### **Avens Publishing Group**

J Environ Stud February 2016 Vol.:2, Issue:1 © All rights are reserved by Jargin

# Biological Effectiveness of Ionizing Radiation: Acute vs. Protracted Exposures

Keywords: Ionizing radiation; Dose rate; Chernobyl; Cancer risk

### Abstract

This letter refers to the current discussion around re-evaluation of the dose and dose rate effectiveness factor (DDREF) equal to 2, presently recommended by the International Commission on Radiological Protection. The topics of the threshold, hormesis and DDREF are interrelated with the linear no-threshold theory (LNT). The LNT does not take into account that DNA damage and repair are permanent processes in dynamic equilibrium. Given the evolutionary prerequisite of best fitness, it would be reasonable to assume that living organisms have been adapted by the natural selection to the background levels of ionizing radiation. Accordingly, there must be an optimal exposure level, as it is for many environmental factors. Several studies cited in the literature in support of the LNT and lowering of the DDREF down to 1 are discussed here. In the author's opinion, the dose-effect relationships with non-neoplastic diseases found in certain exposed populations call in question dose-effect relationships with cancer. Self-selection and other biases in epidemiological studies are discussed. The dose-response relationships should be clarified in largescale experiments involving different animal species. In conclusion, the LNT and under-estimation of DDREF tend to exaggerate radiationrelated health risks at low radiation doses and dose rates.

# Arguments against Linear No-Threshold Theory (LNT)

Radiation-related cancer risk estimates have been primarily based on the data from atomic bomb survivors. To adjust the risk estimates at acute exposures to low dose and continuous (low dose rate) exposures, a dose and dose rate effectiveness factor (DDREF) is used [1]. This letter refers to the discussion around re-evaluation of the DDREF value equal to 2, currently recommended by the International Commission on Radiological Protection (ICRP) [2]. The topics of the threshold, hormesis and DDREF are interrelated with the linear no-threshold theory (LNT). Hormesis and LNT are considered controversial by many scientists; discussion is in [3-8]. The LNT is corroborated by the following arguments: the more tracks go through a cell nucleus, the more DNA damage would result and the higher the risk of malignant transformation would be. "Decreasing the number of damaged cells by a factor of 10 would be expected to decrease the biological response by the same factor of 10" [9]. This concept does not take into account that DNA damage and repair are permanent processes in dynamic equilibrium. Given the evolutionary prerequisite of best fitness, it would be reasonable to assume that living organisms have been adapted by the natural selection to background levels of ionizing radiation [10]. Accordingly, there must be an optimal exposure level, as it is for many environmental factors: visible and ultraviolet light, different chemical elements and compounds [11], as well as the products from radiolysis of water [12]. Evolutionary adaptation to a changing environmental factor would lag behind its current value and correspond to some average

## Open Access

# Journal of Environmental Studies

**Editorial Article** 

### Sergei V. Jargin\*

Department of Pathology, People's Friendship University of Russia, Russia

### \*Address for Correspondence

Sergei V. Jargin, Department of Pathology, People's Friendship University of Russia, Clementovski per 6-82, 115184 Moscow, Russia, Tel: +7 495 9516788; E-mail: sjargin@mail.ru

Submission: 23 January, 2016 Accepted: 18 February, 2016 Published: 23 February, 2016

**Copyright:** © 2016 Jargin SV. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Reviewed & Approved by: Dr. Jim Clarke, Practice of Civil & Environmental Engineering, Vanderbilt University, USA

of historic levels. Natural background radiation has probably been decreasing during the time of life existence on the Earth. It can be argued that resistance against radiation carcinogenesis may not be acquired by natural selection because the average reproductive and cancer-developing ages in humans differ considerably. However, DNA repair is an ancient mechanism that had developed long time before the appearance of the human species. The double-strand breaks in DNA, induced by radiation, can be repaired by error-free or error-prone repair mechanisms [13]. Mutations and carcinogenesis are caused by many factors; it might be hypothesized that a low-dose radiation exposure would contribute to expression of repair-related genes, which would enhance the error-free repair of the damage induced by different mutagens. The conservative nature of mutation repair mechanisms suggest that they have evolved in the distant past so that modern organisms may have retained some of the capability of efficiently repairing damage from higher radiation levels than those currently existing [14].

# Discussion around Dose and Dose Rate Effectiveness Factor (DDREF)

Understandably, if a dose is split into fractions, a biological system would have time for repair, so that resulting damage would be lower. However, high LET radiation has generally been regarded to show a small or no dose-rate dependence in contrast to low LET radiation where low dose-rate can significantly reduce effects [15-17]. It can be reasonably assumed that high LET radiation, constituting a minor component of the natural radiation background except for the gas radon, has induced less adaptation of internal organs other than the lung. Besides, a track of densely ionizing radiation is generally much more destructive [18]. Accordingly, lowering the dose rate of low-LET radiation reduces carcinogenic effectiveness, whereas fractionation of high-LET radiation dose does not [19-21].

Several studies were cited in [2] directly [22-24] or through the review [25] in support of the no-threshold concept and lowering

of the recommended DDREF value down to 1. Some of these papers are discussed below. So, epidemiological studies based on the best fitting of functional forms do not necessarily prove a cause-effect relationship. In the study of Hiroshima and Nagasaki survivors [22], it was concluded that zero dose is the best estimate for the dose threshold, thus validating the LNT. This conclusion is, however, regarded questionable as the analysis had a priori restricted the possible functional forms of the dose-response relationship, resulting in the conclusion on a zero dose threshold [5,26]. If a more generalized functional form was used, the conclusion would have been different, as the lower bounds of the 95% confidence intervals would have been below zero for low doses; more details are in [5]. The artificial neural networks method was reported to have circumvented the limitation of [22] and demonstrated the presence of a threshold of excess relative risk in humans exposed to ionizing radiation [27]. Along with the elevated risk of cancer mortality, an increased risk of non-neoplastic diseases including those of circulatory, respiratory (pneumonia, influenza etc.) and digestive systems, was reported in [22], which can be seen as circumstantial evidence in favor of dose-related differences in medical surveillance and self-reporting, a phenomenon noticed also by other researchers in populations exposed to radiation [28], discussed in [29]. In the author's opinion, the dose-effect relationships with non-neoplastic diseases [30-34] call in question such relationships with cancer, reported e.g. in the studies [23,24,35-43] including those cited in [2,25] in support of the DDREF lowering. Although there may be some risk of cardiovascular disease at high dose and dose-rate exposures [16], existing data are insufficient to confirm a cause-effect relationship between radiation and cardiovascular diseases at doses below 1-2 Gy, while plausible biological mechanisms are unknown [44]. Average doses in the epidemiological studies [30-34] were lower. As mentioned above, people knowing their relatively high dose estimates would probably be on average more motivated to visit medical institutions (self-selection bias), being at the same time given more attention. Conscious or subconscious dose-dependent behavioral changes have probably contributed to the dose-effect correlations found in epidemiological studies: one additional X-ray, endoscopy or blood count can lead to a cancer diagnosis thus influencing statistics. The same mechanism can cause in future an increase in the registered cancer incidence in the high natural background radiation areas (Guarapari, Brazil; Kerala, India; Ramsar, Iran; Yangjiang, China), where no cancer increase has been detected so far [2,45-48]; although singular reports on enhanced cancer risk in such areas have already appeared [45,49].

A tendency to exaggerate medical consequences of Chernobyl accident in some professional publications was noticed in the 1990s [50,51]. Biases and conflicts of interests could have influenced results and conclusions by some researchers, e.g. [52-56], as discussed in [29,50,51,53,57]. This may pertain also to some reports cited in [2,25]. Similar biases might have been active in some studies correlating radiation exposure and minisatellite mutations in the offspring of exposed parents [58,59]. Studies of that kind have been commented previously [11,60]. More details are in [61-65]. There is also a tendency to emphasize radiation-related pathology in the Techa River and Mayak nuclear facility cohorts, although in some publications no increase in cancer or other potentially radiation-related conditions

were reported [66-68]; and existence of a threshold was held possible [68]. It was concluded, for example, that: "The number of radiationinduced cancers in the Techa river cohort has been lower than among Japanese A-bomb survivors" [69], which means that the risk from acute exposure is higher than from protracted one at the same dose. Other works stress similarities between the data from Japan and the Urals i.e. similar level of cancer risk from acute and lowrate exposures [70]. Accordingly, with regard to DDREF, the more recent papers concluded that carcinogenic risk resulting from lowrate exposure is not lower than that from acute exposure of A-bomb survivors [71] i.e. the DDREF value must be close to 1. Today, when the literature is so abundant, research quality and possible biases should be taken into account defining inclusion criteria for studies into pooled analyses, meta-analyses and reviews. For example, certain reports on Chernobyl-related thyroid cancer can be conductive to over-estimation of carcinogenic properties of radioiodine; discussed in [72].

### On the Dose-Response Relationship

A dose-effect curve for low doses and dose rates can be construed theoretically. There are numerous carcinogenic factors, both environmental and endogenous. The lower would be the level of added radioactivity due to contamination, the smaller would be its contribution compared to the natural radiation background, and the less significant would be the role of radiation in general compared to other carcinogens. Accordingly, the dose-effect curve would deviate from linearity with the dose and dose rate decreasing down to the background levels; the relationship can even become inverse in accordance with hormesis. A corresponding graph plotted on the basis of experimental data is presented in [73] with a comment that the window for maximum adaptive response protection occurs at doses between 1 and 100 mGy, where risk is reduced below the spontaneous level of cancer risk [73]. It means that a large part of experimental data is at variance with results of epidemiological studies discussed in [2,43]. Admittedly, data obtained in small animals as well as adaptive responses detected at the cellular level cannot be directly extrapolated to humans. Some animal experiments do not support the hormesis concept showing, for example, no life lengthening in mice continuously exposed to radiation at low dose rates [74] (critically discussed in [75]). Other researchers did report life lengthening of mice in analogous experiments [76]. In any case, the hormesis concept should be applied with caution as hormetic stimuli may act without threshold upon pre-damaged or atrophic tissues, or act synergistically with other known or unknown noxious agents including carcinogens [77-79]. In this connection, the petition to remove the phrase "As low as reasonably achievable" (ALARA) from the radiation safety regulations [80] is hardly justified, as exposures are unpredictable during a human life, while effects of exposures may accumulate. Hormesis cannot be used in the radiation safety regulations without compelling experimental evidence from largescale animal experiments using different species. Epidemiological studies in humans would be less informative because of the relatively low sensitivity and biases [7,81], in particular, dose-dependent quality of medical surveillance and more frequent self-reporting of people with higher doses (self-selection bias). The dose-response

relationships should be clarified in large-scale experiments involving different animal species.

### DDREF under-estimation: about motives

If vested interests cannot be excluded, the question cui bono? (to whose profit?) should be discussed. The LNT and under-estimation of DDREF down to the values below 2 [17] tend to exaggerate radiationrelated health risks at low doses and dose rates. Such exaggeration is conductive to strangulation of nuclear energy, the cleanest, safest (if everything is done properly) and practically inexhaustible means to meet the world's energy needs [52]. This would agree with the interest of fossil fuel producers. Nuclear power has returned to the agenda because of the concerns over increasing global energy demand, declining fossil fuel reserves and global climate changes. Nuclear energy emits virtually no greenhouse gases in comparison to coal, oil or gas [82]. In the author's opinion [83], revision and possible elevation of the dose limits both for the public and for professional exposures is indicated, which must be accompanied by measures guaranteeing adherence to the regulations. More international trust and cooperation would enable construction of nuclear power plants in optimally suitable places, notwithstanding national borders, considering all sociopolitical, geographic, geologic factors, attitude of workers and engineers to their duties [64,82] interrelated with their proficiency, moods, motivations and observance of human rights. Consideration of all these factors would make nuclear accidents improbable.

### References

- Hoel DG (2015) Comments on the DDREF estimate of the BEIR VII Committee. Health Phys 108: 351-356.
- Rühm W, Woloschak GE, Shore RE, Azizova TV, Grosche B, et al. (2015) Dose and dose-rate effects of ionizing radiation: a discussion in the light of radiological protection. Radiat Environ Biophys 54: 379-401.
- Baldwin J, Grantham V (2015) Radiation hormesis: Historical and current perspectives. J Nucl Med Technol 43: 242-246.
- Calabrese EJ (2015) Model uncertainty via the integration of hormesis and LNT as the default in cancer risk assessment. Dose Response 13: 1559325815621764.
- Doss M (2013) Linear no-threshold model vs. radiation hormesis. Dose Response 11: 480-497.
- Friedl AA, Rühm W (2006) LNT: a never-ending story. Radiat Environ Biophys 44: 241-244.
- Scott BR (2008) It's time for a new low-dose-radiation risk assessment paradigm-one that acknowledges hormesis. Dose Response 6: 333-351.
- Tubiana M, Aurengo A, Averbeck D, Masse R (2006) Recent reports on the effect of low doses of ionizing radiation and its dose-effect relationship. Radiat Environ Biophys 44: 245-251.
- Brenner DJ, Doll R, Goodhead DT, Hall EJ, Land CE, et al. (2003) Cancer risks attributable to low doses of ionizing radiation: assessing what we really know. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 100: 13761-13766.
- Johansson L (2003) Hormesis, an update of the present position. Eur J Nucl Med Mol Imaging 30: 921-933.
- 11. Jargin SV (2014) On the genetic effects of low-dose radiation. J Environ Occup Sci 3: 199-203.
- Kaludercic N, Deshwal S, Di Lisa F (2014) Reactive oxygen species and redox compartmentalization. Front Physiol 5: 285.
- 13. Rodgers K, McVey M (2016) Error-prone repair of DNA double-strand breaks. J Cell Physiol 231: 15-24.
- J Environ Stud 2(1): 5 (2016)

- Karam PA, Leslie SA (1999) Calculations of background beta-gamma radiation dose through geologic time. Health Phys 77: 662-667.
- 15. Cucinotta FA (2015) A new approach to reduce uncertainties in space radiation cancer risk predictions. PLoS One 10: e0120717.
- National Research Council of the National Academies (2006) Health risks from exposure to low levels of ionizing radiation: BEIR VII Phase 2. The National Academy Press, Washington, D.C.
- Haley BM, Paunesku T, Grdina DJ, Woloschak GE (2015) The increase in animal mortality risk following exposure to sparsely ionizing radiation is not linear quadratic with dose. PLoS One 10: e0140989.
- Shuryak I, Brenner DJ, Ullrich RL (2011) Radiation-induced carcinogenesis: mechanistically based differences between gamma-rays and neutrons, and interactions with DMBA. PLoS One 6: e28559.
- United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation (1993) UNSCEAR 1993 Report-Sources and effects of ionizing radiation. Annex F. Influence of dose and dose rate on stochastic effects of radiation. United Nations, New York.
- Balcer-Kubiczek EK, Harrison GH, Hei TK (1991) Neutron dose-rate experiments at the AFRRI nuclear reactor. Armed Forces Radiobiology Research Institute. Radiat Res 128(1 Suppl): S65-S70.
- Kreisheimer M (2006) The inverse dose-rate effect for radon induced lung cancer: a modified approach for risk modeling. Radiat Environ Biophys 45: 27-32.
- Ozasa K, Shimizu Y, Suyama A, Kasagi F, Soda M, et al. (2012) Studies of the mortality of atomic bomb survivors, Report 14, 1950-2003: an overview of cancer and non-cancer diseases. Radiat Res 177: 229-243.
- Krestinina LY, Davis FG, Schonfeld S, Preston DL, Degteva M, et al. (2013) Leukaemia incidence in the Techa River Cohort: 1953-2007. Br J Cancer 109: 2886-2893.
- Ostroumova E, Preston DL, Ron E, Krestinina L, Davis FG, et al. (2008) Breast cancer incidence following low-dose rate environmental exposure: Techa River Cohort, 1956-2004. Br J Cancer 99: 1940-1945.
- Jacob P, Rühm W, Walsh L, Blettner M, Hammer G, et al. (2009) Is cancer risk of radiation workers larger than expected? Occup Environ Med 66: 789-796.
- Cuttler JM (2014) Remedy for radiation fear discard the politicized science. Dose Response 12: 170-184.
- Sasaki MS, Tachibana A, Takeda S (2014) Cancer risk at low doses of ionizing radiation: artificial neural networks inference from atomic bomb survivors. J Radiat Res 55: 391-406.
- Zablotska LB, Bazyka D, Lubin JH, Gudzenko N, Little MP, et al. (2013) Radiation and the risk of chronic lymphocytic and other leukemias among Chornobyl cleanup workers. Environ Health Perspect 121: 59-65.
- Jargin SV (2013) On the radiation-leukemia dose-response relationship among recovery workers after the chernobyl accident. Dose Response 12: 162-165.
- Azizova TV, Haylock RG, Moseeva MB, Bannikova MV, Grigoryeva ES (2014) Cerebrovascular diseases incidence and mortality in an extended Mayak Worker Cohort 1948-1982. Radiat Res 182: 529-544.
- Azizova TV, Muirhead CR, Druzhinina MB, Grigoryeva ES, Vlasenko EV, et al. (2010) Cardiovascular diseases in the Cohort of workers first employed at Mayak PA in 1948-1958. Radiat Res 174: 155-168.
- Azizova TV, Zhuntova GV, Haylock RG, Moseeva MB, Grigoryeva ES, et al. (2013) Chronic bronchitis in the Cohort of Mayak workers first employed 1948-1958. Radiat Res 180: 610-621.
- 33. Krestinina LY, Epifanova S, Silkin S, Mikryukova L, Degteva M, et al. (2013) Chronic low-dose exposure in the Techa River Cohort: risk of mortality from circulatory diseases. Radiat Environ Biophys 52: 47-57.
- Yablokov AV (2009) 5. Nonmalignant diseases after the Chernobyl catastrophe. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1181: 58-160.

- Krestinina LY, Davis F, Ostroumova E, Epifanova S, Degteva M, et al. (2007) Solid cancer incidence and low-dose-rate radiation exposures in the Techa River Cohort: 1956-2002. Int J Epidemiol 36: 1038-1046.
- Sokolnikov ME, Gilbert ES, Preston DL, Ron E, Shilnikova NS, et al. (2008) Lung, liver and bone cancer mortality in Mayak workers. Int J Cancer 123: 905-911.
- Sokolnikov M, Preston D, Gilbert E, Schonfeld S, Koshurnikova N (2015) Radiation effects on mortality from solid cancers other than lung, liver, and bone cancer in the Mayak worker Cohort: 1948-2008. PLoS One 10: e0117784.
- Azizova TV, Korobkin AV, Osovets SV, Bannikova MV (2010) Latency period of acute leukemia in the Cohort of Mayak workers. In: Chronic radiation exposure: low-dose effects. Abstracts of the 4th International Conference, November 9-11, Chelyabinsk, Russia, pp. 14-15.
- Yablokov AV (2009) 6. Oncological diseases after the Chernobyl catastrophe. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1181: 161-191.
- Ivanov VK, Gorski AI, Tsyb AF, Ivanov SI, Naumenko RN, et al. (2004) Solid cancer incidence among the Chernobyl emergency workers residing in Russia: estimation of radiation risks. Radiat Environ Biophys 43: 35-42.
- Ivanov VK, Gorski AI, Maksioutov MA, Tsyb AF, Souchkevitch GN (2001) Mortality among the Chernobyl emergency workers: estimation of radiation risks (preliminary analysis). Health Phys 81: 514-521.
- 42. Little MP (2015) Ionising radiation in the workplace. BMJ 351: h5405.
- 43. Richardson DB, Cardis E, Daniels RD, Gillies M, O'Hagan JA, et al. (2015) Risk of cancer from occupational exposure to ionising radiation: retrospective Cohort study of workers in France, the United Kingdom, and the United States (INWORKS). BMJ 351: h5359.
- 44. United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation (2006) UNSCEAR 2006 Report Vol.1: Effects of ionizing radiation. Report to the general assembly, Scientific Annexes A and B. United Nations, New York.
- 45. Hendry JH, Simon SL, Wojcik A, Sohrabi M, Burkart W, et al. (2009) Human exposure to high natural background radiation: what can it teach us about radiation risks? J Radiol Prot 29(2A): A29-A42.
- 46. Tao Z, Akiba S, Zha Y, Sun Q, Zou J, et al. (2012) Cancer and non-cancer mortality among Inhabitants in the high background radiation area of Yangjiang, China (1979-1998). Health Phys 102: 173-181.
- Ghiassi-nejad M, Mortazavi SM, Cameron JR, Niroomand-rad A, Karam PA (2002) Very high background radiation areas of Ramsar, Iran: preliminary biological studies. Health Phys 82: 87-93.
- Nair RR, Rajan B, Akiba S, Jayalekshmi P, Nair MK, et al. (2009) Background radiation and cancer incidence in Kerala, India-Karanagappally Cohort study. Health Phys 96: 55-66.
- 49. Abbaspour M, Moattar F, Okhovatian A, Kharrat Sadeghi M (2010) Relationship of soil terrestrial radionuclide concentrations and the excess of lifetime cancer risk in western Mazandaran Province, Iran. Radiat Prot Dosimetry 142: 265-272.
- Jargin SV (2011) Thyroid cancer after Chernobyl: obfuscated truth. Dose Response 9: 471-476.
- Jargin SV (2013) Overestimation of Chernobyl consequences: Some mechanisms. Young Sci 6: 810-819.
- Jaworowski Z (2010) Observations on the Chernobyl disaster and LNT. Dose Response 8: 148-171.
- 53. Jargin SV (2012) Debate on the Chernobyl disaster: on the causes of Chernobyl overestimation. Int J Health Serv 42: 29-34.
- Balonov M (2013) The chernobyl accident as a source of new radiological knowledge: implications for Fukushima rehabilitation and research programmes. J Radiol Prot 33: 27-40.
- 55. Nikiforov YE (2010) Is ionizing radiation responsible for the increasing incidence of thyroid cancer? Cancer 116: 1626-1628.
- 56. Yablokov AV, Nesterenko VB, Nesterenko AV (2009) Chernobyl:

consequences of the catastrophe for people and the environment. Ann N Y Acad Sci 1181.

- 57. Jargin SV (2015) On the RET/PTC3 rearrangements in Chernobylrelated thyroid cancer vs. late detection. Int J Cancer Res Mol Mech 1.
- Dubrova YE (2003) Monitoring of radiation-induced germline mutation in humans. Swiss Med Wkly 133: 474-478.
- Rusinova GG, Glazkova IV, Azizova TV, Osovets SV, Viazovskaia NS (2014) Analysis of genome instability in offspring of "Mayak" workers families: minisatellite CEB1. Genetika 50: 1354-1362.
- 60. Jargin SV (2012) Some aspects of mutation research after a low-dose radiation exposure. Mutat Res 749: 101-102.
- Jargin SV (2013) On the low-dose-radiation exposure in the Techa River Cohort and mortality from circulatory diseases. Radiat Environ Biophys 52: 419-420.
- 62. Jargin SV (2014) Leukemia and cardiovascular diseases in the Techa river Cohort: New interpretation required. J Environ Occup Sci 3: 63-64.
- 63. Jargin SV (2015) Solid cancer increase among Chernobyl liquidators: alternative explanation. Radiat Environ Biophys 54: 373-375.
- Jargin SV, Kaloshin AK (2015) Back to the mechanisms of cancer incidence increase after Chernobyl. Int J Cancer Res Mol Mech 1.
- Jargin SV (2015) Focused review of mathematical modeling of radiationrelated abnormalities in the Techa River Cohort. J Environ Occup Sci 4: 114-117.
- Okladnikova ND, Pesternikova VS, Azizova TV, Sumina MV, Kabasheva NIa, et al. (2000) Health status among the staff at the nuclear waste processing plant. Med Tr Prom Ekol: 10-14.
- Buldakov LA, Demin SN, Kosenko MM, Kostiuchenko VA, Koshurnikova NA, et al. (1990) The medical sequelae of the radiation accident in the Southern Urals in 1957. Med Radiol (Mosk) 35: 11-15.
- Tokarskaya ZB, Scott BR, Zhuntova GV, Okladnikova ND, Belyaeva ZD, et al. (2002) Interaction of radiation and smoking in lung cancer induction among workers at the Mayak nuclear enterprise. Health Phys 83: 833-846.
- Akleev AV, Preston D, Krestinina Llu (2004) Medical and biological consequences of human's chronic exposure to radiation. Med Tr Prom Ekol: 30-36.
- Akleev AV (2005) Medical and biologic consequences of human chronic exposure to radiation. Med Tr Prom Ekol: 19-24.
- 71. Akleev AV, Krestinina Llu (2010) Carcinogenic risk in residents of the Techa riverside villages. Vestn Ross Akad Med Nauk 34-39.
- 72. Jargin SV (2014) Chernobyl-related cancer and precancerous lesions: incidence increase vs. late diagnostics. Dose Response 12: 404-414.
- Mitchel RE (2009) The dose window for radiation-induced protective adaptive responses. Dose Response 8: 192-208.
- 74. Tanaka S, Tanaka IB 3rd, Sasagawa S, Ichinohe K, Takabatake T, et al. (2003) No lengthening of life span in mice continuously exposed to gamma rays at very low dose rates. Radiat Res 160: 376-379.
- Caratero A, Courtade M, Bonnet L, Planel H, Caratero C (1998) Effect of a continuous gamma irradiation at a very low dose on the life span of mice. Gerontology 44: 272-276.
- 76. Matsubara J, Ogata H (2004) Comments on "No lengthening of life span in mice continuously exposed to gamma rays at very low dose rates" by S. Tanaka et al. (Radiat Res 160, 376-379, 2003). Radiat Res 161: 746.
- 77. Little JB (1990) Low-dose radiation effects: Interactions and synergism. Health Phys 59: 49-55.
- Tidd MJ (2008) The big idea: polonium, radon and cigarettes. J R Soc Med 101: 156-157.
- 79. Zhang R, Li J, Burns FJ, Huang C (2006) lonizing radiation synergistic induction of cyclooxygenase-2 with benzo[a]pyrene diol-epoxide through

J Environ Stud 2(1): 5 (2016)

nuclear factor of activated T cells in mouse epidermal CI 41 cells. Oncol Rep 15: 721-727.

- Marcus CS (2015) Time to reject the linear-no threshold hypothesis and accept thresholds and hormesis: a petition to the U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission. Clin Nucl Med 40: 617-619.
- Vaiserman AM (2010) Radiation hormesis: historical perspective and implications for low-dose cancer risk assessment. Dose Response 8: 172-191.
- 82. Smith JT, Beresford NA (2005) Chernobyl catastrophe and consequences. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Praxis Publishing Ltd, Chichester, UK.
- Jargin SV (2012) Hormesis and radiation safety norms. Hum Exp Toxicol 31: 671-675.