

1 **Field evidence of significant effects of radiation on wildlife at chronic low dose rates is**
2 **weak and often misleading. A comment on “Is non-human species radiosensitivity in the**
3 **lab a good indicator of that in the field? Making the comparison more robust” by**
4 **Beaugelin-Seiller et al.**

5 **Jim Smith, University of Portsmouth**

6 The intention of the paper by Beaugelin-Seiller and co-workers (Beaugelin-Seiller et al.,
7 2018) is to make the comparison of wildlife radiosensitivity in the field with that in the
8 laboratory more robust. The paper aims to evaluate the hypothesis that animals in the natural
9 environment are much more radiosensitive than those in laboratory settings. It draws heavily
10 on a previous paper by Garnier-Laplace et al. (2013) and supports the hypothesis of these
11 authors that organisms in the field are much more radiosensitive than those studied under
12 laboratory conditions. This earlier study has been well cited in the scientific literature (with
13 currently 96 Google Scholar citations) and both of these papers are providing data and
14 methodological approaches to the work of the International Commission on Radiological
15 Protection (ICRP). I believe, however, that both the Garnier-Laplace et al. (Garnier-Laplace
16 et al., 2013) and the current paper (Beaugelin-Seiller et al., 2018) are based on limited and
17 often flawed available field data and a flawed methodological approach. In both papers, the
18 authors note the high uncertainties of the approach and limitations of the data they use.
19 However, I believe that these problems are so severe that they are leading to the wrong
20 conclusions being drawn on the important issue of radiation effects on ecosystems. The
21 purpose of this letter is to highlight the deficiencies in much of the key field data used and in
22 the approach taken in these studies.

23 Scepticism about findings of major radiation effects on organisms at Chernobyl and
24 Fukushima is often misinterpreted as somehow suggesting that there are no radiation effects
25 at all. So it needs first to be stated clearly that there is little doubt that chronic radiation in the
26 most contaminated parts of the Chernobyl Exclusion Zone (CEZ) and at Fukushima is likely

27 to be causing some radiation effects (Baker et al., 2001; Baker et al., 2017; Lerebours et al.,
28 2018). The “hot spots” at Chernobyl, comprising perhaps a few percent (at most) of the
29 surface area of the CEZ, can give rise to dose rates to organisms $> 40 \mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$. It is accepted
30 by most scientists in the radiation protection community that radiation potentially damages
31 DNA at all dose rates without a lower threshold. The key question is: at what dose and dose
32 rate does significant damage to wildlife populations occur ?

33 **Remarkable claims**

34 In their important article (Chesser and Baker, 2006) summarising their long experience of
35 radiation effects research at Chernobyl, Profs. Ron Chesser and Robert Baker of Texas Tech.
36 University present a number of key lessons for the radioecological community, one of which
37 is that “*Incredible results require incredible evidence*” in relation to claims of major
38 radiation damage to barn swallows (at relatively low chronic dose rates) by the team of Prof.
39 Anders P. Møller of Université Paris-Sud and Prof. Tim Mousseau of the University of
40 South Carolina.

41 It is perhaps not clear to the casual reader how remarkable are the claims being made in this
42 paper (Beaugelin-Seiller et al., 2018) and the papers on which its key conclusions are based
43 (Møller et al., 2015; Møller and Mousseau, 2007). For example, based on re-analysis of data
44 collected from the area around Fukushima (Møller et al., 2015), the Beaugelin-Seiller et al.
45 (2018) study claims “*the total dose which would have led to a reduction of 50% of the total*
46 *number of birds (the so-called ED50) in the study area in the same 4-yr period has been*
47 *estimated at 0.55 Gy*” which, given the “exposure durations of birds in this study (from 295
48 to 1391 days)” gives a dose rate range of approximately $16\text{-}77 \mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$. So, chronic dose rates
49 in the range $16\text{-}77 \mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$ have apparently led to a 50% reduction in bird populations around
50 the Fukushima Daiichi nuclear power plant. Further, the authors claim “*the total number of*

51 *individuals would have been reduced by 26% with every change of one order of magnitude in*
52 *total dose (in Gy)*". So, an increase in cumulative dose from about 3200 μGy to 32,000 μGy
53 or 3.2-32 mGy (see Fig. 4 of (Beaugelin-Seiller et al., 2018)) and dose rate from between 0.1-
54 0.45 to between 1-4.5 $\mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$ is hypothesised to lead to a 26% reduction in bird abundance.
55 If this is correct, it is indeed a remarkable result which would seriously affect the recovery of
56 contaminated lands. Few people would want to live in an area in which birds are, apparently,
57 dying or failing to reproduce as a direct or indirect effect of radiation (the effect of radiation
58 was, apparently, found in both evacuated and non-evacuated areas (Beaugelin-Seiller et al.,
59 2018)).

60 It should be noted that current ICRP recommendations allow dose rates to humans of this
61 order or higher: the current occupational effective dose limit is 20,000 $\mu\text{Sv y}^{-1}$ averaged over
62 5 years with a maximum of 50,000 μSv allowable in any one year (ICRP, 2007). The 50,000
63 $\mu\text{Sv y}^{-1}$ level translates to an average of 31.25 $\mu\text{Sv h}^{-1}$ (approximately equivalent to $\mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$
64 for low LET radiations) for a 1600 hour working year, obviously allowing much higher dose
65 rates for shorter periods of time. Further the ICRP (ICRP, 2007) concludes that

66 *"in the absorbed dose range up to around 100 mGy [100,000 μGy] (low LET or high LET)*
67 *no tissues are judged to express clinically relevant functional impairment. This judgement*
68 *applies to **both single acute doses and to situations where these low doses are experienced***
69 ***in a protracted form** [my emphasis] *as repeated annual exposures.*"*

70 Human workers are only exposed for part of their time, and cumulative dose rates are lower.
71 Given, however, that significant radiation effects on wildlife populations are hypothesised to
72 be deterministic, the comparison of dose rates is relevant. The findings of the study above,
73 and the very low Predicted No Effect Dose Rate for vertebrates of 2 $\mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$ quoted in
74 (Beaugelin-Seiller et al., 2018) is in direct contradiction to ICRP recommendations for

75 radiological protection of humans. The contradiction is further emphasised by the fact that the
76 human system of radiological protection aims to protect the individual: the system for the
77 protection of the environment only aims to protect wildlife populations. Though it would be a
78 mistake to assume that the current ICRP recommendations for human radiation protection are
79 infallible, the contradiction illustrates how remarkable are the claims being made by some
80 studies of wildlife at Chernobyl and Fukushima.

81 **Weak and misleading evidence**

82 There appears to be a high level of quality control over the studies used in these assessments
83 (Beaugelin-Seiller et al., 2018; Garnier-Laplace et al., 2013):

84 *“All the publications that we evaluated were subjected to a grading system based on*
85 *dosimetry, experimental design, and statistical details (similar to what was done in the*
86 *PROTECT project; [Garnier-Laplace et al., 2010](#)). The quality criteria analysis permitted a*
87 *scoring of each individual paper, with 80 as the maximum value. Only data sets from papers*
88 *with total scores greater than 35 were used in our subsequent analyses. A score of >35*
89 *corresponds to A, B or C category score in FREDERICA, as defined in [Copplesstone et al.](#)*
90 *[\(2008\)](#).”* (Garnier-Laplace et al., 2013)

91 This appears on the surface to be a high level of quality control, but a careful reading and
92 critical analysis of the papers themselves suggests that **it is in no way sufficient**. Careful
93 reading of the studies used in the Garnier-Laplace (2013) paper shows that at least seven out
94 of a total of eleven data sets used in this meta-analysis either clearly should have been
95 rejected for use in the study, or are highly suspect (I haven't checked the remaining four).
96 Figure 1 reproduces the figure presented in (Beaugelin-Seiller et al., 2018; Garnier-Laplace et
97 al., 2013) showing the comparison of field (CEZ) and laboratory studies.

98 The Jackson et al. (2005) study (providing three of the eleven data sets for the Garnier-
99 Laplace (2013) SSD paper) clearly shows that these three data sets should not have been
100 used. As noted by Jackson et al. (2005) themselves, theirs was a “preliminary” study from
101 which it is not possible to draw conclusions on chronic dose effects at Chernobyl:

102 *“although the highest number of individual organisms was recorded in the low contamination*
103 *site (Paryshev) this coincided with the lowest overall biomass” and “it seems reasonable to*
104 *conclude that acute exposure to high levels of radiation may have denuded invertebrate*
105 *populations immediately after the Chernobyl accident. Subsequently, recolonisation has been*
106 *slower in regions subject to continuing high levels of soil contamination with ⁹⁰Sr and ¹³⁷Cs.*
107 *In part, this may be linked to habitat changes (e.g. loss of tree canopy cover in areas of more*
108 *extensive early die-back). Nonetheless, some niche expansion by remaining invertebrate*
109 *populations appears to have occurred as there is little evidence for any overall loss of*
110 *biomass when comparing high contaminated sites with relatively low contaminated sites”*
111 (Jackson et al. 2005)

112 Thus the paper concludes that changes are likely to be due to initial high dose rates shortly
113 after the accident and presents **no evidence whatsoever** on effects of later much lower dose
114 rate chronic radiation on invertebrate populations. I also note that one (apparent) positive
115 effect of radiation (higher invertebrate biomass) was wrongly included as a negative effect in
116 the Garnier-Laplace (2013) paper. This lack of evidence for effects is supported by more
117 recent studies of invertebrate activity in Chernobyl contaminated soils which show little
118 evidence of impacts even at very high dose rates (and in an area previously severely damaged
119 by extreme dose rates shortly after the accident) (Lecomte-Pradines et al., 2014). The
120 difficulty of distinguishing between long term effects of chronic dose rates and effects of

121 habitat changes due to initial radiation damage from high dose rates shortly after the accident
122 is a general problem in field studies (Beresford et al., this Special Issue).

123 The study of fertility of laboratory mice exposed in cages in the CEZ (Pomerantseva et al.,
124 1990) also should not have been used in the SSD (Fig. 1) for the obvious reason that they
125 were laboratory mice fed regularly and not subject to predation pressure. The hypothesis that
126 wild animals are more vulnerable to radiation than animals in the laboratory is not tested
127 using these (otherwise very interesting) data. Three study sites were used at dose rates to the
128 testes of 166, 5,000 and 42,000 $\mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$ (cumulative doses of 0.1, 3 and 25 Gy over the 25
129 day study period). A further problem with using these data is that it is not possible to
130 determine an unambiguous dose response curve given that there are few sites, little
131 replication and very wide dose rate differences between sites. In addition, the lowest dose rate
132 value (166 $\mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$) showed no significant difference from control. The error bars shown in
133 Figure 1 are likely to be a significant underestimate for the uncertainty in this data point.

134 Four of the eleven datasets supporting the conclusions of the Garnier-Laplace (2013) paper
135 should obviously not have been used. Other key studies used in the field SSD (Fig. 1) show a
136 huge contradiction, which was not properly considered in the Garnier-Laplace (2013) and the
137 present paper (Beaugelin-Seiller et al., 2018): studies of forest birds (Møller and Mousseau,
138 2007) and invertebrates (Møller and Mousseau, 2009) apparently show significant
139 population-level effects at dose rates much lower than other organisms show individual-level
140 effects (Fig 1.).

141 The paper by Garnier Laplace et al. (2013) rejected use of the study of invertebrates by
142 (Møller and Mousseau, 2009), stating that

143 *“sampling strategies and confounding factors are more likely explanations for the*
144 *“apparent” drastic decrease of the species abundance and numbers of individuals reported*
145 *by the authors at incredibly low dose rates. Therefore, those data from aboveground*
146 *invertebrates were considered as outliers [see Fig. 1] and were not used to interpret the*
147 *comparison of the range of variation of radiosensitivity of terrestrial species between*
148 *controlled exposure conditions and real field situations.”*

149 This paper is rejected because, in the light of what we know about the biological effects of
150 radiation on invertebrates, its conclusion (of dramatic population declines at dose rates which
151 are within the range of natural background radiation) makes no sense. It is very reasonable to
152 reject the paper on this basis, but this leaves key questions unanswered:

153 1. The study observed apparently highly statistically significant negative effects on five
154 separate species whilst (according to the authors) having “controlled for confounding
155 environmental variables”. How, then, did the authors get this remarkable result ? Is it
156 a huge statistical coincidence ? Or is there (as Garnier Laplace et al. 2013 speculate)
157 some unknown confounding variable unrelated to radiation which reduces insect
158 abundance at relatively higher dose rate sites ?

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160 2. If there is some confounding variable (unrelated to radiation) which reduces insect
161 abundance at relatively higher dose rate sites, surely this reduced insect abundance
162 and/or the unknown confounding variable would also impact on populations of other
163 animals, particularly birds. This unknown factor (not causally linked to radiation)
164 would therefore invalidate apparent findings of dose response relationships between
165 bird abundance and radiation level (Møller and Mousseau, 2007).

166

167 3. If there is no unknown confounding factor but instead data behind this finding is
168 flawed in some systematic way in which abundance is found lower at higher radiation
169 dose rate sites, how did such a systematic bias appear in the data on **five** different
170 species ? All data were collected by A.P. Møller.

171 **It makes no logical sense** to, on the one hand reject the Møller and Mousseau insect paper
172 (Møller and Mousseau, 2009) but, on the other, accept the bird abundance paper (Møller and
173 Mousseau, 2007). Beaugelin-Seiller et al. (2018) and Garnier-Laplace et al. (2013) must
174 either accept both (given that both of the original studies claim to have measured
175 confounding variables) and use them in their analysis, or reject both.

176 I think there is good reason for the radioecological and radiation protection communities to
177 **treat the remarkable claims by Anders Pape Møller and Tim Mousseau as highly**
178 **suspect** until their hypotheses are thoroughly tested by independent research. In Table 1 I
179 have summarised six remarkable claims by these authors and their collaborators. For each
180 one I have shown that there is very significant counter-evidence against these claims.

181 Although this is just a small part of the huge publication output of these authors, I think it
182 constitutes sufficient evidence to be **highly suspicious of the remarkable claims they make**
183 on the ecosystem impacts of low-level radiation.

184 It is also important for the radioecological and radiation protection communities to note that a
185 **number of eminent biologists do not cite work by A.P. Møller** (Prof. Chris Thomas,
186 University of York, pers. comm.; Prof. Richard Palmer, University of Alberta, pers. comm.)
187 following the ruling against him by the Danish Committee on Scientific Dishonesty, as
188 recorded in a news article in *Nature* (Vol. 427, p 381, 2004). Prof. Richard Palmer
189 (University of Alberta, pers. comm.) has stated “I had the impression that it was more
190 interesting to him [A.P. Møller] to get the paper published than to be correct”. Prof. Andrew

191 Pomiankowski of University College London, a former collaborator of A.P. Møller has stated
192 (pers. comm.) that "I never cite and stopped reading any research papers produced by Anders
193 P. Møller some years ago. I simply don't trust the research he does. In my eyes he failed to
194 adequately address the criticisms levelled against his research".

195 This does not definitively prove that A.P. Møller's work on radiation effects cannot be relied
196 on, but I believe that this evidence, together with the evidence presented in Table 1, must
197 make us highly sceptical of the remarkable claims by this group of researchers.

198 **Laboratory studies are likely to be more sensitive than field studies**

199 It is necessary to state that laboratory studies are better able to control for confounding
200 factors than field studies. It may (or may not) be true that animals in the field are much more
201 sensitive to radiation than those in the lab. But what is certain is that the many confounding
202 factors in the natural environment make it very difficult to detect (likely subtle except at
203 extremely high dose rates) radiation effects in the field. Field irradiator experiments were
204 conducted from the 1960's -1980's giving much valuable information (e.g. (Mihok, 2004)),
205 though this approach may not be feasible in the present day. Clearly, both field and
206 laboratory studies can be valuable. Since causal relationships are so difficult to establish in
207 complex natural environments, however, claims of causal effects of radiation need to be
208 supported by additional independent field studies and hypothesis testing in the laboratory:
209 this is very often lacking in radioecological studies.

210 **Problems with the methodological approach**

211 Aside from the problems with data discussed above, there are a number of other important
212 problems with the Species Sensitivity Distribution (SSD) approach as it is used in this
213 context:

214 (1) The comparison of species sensitivity must be based on some consistency of
215 environmental endpoints between species; from the previous Garnier-Laplace (2013) paper it
216 is clear that a wide variety of endpoints were used, ranging from individual to population
217 level;

218 (2) As the authors note (Beaugelin-Seiller et al., 2018), studies reporting no effects are
219 ignored; nine papers are cited in Table 1, all presenting counter-evidence to studies
220 apparently finding effects: none of these negative findings can be included in a SSD;

221 (3) The calculation of EDR10 value (the dose rate at which an individual species would
222 suffer 10% effects) has to assume a particular shape of the dose-response curve **which is**
223 **usually not at all supported by the data and analysis presented.** At low dose rates, the
224 shape of the dose response curve is likely to be impossible to determine in the field studies
225 cited by Beaugelin-Seiller et al. (2018) and Garnier-Laplace et al. (2013).

226 **Maybe the remarkable claims are right ?**

227 Scientific knowledge is always provisional (Popper, 2014) and hypothesis testing in complex
228 ecosystems is difficult (Peters and Peters, 1991; Smith, 2000). As detailed in Table 1, a
229 number of studies have provided important counter-evidence to the apparent findings of very
230 large radiation effects at very low dose rates. However, it should be acknowledged that there
231 has been no systematic and large scale independent study of bird populations at Chernobyl or
232 Fukushima which can adequately test the hypothesis of Møller, Mousseau and their
233 collaborators. It is possible (though I think very unlikely) that there is some mechanism by
234 which birds are much more radiosensitive than other species. Independent studies on birds
235 would be very valuable, though these need to acknowledge the limits on statistical power of
236 all such studies in a hugely variable natural environment (Beresford et al. this Special Issue).

237 **What if the remarkable claims are wrong ?**

238 It could be argued (using the Precautionary Principle) that the potential over-estimation of
239 radiation risk to the environment does little harm, since it encourages us to be highly cautious
240 in use of radiation which is, after all, a known genotoxin and carcinogen. But over-
241 estimation of radiation risk can also be damaging. The public and political debate over the
242 environmental costs and benefits of nuclear power clearly needs to be based on the best
243 available scientific evidence. Perhaps more importantly, there are hundreds of thousands of
244 people at Chernobyl and Fukushima currently living with chronic, very low level
245 anthropogenic radiation. The wholly understandable but (to the vast majority of the radiation
246 protection community) unfounded fear of significant radiation health effects has caused
247 major economic, social and psychological damage to communities living in Chernobyl
248 affected areas (UNDP and UN-OCHA, 2002). Apparent findings of major radiation effects
249 on animal populations at very low dose rates have a large media and public impact. If these
250 are wrong (and I think they are), they severely hinder the very difficult process of recovery of
251 the communities affected by the Chernobyl and Fukushima accidents and, I believe, **do real**
252 **damage to people's health and wellbeing.**

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261 **Acknowledgements**

262 This work was completed as part of the TREE (Transfer-Exposure-Effects) project under the
263 UK Natural Environment Research Council (NERC) Radioactivity and the Environment
264 programme, part funded by the Environment Agency and Radioactive Waste Management
265 Ltd. It was also completed as part of the NERC iCLEAR – Innovating the Chernobyl
266 Landscape: Environmental Assessment for Rehabilitation and Management (NE/R009619/1)
267 project.

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270 **Figure Captions**

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272 **Figure 1.** Reproduction of the comparison of field and laboratory studies using a Species
273 Sensitivity Distribution SSD (Beaugelin-Seiller et al., 2018; Garnier-Laplace et al., 2013)
274 with my comments in boxes. The outlier data on invertebrates (Møller and Mousseau, 2009)
275 was rejected for use in the SSD.

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278 **List of Tables**

279 **Table 1** Hypotheses by the group of Prof. A.P. Møller and Prof. T. Mousseau and counter-
280 evidence.

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Table 1 Hypotheses by the group of Prof. A.P. Møller and Prof. T. Mousseau and counter-evidence.

Hypothesis by Anders Pape Møller, Tim Mousseau and collaborators	Counter-evidence
Apparently highly significant reduction in abundance of five invertebrate species at radiation dose rates (for EDR ₁₀) in the range 2.9×10^{-2} to $3.4 \times 10^{-2} \mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$ (Møller and Mousseau, 2009).	Simply not a plausible causal effect of radiation given understanding of biological effects of low dose radiation. Natural background terrestrial and cosmic (weighted) dose rate to a “reference” bee in the UK is in the range $11-140 \times 10^{-2} \mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$ (Beresford et al., 2008). Our studies on invertebrates in aquatic systems at Chernobyl have not observed significant population level (Murphy et al., 2011) or individual (Fuller et al., 2018; Fuller et al., 2017) effects at dose rates up to about $30 \mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$.
Apparently highly significant reduction in mammal abundance at radiation dose rates in the range about 0.1-200 $\mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$ external dose rate (Møller and Mousseau, 2013).	Inadequate sampling methods: survey tracks were too short and too close together given the home range of many of the species studied. Actually found a very high mammal abundance in the CEZ: observations of wolves, for example, was reported to be 44 tracks/10km compared to 13 tracks/10 km reported in the much larger (Deryabina et al., 2015) study. Hypothesis not supported by Deryabina et al. and other studies of mammals in the CEZ (Baker et al., 1996; Webster et al., 2016), though only the small mammal studies (Baker et al., 1996) tested for effects at very high dose rates in small “hot spots”. Field irradiator experiments (Mihok, 2004) in Canada found no significant effect on vole populations at dose rates of approximately $1800 \mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$.
Approximately 70% of voles at Chernobyl have cataracts at cumulative dose rates from around 20 μSv to 80,000 μSv (1 μSv approximately equals 1 μGy for low LET radiations) (Lehmann et al., 2016).	Samples were not properly preserved likely leading to a huge overestimation of cataract incidence (Smith et al., 2016 comment on (Lehmann et al., 2016)). No dose response in male voles and only a weak response in females (over a range in cumulative dose from 20-80,000 μGy) is not plausible. Induction of large numbers of cataracts in voles at cumulative dose rates of $< 1000 \mu\text{Gy}$ ($< 1 \text{ mGy}$) is not plausible.
Major reduction in leaf litter decomposition by soil-dwelling invertebrates in a dose range between 0.09 and 240 $\mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$ (Mousseau et al., 2014).	As observed by Bonzom and coworkers (Bonzom et al., 2016), the leaf litter decomposition rate at the highest dose rate sites of Mousseau et al. (Mousseau et al., 2014) was “at rates comparable or higher to what is reported in the literature for the same or similar tree species at sites without any radioactive contamination”. No significant effects found (at lower dose rates in range 0.22 to 29 $\mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$) in a leaf litter decomposition study (Bonzom et al., 2016); no significant effects of chronic doses in range 0.7 - 220 $\mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$ on soil nematode assemblages at Chernobyl (Lecomte-Pradines et al., 2014).
Reduced reproduction of barn swallows: 40-60% of barn swallows were non-breeding at dose rates between approx. 5 and 60 $\mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$ compared to < 20% at “control” and low-dose rate sites (Møller et al., 2005).	Very likely confounded by absence of human population at Chernobyl (Smith, 2008): sites at high dose rate areas are abandoned; those at low dose rate and “control” sites are not. Møller and coworkers very clearly and seriously mislead the reader on the crucial question of whether key sites were abandoned or not ((Smith, 2008), Supplementary Information). At 6 $\mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$ ((Møller et al., 2005) observed 60% on barn swallows were non-breeding at approx.. this dose rate), a field irradiator experiment found no effect of radiation on tree swallow breeding performance or nestling growth rate (Zach et al., 1993).
“Elevated frequency of abnormalities in barn swallows at Chernobyl” at dose rates up to approx. 60 $\mu\text{Gy h}^{-1}$ (Møller et al., 2007).	Very likely confounded by absence of human population at Chernobyl (Smith, 2008): sites at high dose rate areas are abandoned; those at low dose rate and “control” sites are not. Previous work by A.P. Møller himself (Møller, 2001) has shown the cessation of farming practice (dairy farming) to significantly negatively influence barn swallow abundance, reproduction and nestling quality.

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