

Long-term investigations of ^{134}Cs and ^{137}Cs Activity Concentrations in Honey from Croatia

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Introduction

Honey is among the top products at risk of food fraud. This is especially true for net importers of honey like the European Union (EU). Although the EU produces about 250,000 tonnes per year domestic production covers only around 60% of consumption and the EU is also a net importer of honey, which makes it the largest consumer of honey with an average per capita consumption of 0.9 kg (European Commission, 2017). In the EU, honey is consistently among the top 10 products with cases of food fraud. Counterfeit honey not only economically endangers beekeeping, but also poses a public health risk for consumers since it can be contaminated with various substances and drugs illegal in the food industry.

Therefore, in order to assure the health safety of honey and other bee products, it is of increasing importance to perform chemical analyses as well as radiological characterization. In addition, using radionuclides such as radiocaesium as radiotracers can be a useful tool in assuring the provenance of honey as well as other food products, easing their labelling with quality labels.

In addition to naturally occurring radionuclides, atmospheric nuclear weapons tests, resulting in global fallout and accidental or routine releases of radioactive material from various nuclear facilities are the main causes of man-made radioactive contamination that enters the environment. The main contributions of artificial radionuclides to the Croatian environment were global fallout from previous atmospheric nuclear weapons tests and fallout from nuclear accidents in the Chernobyl and Fukushima-Daiichi nuclear power plants.

Among man-made radionuclides, those of radiocaesium, especially ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs , as the most abundant volatile isotopes of caesium, are regarded as a particular hazard to organisms. This is the consequence of their relatively long physical half-lives (30.00 and 2.06 years, respectively) and the chemical and metabolic properties of these radionuclides, which closely resemble those of potassium.

In Croatia, ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs in honey were first investigated after the Chernobyl accident in 1986 as part of an extended and still ongoing monitoring programme of radioactive contamination in the environment performed by the Radiation Protection Unit of the Institute for Medical Research and Occupational Health (IMI) ever since 1959.

The aim of this paper was to present long-term, post-Chernobyl, investigations of radiocaesium activity concentrations in multifloral and sweet chestnut (*Castanea sativa* Mill.) honey from north-west Croatia and broaden the knowledge regarding radioecological characterizations of honey. Such "radioecological fingerprinting" can be used to trace the geographical origin of honey as well as to help combat honey adulteration. More precisely, it could be expected that in certain geographical areas, activity concentrations of radionuclides (natural and man-made) and other radioecological parameters lead to a distinctive radiological imprint providing valuable additional tools evidencing floral, vegetable, regional, territorial or topographical origin or specific quality criteria.

50 It should be noted that in the EU there is high demand, but limited availability, of sweet
51 chestnut honey due to the relatively low presence of sweet chestnut trees in European forests,
52 limited distribution area of such mixed forests and decrease or even disappearance of sweet
53 chestnut trees from some mixed stands (Conedera et al, 2016). In Croatia, mixed sweet
54 chestnut forests cover 135,000 ha, while forests that have a high presence of sweet chestnuts
55 (70-90%) cover about 15,000 ha and are mostly situated in the Sisačko-moslavačka County.

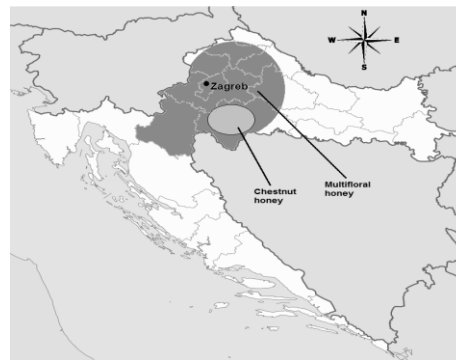
56 These forests therefore provide an opportunity for intensive beekeeping and production
57 of sweet chestnut honey of the highest quality. Sweet chestnut honey is very rich in pollen and
58 can be declared to be unifloral only if it contains >85% of sweet chestnut pollen (Official
59 Gazette, 2009).

60

61 **Materials and methods**

62 The total of 163 samples of multifloral and 12 samples of sweet chestnut honey were
63 obtained in late spring and summer, i.e., at the end of beekeeping season, preferably from
64 individual beekeepers. Data for years in which honey samples were not available for analysis
65 were taken from literature (Barišić et al, 1994; Barišić et al, 2002).

66 Samples of multifloral honey were collected in the area of north-west Croatia, while
67 samples of sweet chestnut honey were collected in Banovina region in Sisačko-moslavačka
68 county.



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70

71 Fig 1. Approximate sample location areas of multifloral and sweet chestnut honey and fallout

72

73 As certified reference materials (CRM) for honey are not available for radioecological
74 analyses, samples of certified organic honey obtained in Banovina region (*Banski med* from
75 the village of Klinac) were used instead.

76 Fallout samples were collected in the city of Zagreb. Dry and wet fallout (rain water) is
77 collected daily using funnels of 1 m² collection area. In rainy days the amount of precipitation
78 that contained the fallout was measured by the Hellman pluviometer. In the days without
79 precipitation, funnels were rinsed by 1 L of distilled water. Daily samples are merged into
80 cumulative samples which were analysed quarterly. Prior to gamma-spectrometric
81 measurements, samples were evaporated to 1 L volume.

82 ¹³⁷Cs and ¹³⁴Cs levels in the samples from their gamma ray spectra have been analysed
83 by gammaspectrometrical method accredited by Croatian Accreditation Agency in 2010.

84 In the period 1986-2003, gamma-ray spectrometry systems based on a low-level
85 ORTEC Ge(Li) detector (FWHM 1.87 keV at 1.33 MeV ⁶⁰Co and relative efficacy of 15.4%
86 at 1.33 MeV) and ORTEC HPGe detector (FWHM 1.75 keV at 1.33 MeV ⁶⁰Co and relative
87 efficacy of 21% at 1.33 MeV) coupled to a computerized data acquisition system were used to
88 determine radiocaesium and ⁴⁰K levels in the samples from their gamma-ray spectra.

89 Since 2003 for gamma spectrometry has been use a low-level high-purity ORTEC
90 HPGe detector (relative efficacy of 74.2% with FWHM resolution of 2.24 keV at 1.33 MeV).

91 The counting time for radiocaesium measurements depended on the sample activity,
92 was typically 80,000 s. Fallout samples were measured in Marinelli beakers of 1 L volume,
93 while honey samples were placed in plastic cylindrical containers of 0.2 L volume.

94 Quality assurance and intercalibration measurements were performed through
95 intercalibration programs organized by International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) and
96 Joint Research Centre (JRC), which also included the regular performance of blanks (empty
97 cylindrical containers), background and quality control measurements (Petrinec et al, 2011).

98 99 **Results and discussion**

100 After the nuclear accident at the Chernobyl nuclear power plant in Ukraine on 26 April
101 1986, fallout from highly radioactive atmospheric plumes originating from the damaged
102 nuclear reactor was spread and transported all over Europe causing contamination of the
103 environment. In 1986, the total surface deposition of radiocaesium measured in the fallout
104 collected in the city of Zagreb was 6,410 Bqm⁻² and 2,812 Bqm⁻² for ¹³⁷Cs and ¹³⁴Cs
105 respectively (Bauman et al., 1987).

106 Consequently, soon after the Chernobyl accident in environmental samples and
107 foodstuffs from the Republic of Croatia elevated levels of ¹³⁷Cs and, for the first time, of ¹³⁴Cs
108 were detected. ¹³⁴Cs is not produced in significant amounts in nuclear explosions of fission
109 weapons which occur in milliseconds. However, it is found in reactor inventories due to long
110 irradiation times of reactor fuels where it is produced via neutron capture from nonradioactive
111 ¹³³Cs, which is a common fission product. Therefore, the presence of this radionuclide in the
112 environment clearly indicated that a nuclear accident occurred.

113 The highest ¹³⁷Cs and ¹³⁴Cs activity concentrations in honey, like in most of the other
114 environmental samples and foodstuffs were recorded in May 1986 (Franic et al, 1991)
115 decreasing exponentially afterwards. In the mid-1990s, activity concentrations in honey for
116 both radionuclides were under the detection limit. However, ¹³⁷Cs activity concentrations
117 were for the period 1996-2010 above the decision threshold quantifying the physical effect,
118 which allows the conclusion that ¹³⁷Cs was present in samples, contrary to the ¹³⁴Cs activity
119 concentrations that were below decision threshold of measurement. Both ¹³⁷Cs and ¹³⁴Cs
120 activity concentrations after the Fukushima Daiichi accident were again detectable, but never
121 exceeded 1.5 Bqkg⁻¹ for both radionuclides. For comparison, in Poland, ¹³⁷Cs activity
122 concentrations in multifloral honey after the Fukushima Daiichi accident ranged from 0.24 to
123 10.57 Bqkg⁻¹ (Borawska et. al., 2013).

124 The activity concentrations of ¹³⁷Cs and ¹³⁴Cs in Croatian honey are shown in Table 1.

125
126 Table 1 about here
127

128 For comparison, ¹³⁷Cs activity concentrations in samples of honey collected in May-
129 June 1986 in Italy ranged from 106.8 ± 115 Bqkg⁻¹ in the Friuli region to 18.3 ± 11 Bqkg⁻¹ in
130 Lazio (Tonelli et al., 1990). Regarding honey samples harvested in Slovenia, the values of
131 ¹³⁷Cs activity concentrations in Slovenian honeys in the period 1987-1995 varied between 8
132 and 51 Bqkg⁻¹ (Bogdanov, 2006).

133 Activity concentrations of naturally occurring ⁴⁰K in sweet chestnut honey ranged from
134 267.0 Bqkg⁻¹ in 2012 to 19.7 Bqkg⁻¹ in 2017. The reason for this variability is not clear and
135 calls for further research. However, the lack of ⁴⁰K in honey would indicate an absence of
136 pollen, since potassium, and therefore ⁴⁰K is the principal constituent of pollen as well as
137 other plant tissues. The absence of pollen therefore raises suspicion in adulteration.

138 As the main mechanism of environmental contamination by radiocaesium is fallout,
 139 measured ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs activity concentrations in honey are correlated with fallout activity.
 140 When data for ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs fallout and honey activity concentrations from Table 1 are
 141 related to fallout by a simple linear equation, the coefficients of correlation are $r = 0.92$ and r
 142 $= 0.99$ for ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs respectively. Thus, from fallout data ^{137}Cs activity concentrations in
 143 honey can be modelled as:

$$144 \quad A_h(t) = 0.005 \times A_{fall}(t) + 2.041 \quad /1/$$

147 where:

148 $A_h(t)$ is the time-dependent activity concentration of ^{137}Cs in honey (Bqkg^{-1}) and
 149 $A_{fall}(t)$ is the time-dependent activity concentration of ^{137}Cs in fallout (Bqm^{-2}).

151 Equation /1/ opens up the possibility to use activity concentrations of ^{137}Cs to
 152 authenticate the region of origin and production year of honey, similarly to authenticating
 153 wine vintages (Hubert et al. 2009). In addition, we can argue that good correlations lead to
 154 greater significance of radioecological sensitivity of honey as a useful tool that helps to
 155 compare sensitivities of various environmental samples to radioactive contamination.

156 Another useful radioecological parameter that can also be readily assessed from long
 157 term data on radiocaesium activity concentrations in honey is the ecological half-life. To
 158 study the ecological half-life of ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs in honey, the mean values of ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs
 159 from Table 1 were fitted to the exponential function:

$$160 \quad A_h(t) = A_h(0)e^{-kt} \quad /2/$$

163 where:

164 $A_h(t)$ is the time-dependent activity concentration of radiocaesium in honey (Bqkg^{-1}),
 165 $A_h(0)$ the initial activity concentration of radiocaesium in honey (Bqkg^{-1}) and
 166 $\ln(2)/k = T_{1/2,eff}$ the effective (observed) ecological half-life of radiocaesium in honey (years).

168 For the 1986-1995 period, the observed effective ecological half-life for ^{137}Cs in honey
 169 was about 1.11 years. As ^{134}Cs activity concentrations in honey after 1991 were under the
 170 detection limit, and therefore not reported, its activity concentrations were analysed for the
 171 1986-1991 period. The observed effective ecological half-life for ^{134}Cs in honey was found to
 172 be 0.67 years. The difference between respective ecological half-lives of ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs in
 173 honey is, in addition to variety of environmental parameters that naturally fluctuate, mainly
 174 influenced by different radioactive decay rates of ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs . To find the real ecological
 175 half-lives, T_R , the observed constant k from the equation /2/ should be corrected for the
 176 radioactive decay. Therefore, it can be written as:

$$177 \quad k = \lambda + k_R \quad /3/$$

180 where $\ln(2)/\lambda$ is the physical half-life and $\ln(2)/k_R = T_{1/2,e}$ is the ecological half-life and the
 181 physical half-lives for ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs are 30.0 and 2.06 years, respectively (IAEA, 2014).

182 From equation the /3/, the real ecological half-lives for ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs were found to be
 184 1.16 and 1.01 years, respectively.

185 In 1986, the observed $^{134}\text{Cs}:^{137}\text{Cs}$ activity ratio in honey was 0.60, which reflected the
 186 theoretical ratio of 0.55 calculated by dividing the amount of radiocaesium released to air
 187 after the reactor explosion at Chernobyl i.e., $\sim 85 \text{ PBq Bq}$ of ^{137}Cs and $\sim 47 \text{ PBq}$ of ^{134}Cs as

188 reported by the IAEA (2006). Afterwards, this ratio decreased according to differential
 189 radioactive decay. The observed $^{134}\text{Cs}:^{137}\text{Cs}$ activity ratio in honey was similar to the ratio
 190 found in other environmental samples (Franić et al., 2008; Franic et al., 2009).

191 As the half-life of ^{137}Cs is about 15 times longer than that of ^{134}Cs , the $^{134}\text{Cs}:^{137}\text{Cs}$
 192 activity ratio is decreasing due to differential radioactive decay according to the relationship:

193

$$194 \quad R(t) = R(0) \times e^{\ln(2) \times t \times (1/T_1 - 1/T_2)} \quad /4/$$

195 where:

196 $R(0)$ is the initial $^{134}\text{Cs}:^{137}\text{Cs}$ activity ratio in May 1986, i.e., 0.55,

197 t is the time elapsed after the Chernobyl accident and

198 T_1 and T_2 are the physical half-lives for ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs , respectively.

199

200 After the Fukushima Dai-ichi nuclear accident in March 2011, the initial $^{134}\text{Cs}:^{137}\text{Cs}$
 201 ratio in honey was 1.08, which was consistent with the $^{134}\text{Cs}:^{137}\text{Cs}$ activity ratio reported to be
 202 about 0.9 – 1.0 at the site of accident (Masson et al., 2011). Therefore, it can be concluded
 203 that ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs have the same environmental fate as no discrimination between those two
 204 radionuclides has been observed during the transport from the place of their origin (Chernobyl
 205 or Fukushima) to the sampling site. However, it should be noted that in 2011, after the
 206 Fukushima Dai-ichi accident, $^{134}\text{Cs}:^{137}\text{Cs}$ activity concentration value of 0.9-1.0 could be
 207 observed only in samples in which pre-Fukushima, i.e., already existing ^{137}Cs from previous
 208 depositions was not present in larger quantities.

209 Radiocaesium fallout data along with activity concentrations in honey allow an
 210 estimation of radioecological sensitivity, (Rs) as another important radioecological parameter.
 211 It is defined as the infinite integral of activity concentrations of a particular radionuclide in a
 212 given environmental sample to the integrated deposition. Rs is sometimes also called the
 213 transfer coefficient from fallout to sample and in the case of food samples it is equivalent to
 214 UNSCEAR's (United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation)
 215 transfer coefficient P_{23} (UNSCEAR, 1982). Mathematically, P_{23} is defined as follows:

$$P_{23} = \frac{\int_0^{\infty} A(t) dt}{\int_0^{\infty} \dot{U}(t) dt} \quad /5/$$

216 where:

217 $A(t)$ is the activity concentration of given radionuclide (Bqkg^{-1}) in food and

218 $\dot{U}(t)$ the fallout deposition rate of this radionuclide ($\text{Bqm}^{-2}\text{y}^{-1}$).

219

220 As for values of $A(t)$ and $\dot{U}(t)$ assessed on a yearly basis, the integration can be
 221 replaced by summation, the value of P_{23} for ^{137}Cs in honey for the 1986-1995 period can be
 222 easily calculated to be $8.6 \times 10^{-3} \text{ Bqykg}^{-1}/(\text{Bqm}^{-2})$, while the P_{23} for ^{134}Cs from the 1986-1991
 223 period is $1.1 \times 10^{-2} \text{ Bqykg}^{-1}/(\text{Bqm}^{-2})$. That means that with each Becquerel of ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs
 224 deposited by fallout on an area of one square meter of land, the activity of one ton of honey
 225 increases approximately by 8.6 and 11.1 Bq of ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs respectively.

226 However, as in the year 1986, direct radiocaesium, i.e. both ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs , deposition
 227 was very high, it affects the overall results. Therefore, when 1986 is excluded from analysis,
 228 the P_{23} for ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs in honey for 1987 – 1995 and 1987-1991 respective periods were
 229 calculated to be $2.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ Bqykg}^{-1}/(\text{Bqm}^{-2})$ for ^{137}Cs and $1.9 \times 10^{-2} \text{ Bqykg}^{-1}/(\text{Bqm}^{-2})$ for ^{134}Cs .
 230 It can therefore be clearly seen that, for honey, the radioecological sensitivities of those two
 231 radionuclides were almost equal.

232 To put the obtained values into perspective, the ^{137}Cs transfer coefficient P_{23} for total
 233 diet was estimated to be approximately $1.2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ Bqykg}^{-1}/(\text{Bqm}^{-2})$ for the 1962 - 1979 period
 234 in Denmark (UNSCEAR, 1982) and $2.1 \times 10^{-2} \text{ Bqykg}^{-1}/(\text{Bqm}^{-2})$ for the 1987 – 2005 period in
 235 beef in Croatia (Franic et al., 2008).

236 To estimate radiocaesium health risk related to honey consumption, a reliable
 237 knowledge of ingestion dose is of particular importance. This is especially true when the
 238 ingestion dose is a significant part of the total dose received by the population after nuclear
 239 fallout, as was demonstrated to be the case in Croatia (Lokobauer et al., 1998). The dose
 240 received by members of the general public by consumption of honey (or any other food)
 241 contaminated by a mixture of radionuclides can be expressed as:

$$242 \quad E = C \sum_m D_m^{cf} A_m \quad /6/$$

244 where:

245 E is the annual effective dose in Sv,

246 C is the total annual *per caput* consumption of food in kgy^{-1}

247 D_m^{cf} is the dose conversion factor for radionuclide m , i.e. effective dose per unit intake, for a
 248 member of adult population which converts the ingested activity to effective dose;
 249 $1.3 \times 10^{-8} \text{ SvBq}^{-1}$ and $1.9 \times 10^{-8} \text{ SvBq}^{-1}$ for ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs respectively (IAEA, 2014) and

250 A_m is the mean annual specific activity of radionuclide m in food (Bqkg^{-1}).

251

252 The annual effective doses received by an adult member of the Croatian population due
 253 to radiocaesium intake, assuming an annual consumption of about 0.9 kgy^{-1} of honey per
 254 person, which is consistent with the honey consumption in EU (European Commission 2017),
 255 are estimated to be quite small, both after the Chernobyl and the Fukushima-Daiichi nuclear
 256 accidents. The effective dose after the Chernobyl accident was estimated at $\sim 0.8 \mu\text{Sv}$ in 1986,
 257 decreasing to 1.2 nSv in 1995. After the Fukushima-Daiichi nuclear accident, the per capita
 258 effective dose in 2011 was only 12 nSv (4.7 due to ^{137}Cs and 7.5 nSv due to ^{134}Cs). The total
 259 annual collective effective dose due to ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs intake for the Croatian population
 260 (4×10^6 inhabitants) was estimated at 3.3 Sv in 1986 and $\sim 6.0 \text{ Sv}$ for the overall observed
 261 period.

262 Although the consumption of honey in Croatia is not a critical pathway for human
 263 intake of radiocaesium from the environment, radioecological characterizations of honey and
 264 other bee products add another level of confidence to present radioecological monitoring
 265 programmes due to the mobility of honey bees and their ability to integrate all exposure
 266 pathways. In addition, “radioecological fingerprinting” of honey on the European level could
 267 be a useful tool in assuring its traceability to a particular geographical origin thus combating
 268 honey adulteration and related health and other risks. As potassium and therefore ^{40}K as well,
 269 is a principal constituent of pollen, whose presence indicates that honey is non-adulterated,
 270 measurements of ^{40}K activity concentrations in honey could be used as triage method to check
 271 for honey adulteration. However, further research is needed in order to assure adequate
 272 statistics of ^{40}K activity concentrations in different honey types (floral varieties).

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Table 1.

Activity concentrations of ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs in honey and fallout

Data for 1986 and 1987 are from Franić et al., 1991, data for 1988 and 1989 from Bauman et al., 1987-1990, data for 1990-1991 from Barišić et al., 1994 and Barišić et al., 2002, data for 1992-1995 from Barišić et al., 2002 and data for 2011-2017 are unpublished data measured in Radiation Protection Unit of the Institute for Medical Research and Occupational Health.

Year	Activity concentration in multifloral honey Bqkg^{-1}		$^{134}\text{Cs}:^{137}\text{Cs}$ Activity ratio		No. of samples	Activity concentration in sweet chestnut honey Bqkg^{-1}		No. of samples	Activity concentration in fallout Bqm^{-2}	
	^{137}Cs	^{134}Cs	Observed	Theoretical		^{137}Cs	^{134}Cs		^{137}Cs	^{134}Cs
1986	32.20 ± 20.57	26.40 ± 3.61	0.60	0.55	5				6410.0	2812.0
1987	18.10 ± 4.24	6.00 ± 2.44	0.33	0.40	7				1098.9	381.9
1988	9.03 ± 3.02	2.80 ± 1.67	0.31	0.30	6				716.0	163.0
1989	6.05 ± 2.45	1.65 ± 1.28	0.28	0.22	9				54.3	13.1
1990	4.00 ± 2.40	0.50 ± 0.30	0.13	0.16	12				17.7	4.0
1991	1.90 ± 1.10	0.10 ± 0.10	0.05	0.12	16				57.1	6.6
1992	0.70 ± 0.30				11				31.0	
1993	0.50 ± 0.20				17				18.5	
1994	0.30 ± 0.20				20				10.4	
1995	0.10 ± 0.10				10				8.4	
2011	0.36 ± 0.08	0.39 ± 0.03	1.07	1.00	2				2.0	0.2
2012	0.44 ± 0.06	0.30 ± 0.08	0.69	0.73	3				1.2	<0.1
2013	0.67 ± 0.23	0.43 ± 0.27	0.64	0.53	6				0.7	
2014	0.91 ± 0.51	0.46 ± 0.25	0.47	0.39	14	3.06 ± 0.20	$<0.52 \pm 0.39$	3	1.3	
2015	0.96 ± 0.17	0.48 ± 0.01	0.45	0.29	18	0.83 ± 0.08	---	3	0.4	
2016	0.36 ± 0.03			0.21	3	0.36 ± 0.01	---	3	0.8	
2017	0.82 ± 0.25				4	0.64 ± 0.01	---	3	1.1	

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