessment and not
150 the total dose rate including natural background exposure; this is consistent with the
151 radiological protection of humans. For comparison, weighted dose rates to terrestrial and
152 aquatic wildlife due to naturally occurring radionuclides of the ^{238}U and ^{232}Th series, and ^{40}K
153 are typically in the region of 1 $\mu\text{Gy}/\text{h}$ or less; this does not include the exposure of
154 burrowing animals to ^{222}Rn and daughter products which may be of the order of 10's $\mu\text{Gy}/\text{h}$
155 (Beresford *et al.*, 2012).

156 **The scientific controversy**

157 Three accidents, Chernobyl (Ukraine, 1986), Fukushima (Japan, 2011) and Kyshtym (Russian
158 Urals, 1957) have resulted in releases of radioactivity sufficient to result in radiation induced
159 effects in local wildlife. Such sites provide an ideal opportunity to obtain data under realistic
160 conditions of exposure with the potential to investigate population to ecosystem level
161 impacts, and to improve and test our environmental assessment approaches. However,
162 whilst it is accepted that radiation-induced effects have occurred in these areas, there are a
163 number of reports of significant impacts on wildlife at extremely low dose rates, for
164 example below the proposed screening dose rate or DCRLs discussed above, and in the
165 range of typical background exposure rates (Beresford *et al.*, 2020a). There are many factors
166 that might contribute to the reported observations at low dose rates including: poor
167 estimates of exposure; lack of consideration of confounding factors; residual influence of
168 acute/high exposures soon after the accident; or interpretation of statistical results.
169 Furthermore, some studies directly conflict in the findings, e.g., for mammals and leaf litter
170 decomposition rates (Beresford *et al.*, 2020b). These scientific disagreements on the
171 impacts of radiation at contaminated field sites have a relatively high media profile and the
172 potential to impact on public opinion. This controversy needs to be resolved to maintain
173 confidence in the environmental radiation protection approaches that have been developed
174 over the last 20 years and are now being used for the regulation of radioactive releases into
175 the environment from sources ranging from hospitals to nuclear power facilities. Recent
176 studies have attempted to start to address these uncertainties with priorities for future
177 research being identified (Beresford *et al.*, 2020a).

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