

# A global review of sediment source fingerprinting research incorporating fallout radiocesium $(^{137}Cs)$

O. Evrard, Pierre-Alexis Chaboche, Rafael Ramon, Anthony Foucher, J.

Patrick Patrick Laceby

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- 1 A global review of sediment source fingerprinting research incorporating fallout radiocesium (<sup>137</sup>Cs)
- 2 Olivier Evrard<sup>1</sup>, Pierre-Alexis Chaboche<sup>1</sup>, Rafael Ramon<sup>1, 2</sup>, Anthony Foucher<sup>1</sup>, J. Patrick Laceby<sup>3</sup>
- <sup>1</sup>Laboratoire des Sciences du Climat et de l'Environnement (LSCE/IPSL), Université Paris-Saclay, UMR
- 4 8212 (CEA-CNRS-UVSQ), Gif-sur-Yvette, France
- <sup>2</sup>Graduate Program in Soil Science, Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul, Bento Gonçalves Av.,
- 6 91540-000 Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil
- <sup>3</sup>Environmental Monitoring and Science Division, Alberta Environment and Parks, 3115 12 Street
   NE, Calgary, Alberta, Canada

# 9 Abstract

10 Information on the main sources supplying deleterious sediment loads to river systems is needed to 11 improve our understanding of soil erosion processes. In particular, it is important to quantify the 12 respective contributions of surface and subsurface sources to material degrading waterbodies. Radiocesium (<sup>137</sup>Cs), emitted during thermonuclear bomb testing (~1950–1980) and nuclear 13 14 accidents provides significant discrimination between surface material exposed to atmospheric 15 fallout and subsurface material sheltered from it. A systematic worldwide review of research articles (n=123) that used <sup>137</sup>Cs to trace sediment sources showed that the United Kingdom (n=24), Australia 16 (n=23) and the United States (n=20) had the highest number of publications utilizing <sup>137</sup>Cs in a 17 sediment tracing framework. In contrast, few studies were published for catchments in Africa (n=9) 18 or South America (n=2). In the northern hemisphere, positive relationships were evident between 19 <sup>137</sup>Cs activities in surface and subsurface sources and the proportion of thermonuclear bomb fallout. 20 21 However, given the low proportions of fallout received in regions between 0–20°N and 0–20°S, the potential application of <sup>137</sup>Cs tracing techniques may be limited in this area of the world as well as in 22 agricultural regions with severe soil erosion (i.e. Chinese Loess Plateau and South Africa). In total, 23 94% of the studies researching surface and subsurface sources that analyzed <sup>137</sup>Cs as a potential 24 25 tracing property included this parameter in end-member mixing models. The main challenges for the 26 future of this technique are mainly related to the access to ultra-low background gamma 27 spectrometry facilities and the development of surrogate tracers. Future research should ensure that 28 basic catchment information and details on the sampling design are properly documented to ensure 29 studies are reproducible. Moreover, researchers should provide raw measurement data to help improve our global understanding of <sup>137</sup>Cs dynamics in soil erosion research. 30

- 31
- 32 **Keywords**: watersheds; soil erosion; sediment tracing; fallout radionuclides.
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# 34 Highlights

- The meta-analysis compiled 123 articles considering <sup>137</sup>Cs for sediment tracing
- 70% of these studies were conducted in Europe, North America and Australia
- Fallout levels are too low in regions near the Equator and with extensive erosion
- <sup>137</sup>Cs was included in 71 to 94% of studies modelling source contributions
- Future research should systematically include details on sampling design
- 40

#### 41 **1. Introduction**

42 Exponential population growth and the concomitant expansion and intensification of our global anthropogenic footprint has resulted in an unsustainable and non-renewable loss of soil resources 43 44 threatening United Nations Sustainable Goals (e.g. food security) (Keesstra et al., 2016). To limit soil loss, best management practices need to be applied to landscapes degraded by accelerated soil 45 46 erosion processes generating significant sediment loads that impair downstream aquatic systems (Owens et al., 2005). Accordingly, identifying the main areas of soil erosion is a prerequisite to 47 improve our knowledge of the main factors driving soil erosion processes and guide the 48 49 implementation of best management practices.

50 One approach that effectively identifies areas with elevated soil erosion rates is the sediment tracing 51 or sediment source fingerprinting technique (Haddadchi et al., 2013; Owens et al., 2016; Walling, 52 2013). This technique is increasingly used around the world to quantify sediment source 53 contributions based on the measurement of biogeochemical and/or physical properties in both soils 54 and sediment through the use of statistical procedures and un-mixing models (Haddadchi et al., 55 2013; Koiter et al., 2013b; Walling, 2005). Effective sediment tracer properties, or fingerprints, must 56 significantly differentiate between potential sediment sources and behave conservatively during 57 erosion, transport and deposition processes, or vary in a predictable and measurable way (Koiter et 58 al., 2013b; Laceby et al., 2017; Smith and Blake, 2014). Although a variety of tracing parameters have 59 been utilized in sediment source fingerprinting research (e.g. element geochemistry, colour 60 parameters, magnetic properties, organic matter parameters), fallout radionuclides that originate 61 from the atmosphere and are quickly and strongly bound to fine particles provide a notably powerful 62 tool to investigate soil erosion sources and sediment transfer processes (Mabit et al., 2008).

In particular, caesium-137 ( $^{137}$ Cs; T<sub>1/2</sub> = 30 y) is often used to identify whether sediment has been 63 generated by surface or subsurface erosion processes. This fallout radionuclide was mainly supplied 64 65 to exposed soils during atmospheric thermonuclear bomb testing between the 1950s and the 1970s, 66 with a peak in 1963 and 1965 in the northern and southern hemispheres, respectively (Arnaud et al., 2006; Cambray et al., 1989; Turney et al., 2018). Accordingly, surface soils exposed to atmospheric 67 fallout are typically enriched in <sup>137</sup>Cs, while subsurface soils (e.g. gullies and channel banks) that were 68 sheltered from direct fallout are typically depleted in <sup>137</sup>Cs (Campbell et al., 1985; Loughran et al., 69 70 1982; Peart and Walling, 1988).

In the 1980s, researchers investigated the utility of using <sup>137</sup>Cs to discriminate between potential sediment sources in Australia (Campbell et al., 1985; Loughran et al., 1982) and in the UK (Peart and Walling, 1988). As <sup>137</sup>Cs is concentrated near the soil surface, sediments eroded from rill or sheet erosion processes typically have <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations that are higher than sediments eroded from subsurface erosion processes, with erosion on cultivated soils plotting between these two potential source end-members (He and Walling, 1995; Wallbrink and Murray, 1993). Walling and Woodward (1992) were the first to use un-mixing models demonstrating the potential to capitalize on the consistent differences of <sup>137</sup>Cs in these potential source soils and quantify their contributions to sediment sampled in waterways.

80 Several review papers have recently been published on sediment tracing techniques in general 81 (Haddadchi et al., 2013; Koiter et al., 2013b; Owens et al., 2016; Walling, 2013), or on fallout 82 radionuclides in particular (Mabit et al., 2014; Matisoff, 2014; Taylor et al., 2013). However, these reviews have not provided a structured and comprehensive worldwide synthesis of <sup>137</sup>Cs utilized as a 83 84 tracer in sediment source fingerprinting research. Accordingly, this literature review was based on a Web of Science search to provide structure to our meta-analysis of articles incorporating <sup>137</sup>Cs in 85 sediment fingerprinting research to help facilitate the future application of this tracer worldwide. In 86 particular, the advantages and drawbacks associated with the use of <sup>137</sup>Cs in sediment source 87 88 fingerprinting research are highlighted and perspectives for future research investigating sediment source contributions with <sup>137</sup>Cs are outlined. Overall, this fallout radionuclide has significant potential 89 90 to help guide targeting best management practices to reduce the effects of accelerated soil erosion 91 worldwide.

#### 92 2. Literature overview

Journal articles using cesium-137 published in the English language were pulled from the Web of
Science up to 30 August 2019. The search keywords 'cesium-137', '<sup>137</sup>Cs', 'fallout radionuclides',
'sediment' and 'tracing' or 'fingerprinting' were used in isolation and/or in combination.

#### 96 2.1 Study areas

97 In total, the database comprised investigations conducted in 215 catchments from 123 journal 98 articles. Studies conducted in the UK represented almost one fifth (19%) of the articles in the 99 database. The large contribution of the British studies is likely explained by the pioneer work initiated 100 by the research team of Professor Desmond Walling at the University of Exeter, and his former PhD 101 students who continued in research after their theses.

102 Overall, studies conducted either in Europe or in North America constituted 52% of the articles. In 103 North America, the work conducted in the US clearly dominates (representing 80% of the articles in 104 this region). In Europe, outside of the UK, the countries with the largest number of articles were 105 Spain (n=8) and France (n=6). Research carried out in Asia contributed to 20% of the articles (n=25), 106 with the highest number of articles published in Japan (n=5) and China (n=5). A significant number of 107 articles were published in Australia (n=23; 19% of the world total), including several papers that provided methodological background on the use of fallout radionuclides as fingerprints (Murray et 108 al., 1993; Olley et al., 1993; Olley et al., 1996; Wallbrink et al., 1999). Although soil erosion is 109 110 widespread in Africa and South America (Anache et al., 2017; Vanmaercke et al., 2014), very few studies were conducted on these continents (Africa 7%, n=9; South America 2%, n=2). When mapping locations where <sup>137</sup>Cs was measured (Fig. 1), a clear dominance of research conducted in the US, Europe and along the eastern coast of Australia is demonstrated.

#### 114 2.2. Research Design

115 Most papers (93%) provided summary information on their catchments or study locations. For those 116 catchments where the surface area was provided, the mean surface area was 3859 km<sup>2</sup> (standard 117 deviation (SD) 17,630 km<sup>2</sup>), with this relatively high value being impacted by the large surface area of 118 several studies in Australia (up to 130,000 km<sup>2</sup>).

- 119 The study design was strongly variable with the source numbers ranging between six and 893 (mean: 123; SD: 150; median: 70), corresponding to a mean source density of 47 samples per km<sup>2</sup>. Although 120 121 the most common sampling procedure was the collection of the uppermost 0-2 cm soil layer (n=39 122 articles), multiple strategies were employed including sampling the 0-5 cm (n=25), 0-1 cm (n=9), 0-1123 10 cm (n=4) or 0–2.5 cm (n=2) of surface soils. Sediment collected on hillslopes was used as a 124 surrogate for source material in six studies. This technique may be useful to facilitate the direct 125 comparison of source and sediment characteristics. Soil profiles were used to characterise sources in 126 nine articles. Unfortunately, information on the source sampling depth was not provided in a large 127 number of studies (n=34, 28%).
- Sediment samples mainly consisted of suspended matter (n=31 articles), core(s) collected in lakes, reservoirs or floodplains (n=18), bed material (n=18), material collected in sediment traps or 'timeintegrated samplers' (n=14) often based on the design proposed by Phillips et al. (2000), lag deposits (n=6) or a combination of a least two of the previous options (n=14). Of note, information on the type of sediment collected was not mentioned in 22 studies (18%). The number of sediment samples analysed strongly varied among studies, from four to 345 samples (mean: 48; SD: 61; median: 28). Of note, this information was not provided in 40 studies (33%).
- 135 Regarding particle size, the < 63  $\mu$ m fraction was by far the most common (n=57 articles), followed by 136 the < 2 mm fraction (n=28). A limited number of studies analysed the <10  $\mu$ m fraction (n=9). Of note, 137 among these nine studies, eight were carried out in Australian catchments. Only three studies 138 investigated multiple particle size fractions. Occasionally, other particle size thresholds were used 139 (<200  $\mu$ m, n=2; <250  $\mu$ m, n=2). Information on the particle size fraction analysed was not provided 140 for 22 studies (18%).
- 141 Overall, the number of studies analysing <sup>137</sup>Cs in tracing research in order to quantify sediment 142 source contributions increased from only 1.2 articles per year between 1988–1998 to seven articles 143 per year between 2009–2019 (Fig. 2) demonstrating the increasing popularity of this technique.
- 144

# 145 **3.** Spatial patterns of <sup>137</sup>Cs deposition across the world

The deposition of <sup>137</sup>Cs reached a peak in 1963 and 1965 in the northern and southern hemispheres, 146 147 respectively (Fig. 3). Fallout became negligible after 1980 when China stopped testing nuclear 148 weapons. There are localized exceptions, including most regions of Europe (Evangeliou et al., 2016) affected by the 1986 Chernobyl fallout and several Prefectures in Japan that received significant 149 fallout following the Fukushima Dai-ichi Nuclear Power Plant accident in 2011 (Saito and Onda, 150 2015). However, even in areas affected by accidental fallout, this additional <sup>137</sup>Cs supply did not 151 152 fundamentally affect the ability of this radionuclide to discriminate surface sources, enriched in <sup>137</sup>Cs, 153 and subsurface sources, sheltered from the main fallout (Evrard et al., 2016).

154 Data available from the United Nations Scientific Committee on the Effects of Atomic Radiation (UNSCEAR) demonstrate that the majority of the fallout occurred in the Northern Hemisphere 155 156 (~77%), relative to the Southern Hemisphere (~23%)(UNSCEAR, 2000). The results of long-term 157 monitoring programmes of global fallout deposition were compiled to estimate the proportion of 158 global fallout through worldwide networks operated by the Environmental Measurements 159 Laboratory (EML) in the United States (Health and Safety Laboratory, 1977). Deposition densities at 160 individual sites were averaged out for each 10-degree latitude band and multiplied by their area to 161 obtain global deposition amounts. However, a significant proportion of data is lacking, and this 162 spatial distribution should therefore be taken with caution (Fig. 4).

To compare surface and subsurface <sup>137</sup>Cs activities, data available from articles compiled in the 163 164 current research were decay-corrected to 1 January 2019 (based on the sampling/reference date 165 when it was provided or based on the 5-yr mean duration calculated in the current research between 166 sampling and publication). To provide a worldwide basis for comparison of those activities, the mean 167 <sup>137</sup>Cs activities reported for cultivated topsoil versus subsurface sources (i.e., gullies, badlands and channel banks) were grouped in 10° latitudinal bands and compared to the proportion of fallout 168 169 received in each band after UNSCEAR (2000). Overall, a positive relationship is observed between the 170 mean <sup>137</sup>Cs activities in surface (Fig. 5a) and subsurface (Fig. 5b) sources and the proportion of total fallout received in each latitudinal band of the Northern Hemisphere ( $0.62 < r^2 < 0.68$ ). 171

172 In the southern hemisphere, a positive relationship between the mean activities in the topsoil 173 sources (Fig. 5c) or the subsurface sources (Fig. 5d) and the proportion of fallout received is also 174 found from the Equator to the southern latitude. However, given the low quantity of data compiled, 175 these relationships should be taken with caution. The higher uncertainties are likely due to the lower 176 quantity of data available and their concentration between 0°-10°S and 30°-40°S in the southern 177 hemisphere where 55 and 51% of missing data were calculated, respectively (Fig. 4).

178 In both hemispheres, a positive relationship was found between the mean <sup>137</sup>Cs activities in 179 surface/subsurface sources and the increasing latitudes. However, the relatively large dispersion of values found at similar latitudes may prevent the direct use of these relationships for characterizing
 <sup>137</sup>Cs activities in surface and subsurface sources (Fig. 6). The variations observed at similar latitudes
 may be explained by local factors (e.g. slope, orientation) and differences of land uses (cultivated vs.
 uncultivated) or farming practices (e.g. tillage vs. no-tillage) leading to varying levels of soil erosion.

This data clearly demonstrates that in 2019, <sup>137</sup>Cs activities are sufficiently high in surface sources in areas located above 20°N and below 20°S to be relatively easily detectable with low-background gamma spectrometry equipment (Fig. 6). In contrast, for most areas located around the Equator (i.e. between 20°N and 20°S), <sup>137</sup>Cs activities in surface soils are likely to be very low (often < 2 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) and may therefore be increasingly difficult to differentiate from subsurface sources, which are generally lower than 1.5 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>.

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# 4. Spatial applicability of <sup>137</sup>Cs based-tracing across the globe

Although most of the studies using <sup>137</sup>Cs were conducted in North America, Europe and along the eastern coast of Australia, evidence exists in the literature to outline areas where there is potential to use this radionuclide in sediment tracing studies and regions where <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations are not sufficient and/or will soon become too low to conduct this type of research. As <sup>137</sup>Cs is preferentially bound to the finer particle size fractions (He and Walling, 1995), the method should be applied at locations where sediment contains significant amounts of clay and silt.

197 In the Northern Hemisphere, where 77% of the total fallout is estimated to have occurred (UNSCEAR, 198 2000), this technique should be applicable to most regions of Europe and North America. In the studies reviewed, no problems were reported for the detection of <sup>137</sup>Cs in these regions. 199 Furthermore, the <sup>137</sup>Cs-based technique to discriminate between surface and subsurface sources 200 should be applicable in areas exposed to Chernobyl fallout, as subsoils were sheltered from 201 atmospheric fallout (Belyaev et al., 2013). As the <sup>137</sup>Cs technique has been extensively applied in 202 203 Europe and North America, our review here will focus on contexts where there has been less 204 application of this tracing technique.

In Asia, a variety of environmental contexts may complicate the utilization of <sup>137</sup>Cs to trace surface 205 and subsurface sources. On China's Loess Plateau, soil erosion is so extensive that Li et al. (2017) 206 used <sup>137</sup>Cs to discriminate between sediment derived from gully areas (activities ~1.5 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) and 207 inter-gully areas (activities ~0 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>). These results demonstrate that <sup>137</sup>Cs will soon no longer be 208 detectable in this type of environment exposed to very high erosion levels. In contrast, significantly 209 higher <sup>137</sup>Cs activities were detected in the black soil region of Northeast China, both in cultivated 210 land (mean: 2.0 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) and in gully areas (mean 0.3 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>), despite the fact that this region was 211 also exposed to high soil degradation over the last several decades. Similar <sup>137</sup>Cs activities (~2 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) 212 were detected in a catchment of the Sichuan Province (Tang et al., 2014) and the surface and 213

subsurface tracing method was also demonstrated to be applicable in the Upper Yangtze River basin(Long et al., 2012).

In Japan, <sup>137</sup>Cs may still be used to discriminate between different sources of sediment, even after 216 217 the Fukushima Dai-ichi Nuclear Power Plant accident in low-fallout areas (Ochiai et al., 2015). The shorter-lived <sup>134</sup>Cs isotope ( $t_{1/2}$  = 2 y) is also detectable in this post-accidental context, which may 218 provide discrimination between the global fallout <sup>137</sup>Cs and the additional <sup>137</sup>Cs Fukushima fallout, as 219 the <sup>134</sup>Cs deposited after the thermonuclear bomb tests conducted in the 1960s is no longer 220 detectable. Background information on <sup>137</sup>Cs activities prevailing in Japanese soils before the 221 222 Fukushima Dai-ichi Nuclear Power Plant accident is available in the literature as sediment tracing techniques based on fallout radionuclides were conducted in forested (Fukuyama et al., 2010) and 223 224 agricultural (Ahn et al., 2009) catchments in Japan before 2011. The only other region of the world where significant levels of <sup>134</sup>Cs (and hence of extra <sup>137</sup>Cs) originating from Fukushima accident were 225 reported is Hawaii, although this <sup>134</sup>Cs fallout will rapidly decay to undetectable levels (McKenzie and 226 227 Dulai, 2017).

228 In other Asian countries, sediment sources collected in a catchment in South Korea discriminated between channel banks (mean <sup>137</sup>Cs activities of 2.2 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) and forest soil sources (mean 13.5 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) 229 230 <sup>1</sup>) (Lim et al., 2014). Another successful approach was conducted in a forested catchment of South 231 Korea (Kim et al., 2013). The applicability of the approach in Taiwan was also demonstrated in a study conducted in a catchment covered with tea plantations (Zehetner et al., 2008). In contrast, in a 232 catchment of Central Thailand, <sup>137</sup>Cs activities were systematically < 1 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup> for all sources (i.e., 233 uncultivated, cultivated and pasture soils)(Srisuksawad et al., 2015). These results differed with those 234 obtained in a study conducted in Eastern Indonesia, where surface (mean: 1.9 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) and 235 subsurface (< 0.3 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) source contributions could be discriminated based on their <sup>137</sup>Cs fallout 236 activities (Hobgen et al., 2014). Surprisingly, only two studies using <sup>137</sup>Cs for tracing sediment source 237 238 contributions were found in India (Froehlich, 2004; Froehlich and Walling, 2006).

In the Southern Hemisphere, where less fallout is estimated to have occurred (~23%) (UNSCEAR, 2000), much less information is available regarding areas where the method is applicable. In Africa, this technique was shown to be applicable in Tunisia (Ben Slimane et al., 2013) as well as in Burkina Faso (Rode et al., 2018). This suggests that the technique can be used in the Maghreb and Sahel countries, at least in areas where soils are not too sandy. In addition, sufficient <sup>137</sup>Cs levels were found in Zambia despite this country being located at a relatively low latitude (~16°S) (Walling et al., 2001).

Depending on the region, numerous areas in the Southern Hemisphere had high levels of soil
 degradation associated with the arrival of European settlers (i.e. from the early 19<sup>th</sup> century in South
 Africa), which likely led to the rapid erosion of the upper soil layers tagged with <sup>137</sup>Cs. In South Africa,

Foster et al. (2017) measured low and highly variable <sup>137</sup>Cs contents ( $2 \pm 2$  Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) in topsoil, particularly in catchments having variable soil cover on steep rocky hillslopes. The difficulty in using <sup>137</sup>Cs as fingerprint was also demonstrated by van der Waal et al. (2015) who detected <sup>137</sup>Cs in only 50% of 28 surface soil samples collected from a small catchment in the Drakensberg mountain range region.

In contrast, in South America, higher levels of fallout radionuclides were found in an agricultural catchment of Southern Brazil (Minella et al., 2014) and in forested catchments of Chile (Schuller et al., 2013). The extremely low number of studies (n=2) considering <sup>137</sup>Cs as a potential source fingerprint in South America shows the large development potential existing in this region for the future. This is particularly true in those regions located below 20°S (i.e. Argentina, Chile, Paraguay, Uruguay and the southernmost part of Brazil) where <sup>137</sup>Cs activities exceeding 2 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup> should be widely found in surface sources.

261 In Oceania, this technique was mainly applied to catchments (n = 40) located along the eastern coast 262 of Australia (Krause et al., 2003; Olley et al., 2013b; Wilkinson et al., 2013). Significant and detectable 263 <sup>137</sup>Cs activities were found in surface sources, including managed or unmanaged forests, grazed or unmanaged pastures, cropland and bushland, which were easily differentiated from subsurface 264 sources including gullies and channel banks that were totally depleted in <sup>137</sup>Cs. One exception was a 265 mining catchment of New Caledonia, South Pacific Islands, where the very low <sup>137</sup>Cs activities 266 267 measured in mining and non-mining tributaries indicated the dominance of subsurface sources in the 268 sediment contribution in this region. Given much higher activities were measured at similar latitudes 269 in Australia, these low activities likely reflect the intensity of soil erosion processes and the 270 dominance of subsoil erosion on this island (Sellier et al., 2019).

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### 5. Applications of <sup>137</sup>Cs in sediment source fingerprinting research

Fifty studies (41%) used <sup>137</sup>Cs to discriminate between surface and subsurface contributions (Table 1).
In contrast, 49 studies (40%) used <sup>137</sup>Cs to discriminate between land use contributions to sediment
(Table 2). Other approaches investigated the contributions of sub-basins or tributaries (n=4), areas
with different geologies (n=3), or different erosion processes (gully vs. rill or sheet erosion; n=2).
Finally, 13 studies (11%) examined multiple combinations of these approaches (Table 3).

277 5.1 Surface versus subsurface erosion

Subsurface sources generally included channel banks (n=27 studies) and/or gullies (n=22). Much less often, landslides (n=3), unpaved roads (n=2), or construction sites (n=2) were also considered as a dominant subsurface source (Table 1). In addition to <sup>137</sup>Cs, researchers often utilized other environmental radionuclides (ERNs) to discriminate between surface and subsurface sources, including: <sup>210</sup>Pb<sub>xs</sub> (n=32 studies), <sup>7</sup>Be (n=11), <sup>226</sup>Ra (n=5), <sup>232</sup>Th (n=4), <sup>40</sup>K (n=4; Table 4). Plutonium isotopes were also measured in three articles, with different isotopes or ratios analysed
 (<sup>238</sup>Pu/<sup>239+240</sup>Pu, <sup>239</sup>Pu, <sup>239+240</sup>Pu). In Japan, one study also detected <sup>134</sup>Cs emitted during the Fukushima
 Dai-ichi Nuclear Power Plant accident (Ochiai et al., 2015). Belmont et al. (2014) also examined <sup>10</sup>Be
 concentrations to take into account the long-term deposition and remobilisation of sediment
 between the floodplain and the main river channel.

Often, researchers only use <sup>137</sup>Cs to discriminate between surface and subsoil sources. In many studies, <sup>137</sup>Cs alone provided powerful discrimination between sediment originating from subsurface areas or from surface material. For instance, from a catchment in Oklahoma State (US), 12-fold higher levels of this radionuclide were found in 'overland' material compared to samples collected in gully areas (Zhang et al., 2016).

293 However, several small-scale studies conducted in the early 1990s in Australia showed that the 294 combination of several radionuclide measurements (i.e. <sup>7</sup>Be, <sup>210</sup>Pb<sub>xs</sub> and <sup>137</sup>Cs) provided additional information to distinguish between different erosion processes (e.g. sheetwash vs. rill erosion) based 295 296 on their different depths of penetration or their mixing in the soil (Wallbrink et al., 1999). This 297 approach was further developed to be effective at the catchment scale. For instance, the 298 combination of the three fallout radionuclides was used to compare the effects of tillage vs. no-299 tillage management of cropland on soil erosion and sediment yields in the US, because these 300 different farming practices lead to different penetration/mixing depths of the radionuclides in the soil (Matisoff et al., 2002). In Australia, Hancock et al. (2014) showed that the use of <sup>7</sup>Be provided a 301 way to discriminate between vertical (i.e. channel banks, depleted in <sup>7</sup>Be) and horizontal (i.e., rills, 302 scalds, gully floors, enriched in <sup>7</sup>Be) subsoil erosion sources. 303

In addition to ERNs, the most commonly used tracing properties were elemental geochemistry (n=6 studies), total carbon and/or nitrogen (n=6), magnetic properties (n=5), total phosphorus (n=3),  $\delta^{15}N$ and  $\delta^{13}C$  (n=2), and  ${}^{87}Sr/{}^{86}Sr$  (n=1). From the 50 articles examining the surface vs. subsurface contributions to sediment, 18 studies did not use mixing models. Among the 32 studies that did apply a source apportionment model, only two articles did not include  ${}^{137}Cs$  in the final tracer combination included in the mixing models.

#### 310 5.2 Soil erosion on different land uses

Articles discriminating between land use contributions to sediment (n=49) mainly focused on the material supplied by cropland/cultivated land (n=40), channel banks (n=34), forests (n=24) and grassland/pasture (n=22). Other subsurface sources included gullies (n=11), roads (n=11) and badlands (n=4) along with other surface sources included shrubland (n=4) and rangeland (n=3) (Table 2).

To discriminate this variety of sources, a number of potential tracing properties were examined. In 316 addition to <sup>137</sup>Cs, other ERNs considered were <sup>210</sup>Pb<sub>xs</sub> (n=30 articles), <sup>226</sup>Ra (n=16), <sup>7</sup>Be (n=7), <sup>40</sup>K (n=8), 317 <sup>232</sup>Th (n=6)(Table 2). Regarding the other types of properties examined, elemental geochemistry was 318 the most frequent (n=33) followed by total carbon and nitrogen (n=22), total phosphorus (n=13), 319 magnetic properties (n=10) and phosphorus fractions (n=3). Only one study analysed  $\delta^{15}N$ 320 (Mukundan et al., 2010) in conjunction with <sup>137</sup>Cs. Only five studies remained descriptive and did not 321 322 apply an un-mixing model to quantify the land use contributions to sediment. Among those that modelled the sediment source contributions, 35 articles (71%) included <sup>137</sup>Cs in the optimal tracer 323 combination in at least one of the investigated catchments. 324

Interestingly, the use of <sup>137</sup>Cs was not restricted to the discrimination between surface and 325 326 subsurface sources, and it sometimes provided further discrimination between other land use types 327 such as scrubland enriched in this radioisotope compared to forest areas depleted in <sup>137</sup>Cs, 328 depending on the magnitude of erosion processes occurring in these potential sources (Palazón et al., 2015). Of note, the <sup>137</sup>Cs signature of different land uses may change with time in response to the 329 330 soil erosion processes. In Laos, the replacement of slash-and-burn traditional cultivation with 331 commercial teak plantations on steep hillslopes generated so much soil erosion, that the corresponding source signature switched from a typical surface soil  $^{137}$ Cs activity (mean: 2.5 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) 332 to that of a subsurface soil (mean: 1.1 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) in less than 20 years (Ribolzi et al., 2017). 333

The impact of changes in human practices on soil erosion may also be reflected by fallout radionuclide measurements. For instance, the reduction of cattle grazing pressure in Australian catchments was demonstrated to have led to a decline in both surface and subsurface soil erosion rates (Wilkinson et al., 2013). In another context, among other properties, <sup>137</sup>Cs also contributed to estimate the impact of forestry operations including clearcutting, tree harvest and replantation on sediment source contributions in catchments of Chile (Schuller et al., 2013).

#### 340 5.3 Impacts of Roads on Soil Erosion

341 The role of unsealed or unpaved roads has been investigated in 15 articles across several regions of 342 the world, including Australia (n=3), Brazil (n=1), Burkina Faso (n=1), France (n=1), India (n=1), Iran 343 (n=1), Japan (n=1), Mexico (n=1), South Korea (n=1), the UK (n=1) and the US (n=2) (Table 2). The 344 road contribution to sediment can reach 20 to 500 times the areal contributions from forests (Motha 345 et al., 2004; Motha et al., 2003) as road construction may rapidly accelerate soil erosion. For 346 instance, the building of a highway in Oahu, Hawaii, was shown to significantly increase the fine 347 sediment supply to the river (Hill et al., 1998). Soil erosion was also shown to be particularly intense on the truck trail network, depleted in fallout radionuclides, in Japanese cypress plantations 348 (Mizugaki et al., 2008). In a catchment of Iran, it was shown that <sup>137</sup>Cs provided discrimination 349 between channel bank (mean: 2.7 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) and road cuttings (mean: 1.0 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>). This finding was 350

351 mainly attributed to the fact that channel banks likely consisted of a mixture of surface and 352 subsurface material originating from upstream catchment locations (Nosrati et al., 2018).

#### 353 5.5 Impacts of Wildfires

The use of <sup>137</sup>Cs (n=6) and plutonium isotopes (n=1) was particularly helpful in catchments exposed 354 355 to wildfires, as other potential tracers including magnetic and geochemical properties were affected 356 by variable wildfire modifications in burned soils (Blake et al., 2006) (Table 1). Furthermore, <sup>210</sup>Pb<sub>xs</sub> 357 was excluded from the list of the potential tracers because of its high apparent sensitivity to the 358 reduction in ash content in channel deposits compared to hillslope material (Smith et al., 2012). In burned soils, increases in the concentration of <sup>210</sup>Pb<sub>xs</sub> and <sup>137</sup>Cs were widely found in response to the 359 combustion of organic matter and the redistribution of radionuclides to surface soil and ash 360 (Wilkinson et al., 2009), with a stronger effect for  $^{210}$ Pb<sub>xs</sub> for which ~30% of the total inventory may 361 362 be found in the surface litter of eucalyptus forests. In contrast, in unburned soils, <sup>137</sup>Cs is mainly 363 associated with mineral soil due to bioturbation transferring decayed litter into the soil following the 364 cessation of <sup>137</sup>Cs fallout in the mid-1970s (Wilkinson et al., 2009).

365 However, in the framework of a rainfall experiment conducted after a major forest fire in Los Alamos, New Mexico (US), Johansen et al. (2003) found <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations that were 40 times higher in ash 366 deposits and three times higher in the topmost 5 cm of soil compared to pre-burned soils. 367 Concentration of <sup>137</sup>Cs in sediment was also observed when soil erosion occurred, although the levels 368 declined rapidly with time and returned to the pre-fire levels after ~250 mm of cumulative rainfall. 369 370 Smith et al. (2013) provided a comprehensive review showing the techniques that may be used to discriminate fine sediment sources in burned catchments, with numerous examples taken in North 371 372 America and in Australia. Additional sediment tracing approaches have since been conducted in catchments exposed to fires in other regions of the world including the Mediterranean region (e.g., 373 374 the Balearic Islands, Spain). The occurrence of higher fallout radionuclide levels in burned material 375 compared to unburned sources was also observed in these regions (Estrany et al., 2016; García-376 Comendador et al., 2017).

#### 377 5.6 Use of fallout radionuclides in tile-drained catchments

Another type of environment where particularly high <sup>137</sup>Cs activities were detected in source material 378 corresponds to drained catchments (n= 3) (Table 2). In a catchment located in the centre of France, 379 Foucher et al. (2015) used <sup>137</sup>Cs measurements to demonstrate that sediment transferred in these 380 381 drains originated predominantly from surface sources. They also outlined a substantial enrichment of 382 very fine particles ( $^{2}-4 \mu m$ ) in the drains and proposed an original correction factor based on Th concentrations estimated based on the <sup>228</sup>Th activities, which are analysed along with <sup>137</sup>Cs by 383 gamma spectrometry. Similar substantial particle size differences were observed by Russell et al. 384 385 (2001) in drained catchments of the UK, where they also found significant proportions of sediment originating from surface sources, although they underlined that their results were constrained by therepresentativeness of the study periods.

#### 388 5.7 Use of fallout radionuclides in urban catchments

389 Relatively few studies (n=6) investigated sediment source contributions in urban catchments (Table 2). Among the few studies that used <sup>137</sup>Cs measurements, Ormerod (1998) calculated an increase in 390 391 subsurface supply to sediment in downstream direction in a study conducted in New South Wales, Australia. In the UK, Carter et al. (2003) included <sup>137</sup>Cs among a suite of properties to discriminate 392 393 between channel banks, cultivated or uncultivated topsoils and two urban sources (i.e road dust and 394 solids from sewage treatment works). Devereux et al. (2010) illustrated the difficulty to define an urban signature except for the road surfaces or what was referred to as 'street residue' in a US 395 396 catchment. In Laos, an increase in the contribution of subsurface material supplied by the river was 397 also attributed to subsoil exposed to rainfall in constructions sites in suburban areas (Huon et al., 398 2017). Finally, in a tributary of the Seine River (France), Froger et al. (2018) quantified the 399 contribution of 'road deposited sediment' to the material transiting this river. Relatively depleted in  $^{137}$ Cs (median activity: 0.5 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>), this source was strongly enriched in  $^{210}$ Pb<sub>xs</sub> (median: 232 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) 400 and <sup>7</sup>Be (median: 402 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) and was shown to supply significant quantities of metal contaminants 401 originating from urban runoff to the river. These studies illustrate that there is potentially an 402 untapped potential of <sup>137</sup>Cs research in urban catchments. 403

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# 6. Main challenges associated with the use of <sup>137</sup>Cs as a tracer

#### 405 6.1 Particle size

In the early 1990s, Walling and Woodward (1992) already recommended the community to take into 406 account the particle size enrichment of <sup>137</sup>Cs when comparing the signatures of sources and sediment 407 material, and suggested to conduct particle size corrections (He and Walling, 1996). Indeed, the 408 409 universal use of these corrections has received critiques (Smith and Blake, 2014) and an extensive 410 review on the challenges and the opportunities associated with the tracer particle size effect have been discussed in details (Laceby et al., 2017). In summary, it is well known that <sup>137</sup>Cs is rapidly bound 411 412 to fine particle size fractions and that this enrichment must be carefully taken into account when 413 designing sediment source tracing studies.

#### 414 6.2 Heterogeneity of source signatures

Often, research has demonstrated that there may be some local scale heterogeneity caused by potential fallout deposition patterns or erosion patterns. On the one hand, <sup>137</sup>Cs activities were shown to vary significantly depending on the hillslope position based on a study conducted in Iran. Accordingly, significantly higher <sup>137</sup>Cs activities were found on the hillslope summit compared to the shoulder position, as well as on the toeslope compared to the backslope and the shoulder. These

results demonstrate that when <sup>137</sup>Cs is associated with other environmental radionuclides (i.e., <sup>40</sup>K, 420 <sup>232</sup>Th) and TOC, it may provide further detailed discrimination between different hillslope 421 compartments (Nosrati, 2017). On the other hand, <sup>137</sup>Cs was used in a study investigating the spatial 422 variability of source properties (i.e. metals, trace elements, organic matter parameters) at the field 423 424 scale (Devon, UK) and provided information on the magnitude and the spatial patterns of soil 425 redistribution within the field that may cause in turn spatial variability in the fingerprint properties 426 (Du and Walling, 2017). This result corroborates the research of Wilkinson et al. (2015) in Australia 427 that demonstrated how sediment contributions of surface erosion in areas affected by high erosion 428 rates as estimated based on fallout radionuclide measurements may underestimate the topsoil 429 supply to sediment. Accordingly, these authors recommended to conduct source sampling schemes 430 stratified by erosion rate across the catchment, with the collection of a larger number of source 431 samples in highly eroded areas.

# 432 6.3 Situations where <sup>137</sup>Cs was not selected as a relevant tracing property

Although <sup>137</sup>Cs was successfully used in numerous studies, in some catchments including the suburbs 433 434 of Nanjing in China where extensive soil erosion occurs and several potential subsoil material sources 435 are found (i.e. roads, mines), the fallout radionuclide was not selected as a discriminant property (Zhou et al., 2016). In an agricultural catchment of the Canadian Prairies, high <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations 436 437 were found in the top 0-20 cm layer of channel banks likely because this location corresponds to the 438 edge of the riparian soil that contains both original atmospheric fallout and also potentially deposited material derived from upper parts of the catchment (Koiter et al., 2013a). Similar 439 difficulties were experienced by Boudreault et al. (2018) who measured similar <sup>137</sup>Cs activities in 440 agricultural topsoil (mean: 7.2 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) and agricultural subsurface material (mean: 6.2 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) in a 441 442 catchment of New Brunswick (Eastern Canada). They also attributed this unexpected result to the 443 sampling protocol which consisted in collecting surface samples in depositional areas near the 444 stream edge or collecting channel bank aggregate samples from the top to the bottom of the profile into a single sample. 445

446 6.4 Finding surrogate properties for <sup>137</sup>Cs

Given the decay of <sup>137</sup>Cs since the main fallout period during the last century and the difficulties to detect this radionuclide in an increasing number of regions across the globe, surrogate properties can provide discrimination of surface and subsurface sources to sediment in these environments.

450 Excess <sup>210</sup>Pb

451 In catchments of South Africa, Foster et al. (2007) demonstrated the potential for  $^{210}$ Pb<sub>xs</sub> to provide 452 an alternative to  $^{137}$ Cs as the latter will soon become undetectable because of the lack of inputs and 453 its 30-yr half-life. A good relationship between both radionuclides was also found in source and 454 sediment samples collected in a catchment of Burkina Faso (Rode et al., 2018). A similar finding was also demonstrated in a catchment of Southern England by comparing <sup>137</sup>Cs and <sup>210</sup>Pb<sub>xs</sub> activities in 455 surface, subsurface material and sediment (Walling and Amos, 1999), although the authors outlined 456 a greater enrichment in <sup>210</sup>Pb<sub>xs</sub> than in <sup>137</sup>Cs in suspended sediment and channel bank material 457 compared to subsoil material. This was attributed to a higher content of suspended sediment in 458 organic matter and the known preferential association of <sup>210</sup>Pb<sub>xs</sub> with the organic fraction. Other 459 authors attributed this enrichment in <sup>210</sup>Pb<sub>xs</sub> in sediment compared to sources to the direct supply of 460 additional <sup>210</sup>Pb<sub>xs</sub> fallout associated with rainfall in the channel (Wallbrink et al., 2002). Olley et al. 461 (2013b) indicated that the correlation that is often observed between  $^{137}$ Cs and  $^{210}$ Pb<sub>xs</sub> activities in 462 source samples implies that they should not be used to provide independent estimates of the 463 464 relative contribution of the sources to the river sediment. The comparison of the respective proportions of <sup>137</sup>Cs and <sup>210</sup>Pb<sub>xs</sub> fallout per latitudinal band across the globe interestingly shows that 465 in low-latitude regions (0–20° latitude) where <sup>137</sup>Cs fallout levels are very low, atmospheric <sup>210</sup>Pb may 466 467 provide a surrogate tracer as it is continuously deposited at significantly higher levels than the initial levels of <sup>137</sup>Cs fallout (Fig. 7). 468

#### 469 Other radionuclides

In early sediment tracing studies, <sup>226</sup>Ra was measured along with <sup>137</sup>Cs to discriminate between 470 topsoil and subsoil sources (Murray et al., 1993). Unlike most radionuclides, geogenic <sup>226</sup>Ra was 471 472 found to be enriched in subsoil compared to topsoil in a catchment of Southeast Australia (Wallbrink, 473 2004). However, because of large variations in its concentrations, the use of this geogenic 474 radionuclide in tracing has never become extensive, despite early studies outlined its potential to 475 discriminate sediment sources at the plot scale in Southeastern Australia (Murray et al., 1993; Olley 476 et al., 1993). In a recent review article, Alewell et al. (2014) suggested that plutonium in general and <sup>239+240</sup>Pu in particular may provide the next generation tracer of soil redistribution due it is longer 477 half-life compared to <sup>137</sup>Cs (Table 4) and its high measurement precision. 478

#### 479 Organic matter

In catchments of South Africa where alternative tracers are actively sought given <sup>137</sup>Cs in often below 480 the detection limits in topsoils across several regions, statistically significant correlations, with  $r^2$ 481 values exceeding generally 90 %, were found between <sup>137</sup>Cs and Loss-on-Ignition (LOI), which was 482 considered as a true reflection of organic matter and not C derived from bedrock or other sources 483 (Foster et al., 2017). The good relationship found between <sup>137</sup>Cs and organic matter content in 484 potential source samples was also confirmed in a more recent study conducted in Iran (Nosrati et al., 485 2018). In Laos, Huon et al. (2013) showed that <sup>137</sup>Cs activities and Total Organic Carbon 486 487 concentrations were better correlated in the topsoil (0–10 cm) compared to the deeper soil layers (10-20 cm, 20-30 cm), illustrating that a common process - soil erosion - controlled their 488 489 progressive depletion in the surface layer. Based on a similar finding, surface and subsurface sources

were very well discriminated by both Total Organic Carbon and <sup>137</sup>Cs in several catchments of the 490 Tunisian Ridge (Ben Slimane et al., 2016). Similarly, <sup>210</sup>Pb<sub>xs</sub> activities were also shown to be well 491 correlated (r<sup>2</sup> = 0.79) with LOI measurements conducted in Australia (Olley et al., 2013a). However, in 492 another study conducted in Iran, uncertainties associated with sediment source contributions were 493 higher when using organic matter properties than when including <sup>137</sup>Cs, likely because of the low 494 495 organic matter contents (mean: 0.3 – 0.4%) found in this arid region (Nazari Samani et al., 2011), 496 which illustrates that the validity of using this surrogate property should always be verified in the 497 local conditions prior to its application.

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# 7. Limitations of the published <sup>137</sup>Cs research

500 Only one paper provided its full dataset of raw measurement data (Le Gall et al., 2016) in the article 501 or in their Supplementary Material. For 13 articles, no data was given at all, and only those results of 502 statistical tests used for sediment tracing were provided. Often, a combination of graphs and tables 503 (n=31 studies) or only graphs (n=10) was provided. In a significant number of articles (n=54), only 504 statistics of the measurements were summarized in tables or simply referred to in the text. Fifteen 505 studies (7%) did not even provide information on the catchment area. Interestingly, information on 506 the source sampling depth was also not provided in a large number of articles (n=34). Of note, 507 information on the type of sediment collected was not mentioned in 22 studies and the number of 508 sediment samples was not even provided in 16 articles. Information on the particle size fraction of 509 interest was not provided for 22 articles published between 1996 and 2017, with 15 of those 510 published since 2010. As fallout radionuclides decay with time, the availability of the reference date 511 and/or the sampling date used for calculating their activities is of particular importance. However, 512 this information was lacking for 44 studies (36 % of the total), which may prevent the decay-513 correction of radionuclide activities at a later date or data comparison between studies. In the future, 514 researchers must include enough information in their articles to make them reproducible and 515 reviewers should ensure that this minimal standard is met. Furthermore, the provision of raw data 516 should also be encouraged in order to facilitate the incorporation of previous results when designing new research projects and help improve our global understanding of <sup>137</sup>Cs dynamics in soil erosion 517 518 research.

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#### 8. Perspectives for future research

521 With the decrease of <sup>137</sup>Cs activities due to radioactive decay, the surface source activities will 522 increasingly become closer to those found in subsurface sources. Although this situation was already 523 observed in China's Loess Plateau, in South Africa or in mining catchments of New Caledonia (Fig. 8), 524 its more frequent occurrence in the future will increase the uncertainties associated with this 525 method. The use of 'well' hyperpure germanium detectors installed in underground laboratories 526 sheltered from the cosmic rays could provide a temporary solution, but the use of these facilities will 527 not be accessible to a variety of researchers. Furthermore, the relatively high cost of gamma 528 spectrometry analyses and the need to collect sufficient material to conduct the analyses (e.g. using 529 a continuous flow mobile centrifuge) were outlined as potential difficulties associated with the use of <sup>137</sup>Cs (Mukundan et al., 2010). The usual analysis time is 24 h per sample, although when low 530 531 quantities of material are available or for very low activity samples, counting times of 48 h per 532 sample are usual, which significantly decreases the analytical capacities and increases the unit cost 533 per analysis.

Based on the data compiled in the current research, <sup>137</sup>Cs should theoretically provide powerful 534 discrimination between surface and subsurface sources of sediment in a large number of countries 535 536 across the world where this technique has not been tested yet (Fig. 8). In Europe, <sup>137</sup>Cs has been widely used for calculating sediment budgets based on the calculation of <sup>137</sup>Cs inventories in soil 537 538 profiles (Mabit et al., 2013; Parsons and Foster, 2011) although it has been less often included in 539 sediment tracing research in Mediterranean countries as well as in the eastern and northern parts of 540 the continent. In Northern Africa, there should be significant potential for application in other 541 Maghreb countries as this technique was successfully implemented in Tunisia (Ben Slimane et al., 542 2016). In South America, the technique could be usefully tested in countries with a large agricultural 543 surface area and located > 20°S such as Argentina, Paraguay and Uruguay. Finally, in Oceania, <sup>137</sup>Cs 544 could be tested as a fingerprint in New Zealand, in regions located in western and central Australia, 545 as well in other Pacific Islands (including French Polynesia). The applicability of the technique in 546 regions exposed to a colder climate could also be explored to investigate the impact of glacier retreat on sediment source dynamics among other potential research topics. For example, the feasibility of 547 <sup>137</sup>Cs detection has been recently demonstrated in Maritime Antarctica (Navas et al., 2017). 548

Although there has been a tendency in the literature to argue in favour of the development of 549 universal techniques and models that could be applied uniformly in catchments around the world, 550 the current research demonstrates that this goal will likely never be achieved with <sup>137</sup>Cs owing to the 551 multiple environmental conditions, land use changes and the extent and variations of the 552 anthropogenic impacts observed in different catchments worldwide. Although universal principles 553 554 should be respected when implementing the sediment source tracing methods (i.e, comparing 555 similar particle size fractions of soils and sediment), there is no universal rule regarding the types of the sources that can be discriminated based on the <sup>137</sup>Cs method, whether this technique will work in 556 557 all the catchments or achieve the source differentiation that was initially sought. There will always be 558 a significant number of site-specific constraints that the researchers will have to identify and deal 559 with when deriving their sample design and when interpreting the data, which may lead to unexpected results. For example, owing to its independence of lithology, <sup>137</sup>Cs was considered a useful property for distinguishing potential source types in catchments with heterogeneous geology (Walling and Woodward, 1992). This characteristic was thought to be universal. However, the diversity of applications and source type discriminations illustrated in the current research demonstrate that the universality of one method will never reasonably be achieved owing to the diversity of environmental contexts, anthropogenic activities and initial fallout levels found around the world.

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#### 9. Conclusions

The current meta-analysis of research incorporating <sup>137</sup>Cs in sediment source fingerprinting research 569 included 123 articles. Fifty-two percent of these articles provides results obtained in catchments 570 571 located in Europe or in Northern America. The three countries in the world with the highest numbers 572 of publications are the UK (n=24), Australia (n=23) and the US (n=20). In contrast, very few articles 573 reported research from Africa (n=9) and South America (n=2). The research design of these studies 574 was strongly variable, regarding the number and the size of the catchments investigated, or the 575 amount and the type of source and sediment samples analysed. The increasing number of studies 576 observed throughout time demonstrates the growing popularity of this technique. The atmospheric thermonuclear bomb testing that reached a peak between 1963 (Northern Hemisphere) and 1965 577 (Southern Hemisphere) provided the main source of <sup>137</sup>Cs fallout except in those few regions of the 578 world where nuclear accidents occurred (Chernobyl, Fukushima). However, this accidental fallout 579 does not prevent the use of <sup>137</sup>Cs for discriminating surface vs. subsurface source contributions to 580 sediment in these regions. Overall, positive relationships were found between the <sup>137</sup>Cs activities 581 582 found in surface/subsurface sources and the proportion of global fallout received. Given the low proportions of global fallout received in those latitudinal regions located between 0-20°N and 0-20°S, 583 584 the applicability of the method may be increasingly limited in this part of the world. Furthermore, the very low <sup>137</sup>Cs activities found in surface soils analysed in China's Loess Plateau and in South Africa 585 586 may prevent the use of this sediment fingerprinting technique in these regions and reflect the 587 severity of soil erosion processes occurring in these environments.

Forty-one percent of the reviewed studies included <sup>137</sup>Cs for discriminating surface vs. subsurface erosion, while 40% of the articles investigated land use contributions to sediment. The power of <sup>137</sup>Cs to distinguish between surface vs. subsurface sources was demonstrated by the fact that among those studies that use un-mixing models, 94% included <sup>137</sup>Cs in the optimal fingerprints included in the models. For land-use based studies, 71% of those that modelled sediment source contributions included <sup>137</sup>Cs in the optimal tracer combination. The usefulness of this tracing property was also demonstrated in catchments exposed to wildfires, urban environments and tile-drains.

Among the main challenges associated with this method, the ongoing decay of <sup>137</sup>Cs to undetectable 595 596 levels raises the need to develop the use of detectors installed in underground laboratories and that of alternative tracers that may include <sup>210</sup>Pb<sub>xs</sub>, plutonium or organic matter properties. In the future, 597 researchers need to systematically include basic catchment information in their articles as well as 598 599 reproducible details on the sampling design including the number and the type of the source and 600 sediment samples collected, the sampling depth, the sampling/reference dates and the particle size 601 fraction considered. Furthermore, researchers should provide access to the raw data in order to 602 facilitate the incorporation of previous research results. Despite previous suggestions regarding the development of universal techniques and models that could be applied uniformly in catchments 603 604 across the globe, the current meta-analysis demonstrates that this goal will likely never be achieved 605 as a result of the diversity of the environmental conditions and fallout levels found in catchments 606 around the world.

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#### 615 Supplementary Material

616 SM1. Characteristics of studies using <sup>137</sup>Cs as a potential fingerprint to quantify sediment source 617 contributions (literature review).

618 SM2. Tables synthesizing the <sup>137</sup>Cs activity values found in surface versus subsurface sources of 619 sediment (literature review).

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Reference	Country	Study site(s)	Surface area (km²)	Subsurface sources	Surface sources	Tracing properties considered	Environmental radionuclides considered	Use of an un- mixing model	Inclusion of <sup>137</sup> Cs in the model	Use of a model considering <sup>137</sup> Cs alone
Peart and Walling (1988)	UK	2	9.8; 46	Channel bank	Surface soil	ERNs, Elemental Geochemistry, C+N, total P	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Murray et al. (1993)	Australia	1	n/a	Subsoil	Surface	ERNs	137Cs, 7Be, 226Ra, 232Th	No	Νο	Νο
Olley et al. (1993)	Australia	1	0.5	Gully, subsoil	Topsoil	ERNs	137Cs, 7Be, 226Ra, 232Th	No	Νο	Νο

Table 1. Studies including <sup>137</sup>Cs to trace surface vs. subsurface source contributions to sediment around the world.

Ormerod (1998)	Australia	1	10	Subsurface, urban gutters and drains, construction sites	Forest	ERNs	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Wallbrink et al. (1999)	Australia	1	0.01	Rills, gullies	Surface		137Cs, 210Pb, 7Be	No	No	No
Matisoff et al. (2002)	USA	1	69.5	Channel	Till, non- tilled, undisturbed	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 7Be	No	No	Νο
Froehlich (2004)	India	1	0.2	Channel bank, gully bank, path material	Grassland, forest	ERNs	137Cs	No	No	Νο
Nagle and Ritchie (2004)	USA	1	492	Bank material	Cultivated soil	ERNs, C, N	137Cs	Yes	Yes	No

Whiting et al. (2005)	USA	1	96260	Channel	Surface	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 7Be	No	No	No
Froehlich and Walling (2006)	India	1	12540	Channel, gully, landslide, earthflow	Cultivated, tea garden, jungle	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	No	No	No
Foster et al. (2007)	South Africa	2	1.5; 6.3	Non-topsoil	Topsoil	ERNs, Elemental Geochemistry, magnetic properties	210Pb, 234Th, 235U, 7Be, 137Cs, 228Ac, 40K	No	No	Νο
Nagle et al. (2007)	USA	1	2041	Channel bank	Cultivated, pasture, forest	ERNs	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Mizugaki et al. (2008)	Japan	2	0.3, 0.6	Landslide scar, truck trail	Forest floor	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Νο
Smith (2008)	Australia	1	1.6	Gully and channel walls	Slopes	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes

Zehetner et al. (2008)	Taiwan	1	303	Not sampled	Sampled	ERNs	137Cs	No	No	No
Ahn et al. (2009)	Japan	1	1.4	Channel bank	Cultivated land, swamp	ERNs	137Cs	No	No	No
Ritchie et al. (2009)	USA	1	150 (7 sub- catchments)	Rills, gullies, channel bank	Shrubland, grassland	ERNS	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Wilkinson et al. (2009)	Australia	1	183	Gully walls	Burnt vs. unburnt surface	ERNs, total P, Elemental Geochemistry, 238Pu/239+240Pu	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Νο
Evrard et al. (2010)	Mexico	3	3, 9, 12	Gullies, retreat scarp	Cropland, grassland, woodland	ERNs	7Be, 210Pb, 137Cs	No	No	No
Fukuyama et al. (2010)	Japan	1	0.05	Channel banks, gully walls	Forest plantation	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes

Smith et al. (2011)	Australia	2	1.36, 2.44			ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	No
Caitcheon et al. (2012)	Australia	3	53000, 72000, 109000	Channel banks, gullies	Alluvium on hillslopes	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes
Manjoro et al. (2012)	South Africa	1	n/a	Gully, badlands	Original soil	ERNs, Elemental Geochemistry, magnetic properties	137Cs	Yes	No	Νο
Owens et al. (2012)	Canada	2	158, 215	Channel banks	Active slopes	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	No
Smith et al. (2012)	Australia	2	0.233; 0.073	Channel banks	Hillslope surface deposits	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 239+240Pu	Yes	Yes	Yes
Ben Slimane et al. (2013)	Tunisia	1	2.63	Gully, channel bank	Topsoil	ERNs, C+N, total P	210Pb, 234Th, 226Ra, 228Ra, 228Th, 40K, 137Cs	Yes	Yes	Νο
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Olley et al. (2013a)	Australia	1	24350	Channel banks, gullies, in- channel benches	Surface wash deposits, surface runoff traps	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes
Olley et al. (2013b)	Australia	7	188, 47, 247, 3842, 483, 911, 2942	Channel bank	Cropping, grazing, forest including natural bush and managed forest	ERNS	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes
Theuring et al. (2013)	Mongolia	1	15000	Channel banks, gullies	Surface	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 7Be	Yes	Yes	No

Belmont et al. (2014)	USA	2	n/a	Bluffs, channel banks	Upland	ERNs	7Be, 210Pb, 137Cs, 10Be	Yes	Yes (in some)	No
Hobgen et al. (2014)	Indonesia	1	1227	Subsurface soil	Surface soil	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 239Pu	No	No	No
Lim et al. (2014)	South Korea	1	3470	Channel bank	Forest floor	ERNs	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Foucher et al. (2015)	France	1	24	Channel bank	Surface soil, hillslope sediment	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 232Th	Yes	Yes	Yes
Haiyan (2015)	China	1	9.9	Gully, channel bank	Cultivated, uncultivated	ERNs, TOC	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Νο
Ochiai et al. (2015)	Japan	1	6.5	Inferred but not sampled	Surface soil	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 134Cs	No	No	No

Pulley et al. (2015a)	UK	1	1060	Channel banks	Surface agricultural land	ERNs, Elemental Geochemistry, magnetic properties	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra, 234Th, 235U, 214Pb, 228Ac, 212Pb, 40K	Yes	Yes	No
Pulley et al. (2015b)	UK	1	1634	Channel banks	Surface agricultural land	ERNs, Elemental Geochemistry, magnetic properties	226Ra, 234Th, 235U, 214Pb, 228Ac, 212Pb, 40K	Yes	Yes (in some catchments)	Νο
van der Waal et al. (2015)	South Africa	1	65	Gully, landslide	Sheet erosion areas	ERNs, magnetic properties	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	No (too low 137Cs activities)	Νο
Wethered et al. (2015)	Australia	1	1000	Channel bed, deep gully	Agricultural land, forest land	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Νο

Wilkinson et al. (2015)	Australia	1	129000	Gullies, channel banks, in- channel benches, subsoil scalds	Surface soil on hillslopes	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	No
Ben Slimane et al. (2016)	Tunisia	5	3.7, 0.6, 2.4, 2.6, 3.6	Gully, channel	Rill, interrill	ERNs, TOC	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Estrany et al. (2016)	Spain	2	9.8, 319	Stream channel	Surface soils	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	No
Evrard et al. (2016)	Laos	1	11.6	Resuspended or recently eroded subsurface	Resuspended or recently eroded surface	ERNs	7Be, 137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes
Le Gall et al. (2016)	France	1	24	Channel banks	Cropland topsoil	ERNs, Elemental Geochemistry, Sr isotopes (87Sr/86Sr)	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes

Zhang et al. (2016)	USA	1	15.6	Gully	Overland	ERNs	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Huon et al. (2017)	Laos	1	22	Channel banks, gullies	Topsoil	ERNs, C+N, d13C, d15N	7Be/210Pb/137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
García- Comendador et al. (2017)	Spain	1	4.8	Burned vs. unburned channel bank	Burned vs. unburned surface material	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	Yes	Yes	Yes
Jalowska et al. (2017)	USA	1	25123				137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes
Li et al. (2017)	China	1	5.97	Gully	Inter-gully (!)	ERNs	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes

Reference	Country	Study site(s)	Surface area (km²)	Subsurface sources	Surface sources	Tracing properties considered	Environmental radionuclides considered	Use of an un- mixing model	Inclusion of <sup>137</sup> Cs in the model	Use of a model considering <sup>137</sup> Cs alone
Peart and Walling (1988)	UK	2	9.8; 46	Channel bank	Surface soil	ERNs, Elemental Geochemistry, C+N, total P	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Murray et al. (1993)	Australia	1	n/a	Subsoil	Surface	ERNs	137Cs, 7Be, 226Ra, 232Th	No	Νο	Νο
Olley et al. (1993)	Australia	1	0.5	Gully, subsoil	Topsoil	ERNs	137Cs, 7Be, 226Ra, 232Th	No	No	No

Ormerod (1998)	Australia	1	10	Subsurface, urban gutters and drains, construction sites	Forest	ERNs	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Wallbrink et al. (1999)	Australia	1	0.01	Rills, gullies	Surface		137Cs, 210Pb, 7Be	No	No	No
Matisoff et al. (2002)	USA	1	69.5	Channel	Till, non- tilled, undisturbed	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 7Be	No	No	Νο
Froehlich (2004)	India	1	0.2	Channel bank, gully bank, path material	Grassland, forest	ERNs	137Cs	No	Νο	Νο
Nagle and Ritchie (2004)	USA	1	492	Bank material	Cultivated soil	ERNs, C, N	137Cs	Yes	Yes	No

Whiting et al. (2005)	USA	1	96260	Channel	Surface	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 7Be	No	No	No
Froehlich and Walling (2006)	India	1	12540	Channel, gully, landslide, earthflow	Cultivated, tea garden, jungle	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	No	No	No
Foster et al. (2007)	South Africa	2	1.5; 6.3	Non-topsoil	Topsoil	ERNs, Elemental Geochemistry, magnetic properties	210Pb, 234Th, 235U, 7Be, 137Cs, 228Ac, 40K	No	No	Νο
Nagle et al. (2007)	USA	1	2041	Channel bank	Cultivated, pasture, forest	ERNs	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Mizugaki et al. (2008)	Japan	2	0.3, 0.6	Landslide scar, truck trail	Forest floor	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Νο
Smith (2008)	Australia	1	1.6	Gully and channel walls	Slopes	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes

Zehetner et al. (2008)	Taiwan	1	303	Not sampled	Sampled	ERNs	137Cs	No	No	No
Ahn et al. (2009)	Japan	1	1.4	Channel bank	Cultivated land, swamp	ERNs	137Cs	No	No	No
Ritchie et al. (2009)	USA	1	150 (7 sub- catchments)	Rills, gullies, channel bank	Shrubland, grassland	ERNS	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Wilkinson et al. (2009)	Australia	1	183	Gully walls	Burnt vs. unburnt surface	ERNs, total P, Elemental Geochemistry, 238Pu/239+240Pu	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Νο
Evrard et al. (2010)	Mexico	3	3, 9, 12	Gullies, retreat scarp	Cropland, grassland, woodland	ERNs	7Be, 210Pb, 137Cs	No	No	No
Fukuyama et al. (2010)	Japan	1	0.05	Channel banks, gully walls	Forest plantation	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes

Smith et al. (2011)	Australia	2	1.36, 2.44			ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	No
Caitcheon et al. (2012)	Australia	3	53000, 72000, 109000	Channel banks, gullies	Alluvium on hillslopes	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes
Manjoro et al. (2012)	South Africa	1	n/a	Gully, badlands	Original soil	ERNs, Elemental Geochemistry, magnetic properties	137Cs	Yes	No	Νο
Owens et al. (2012)	Canada	2	158, 215	Channel banks	Active slopes	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	No
Smith et al. (2012)	Australia	2	0.233; 0.073	Channel banks	Hillslope surface deposits	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 239+240Pu	Yes	Yes	Yes

Ben Slimane et al. (2013)	Tunisia	1	2.63	Gully, channel bank	Topsoil	ERNs, C+N, total P	210Pb, 234Th, 226Ra, 228Ra, 228Th, 40K, 137Cs	Yes	Yes	Νο
Olley et al. (2013a)	Australia	1	24350	Channel banks, gullies, in- channel benches	Surface wash deposits, surface runoff traps	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes
Olley et al. (2013b)	Australia	7	188, 47, 247, 3842, 483, 911, 2942	Channel bank	Cropping, grazing, forest including natural bush and managed forest	ERNS	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes
Theuring et al. (2013)	Mongolia	1	15000	Channel banks, gullies	Surface	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 7Be	Yes	Yes	No

Belmont et al. (2014)	USA	2	n/a	Bluffs, channel banks	Upland	ERNs	7Be, 210Pb, 137Cs, 10Be	Yes	Yes (in some)	Νο
Hobgen et al. (2014)	Indonesia	1	1227	Subsurface soil	Surface soil	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 239Pu	No	No	No
Lim et al. (2014)	South Korea	1	3470	Channel bank	Forest floor	ERNs	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Foucher et al. (2015)	France	1	24	Channel bank	Surface soil, hillslope sediment	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 232Th	Yes	Yes	Yes
Haiyan (2015)	China	1	9.9	Gully, channel bank	Cultivated, uncultivated	ERNs, TOC	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Νο
Ochiai et al. (2015)	Japan	1	6.5	Inferred but not sampled	Surface soil	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 134Cs	No	No	No

Pulley et al. (2015a)	UK	1	1060	Channel banks	Surface agricultural land	ERNs, Elemental Geochemistry, magnetic properties	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra, 234Th, 235U, 214Pb, 228Ac, 212Pb, 40K	Yes	Yes	No
Pulley et al. (2015b)	UK	1	1634	Channel banks	Surface agricultural land	ERNs, Elemental Geochemistry, magnetic properties	226Ra, 234Th, 235U, 214Pb, 228Ac, 212Pb, 40K	Yes	Yes (in some catchments)	Νο
van der Waal et al. (2015)	South Africa	1	65	Gully, landslide	Sheet erosion areas	ERNs, magnetic properties	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	No (too low 137Cs activities)	Νο
Wethered et al. (2015)	Australia	1	1000	Channel bed, deep gully	Agricultural land, forest land	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Νο

Wilkinson et al. (2015)	Australia	1	129000	Gullies, channel banks, in- channel benches, subsoil scalds	Surface soil on hillslopes	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	No
Ben Slimane et al. (2016)	Tunisia	5	3.7, 0.6, 2.4, 2.6, 3.6	Gully, channel	Rill, interrill	ERNs, TOC	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Estrany et al. (2016)	Spain	2	9.8, 319	Stream channel	Surface soils	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	No
Evrard et al. (2016)	Laos	1	11.6	Resuspended or recently eroded subsurface	Resuspended or recently eroded surface	ERNs	7Be, 137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes
Le Gall et al. (2016)	France	1	24	Channel banks	Cropland topsoil	ERNs, Elemental Geochemistry, Sr isotopes (87Sr/86Sr)	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes

Zhang et al. (2016)	USA	1	15.6	Gully	Overland	ERNs	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
Huon et al. (2017)	Laos	1	22	Channel banks, gullies	Topsoil	ERNs, C+N, d13C, d15N	7Be/210Pb/137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes
García- Comendador et al. (2017)	Spain	1	4.8	Burned vs. unburned channel bank	Burned vs. unburned surface material	ERNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	Yes	Yes	Yes
Jalowska et al. (2017)	USA	1	25123				137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes
Li et al. (2017)	China	1	5.97	Gully	Inter-gully	ERNs	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes

Table 2. Studies including <sup>137</sup>Cs to trace land use-based source contributions to sediment around the world.

Reference	Country	Study site(s)	Surface area (km²)	Subsur face source s	Surface sources	Tracing properties considered	Environmenta I radionuclides considered	Use of an un- mixing model	Inclusion of <sup>137</sup> Cs in the model	Use of a model consider ing <sup>137</sup> Cs alone	Remark
Walling and Woodward (1992)	UK	2	46, N/D	Chann el banks	Cultivated, pasture	FRNSs	137Cs, 210Pb, 7Be	Yes	Yes	Νο	n/a
Walling et al. (1993)	UK	2	46, N/D	Chann el banks	Cultivated, pasture	FRNs, Magnetism , C+N	137Cs, 210Pb,	Yes	Yes	Νο	n/a
Collins et al. (1996)	UK	2	601; 4325	Chann el banks	Cultivated, pasture	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, C+N, total P, particle size	137Cs	Yes	Νο	No	n/a

Collins et al. (1997a)	UK	2	580; 87	Chann el banks	Cultivated, pasture	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, C+N, total P	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Νο	n/a
Collins et al. (1997b)	UK	2	46; 8.7	Chann el banks	Cultivated, pasture, forest	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, C+N, total P, particle size	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes (in 1 of the 2 catchme nts)	No	n/a
Wallbrink et al. (1998)	Australia	1	13500	Chann el banks, gullies	Cultivated, pasture	FRNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Yes	n/a

Walling and Amos (1999)	UK	1	63.5	Chann el banks and margi ns (farm tracks)	Cropland, grassland	FRNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Νο	Νο	Νο	
Collins et al. (2001)	Zambia	1	63	Chann el banks, gullies	Grazing, communal cultivation, commercia l cultivation	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, C+N, total P	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	Yes	Yes	Νο	Cultivati on type in Zambia (comme rcial, commu nal, grazing)

Walling et al. (2001)	Zambia	1	63	Chann el banks, gullies	Bush grazing, commercia l cultivation, communal cultivation	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, extractable metals, C+N, total P	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	Yes	Yes	No	Cultivati on types
Collins and Walling (2002)	Zambia; UK	5	63; 128; 8.7; 778; 852	Chann el banks, gullies	Cultivated, uncultivate d, forest	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, C+N, total P	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	Yes	Yes (in 1 of the 5 catchme nts)	No	Cultivati on type in Zambia (comme rcial, commu nal, grazing)
Foster et al. (2002)	UK	1	2.7	Subsoi l (arabl e and grassla nd), chann el bank	Arable topsoil, grassland topsoil, forest topsoil	FRNs, magnetic properties	137Cs	No	Νο	No	Only descripti ve

Carter et al. (2003)	UK	1	1932	Chann el banks	Cultivated, uncultivate d, forest	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, C+N, P fractions	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	Yes	Yes	No	Urban (road dust, solids from sewage treatme nt plants)
Krause et al. (2003)	Australia	6	0.05; 0.10; 0.13; 0.15; 1.19; 1.21	Gully wall; unseal ed road	Ungrazed pasture	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try	137Cs	Yes	Yes	No	
Motha et al. (2003)	Australia	1	65	Gravel led or ungrav elled road	Harvest vs. undisturbe d forest	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, organic content	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	No	Forest manage ment
Walling et al. (2003)	UK	2	4133, 4390	Subsoi I, chann el banks	Woodland, pasture, cropland, moorland (=topsoil)	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, C+N, magnetic properties	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra,	Yes	Yes	Yes	

Wallbrink (2004)	Australia	2	10000, 2400	Subsoi I	Cultivated, uncultivate d	FRNs	137Cs, 226Ra	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Walling et al. (2006)	UK	2	166; 234	Chann el banks	Cropland, grassland, forest	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, C+N, P fractions	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	Yes	Yes (in 1 catchme nt)	Νο	
Martinez- Carreras et al. (2008)	Luxembo urg	1	4.4	Chann el banks	Forest topsoil, grassland topsoil, cropland topsoil	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, C+N, total P	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Νο	

Pittam et al. (2008)	UK	1	59	Roads, chann el banks, subsoi l	Pasture, arable, woodland topsoil	FRNs, magnetic properties	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Νο	No	
Walling et al. (2008)	UK	12	16; 21; 55; 42; 81; 109; 77; 93; 109; 55; 89; 69	Chann el banks	Cropland, grassland, forest	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, C+N, P fractions	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	Yes	Yes	No	
Juracek and Ziegler (2009)	USA	6	2920; 24; 49; 31; 22; 38	Chann el banks	Cropland, grassland	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, C+N, total P	137Cs	Yes	Yes	No	
Devereux et al. (2010)	USA	1	188	Chann el banks	Urban, rural, agriculture (upland, floodplain)	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try	137Cs, 40K	Yes	No	No	Urban (street residue)

Mukundan et al. (2010)	USA	1	182	Chann el bank, constr uction roads	Forest, pastures, row crops	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, C, N, S, d15N	137Cs, 210Pb, 7Be	Yes	Yes	Νο	
Nazari Samani et al. (2011)	Iran	3	0.265; 0.051; 1.757	Gully wall	Topsoil, rangeland, dryland farming	FRNs, C+N, total P	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Νο	
Huisman and Karthikeyan (2012)	USA	1	12.4	Chann el bank	Upland, stream bed	FRNs	137Cs, 7Be, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	No	
Huisman et al. (2013)	USA	1	12.4	Chann el bank	Upland, stream bed	FRNs, total P	137Cs, 7Be, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	No	
Kim et al. (2013)	South Korea	1	0.3	Gully bank, forest road	Forest floor, paddy plain	FRNs	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes	

Hancock et al. (2014)	Australia	3	4700, 3700, 9400	Chann el bank, subsoi l	Pasture, forest	FRNs	238U, 226Ra, 210Pb, 228Ra, 228Th, 137Cs, 7Be, 40K	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Minella et al. (2014)	Brazil	1	1.2	Chann el bank, unpav ed roads	Cultivated	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, TOC, total P	137Cs	Yes	No	No	137Cs not included in tracing
Smith and Blake (2014)	UK	7	920; 238; 67; 97; 38; 219; 124	Chann el banks	Pasture, cultivated	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, TOC	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes (in some catchme nts)	No	

Trajkovska et al. (2014)	USA	3	39, 288, 289	River chann el, chann el bank	Upland	FRNs	137Cs, 210Pb	Νο	Νο	Νο	Compari son of an urban and a rural catchme nt
Palazón et al. (2015a)	Spain	1	1509	Subsoi l (erode d areas+ badlan ds)	Forest/cro pland/scru bland	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, magnetic properties	238U, 226Ra, 232Th, 40K, 137Cs	Yes	Yes	No	
Palazón et al. (2015b)	Spain	1	445	Subsoi l (erode d areas+ badlan ds)	Forest/cro pland/scru bland	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, magnetic properties	238U, 226Ra, 232Th, 40K, 210Pb, 137Cs	Yes	Yes	Νο	

Srisuksawad et al. (2015)	Thailand	3	20.5	Chann el bank	Cultivated, uncultivate d, pasture	FRNs	137Cs	Νο	No	Νο	
Liu et al. (2016)	USA	1 (and subcat chmen ts)	15.6	Gully	Rangeland, cultivated land	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, C+N+H+S	137Cs, 238U,	Yes	Νο	Νο	
Palazón et al. (2016)	Spain	1	1479	Subsoi l (erode d areas+ badlan ds)	Forest/cro pland/scru bland	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, magnetic properties	238U, 226Ra, 232Th, 40K, 210Pb, 137Cs	Yes	Yes	No	

Zhou et al. (2016)	China	1	30	Chann el bank	Cultivated, woodland	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try	137Cs	Yes	Νο	Νο	Mines and roads
Palazón and Navas (2017)	Spain	1	1509	Subsoi l (erode d areas+ badlan ds)	Forest/cro pland/scru bland	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, magnetic properties	238U, 226Ra, 232Th, 40K, 210Pb, 137Cs	Yes	Yes	No	
Boudreault et al. (2018)	Canada	1	14.5	Forest subsoi l, agricul tural subsoi l	Forest topsoil, agricultural topsoil	FRNs, colour, particle size and shape	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Νο	
Froger et al. (2018)	France	1	900	Urban, road deposi ted sedim ent	Forest, cropland	FRNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 7Be	No	No	No	Descript ive part

Nosrati et al. (2018)	Iran	1	78	Road cuttin gs, chann el banks	Hillslopes	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, TOC, TN	137Cs (and geochem)	Yes	Yes	No	
Rode et al. (2018)	Burkina Faso	1	580	Gully, chann el bank, road	Agriculture , badlands	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try	7Be/210Pb/13 7Cs	Yes	Yes	No	
Gaspar et al. (2019)	Spain	2	1.8, 43	Subsoi I, chann el banks	Agricultura I, rangeland	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, TOC, magnetic properties, total P	238U, 226Ra, 232Th, 40K, 137Cs	Yes	Yes	No	After an exceptio nal flood

Huang et al. (2019a)	China	1	27.6	Gully	Cultivated topsoil, uncultivate d topsoil	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Νο	Νο	
Huang et al. (2019b)	China	1	27.6	Gully	Cultivated topsoil, uncultivate d topsoil	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try	137Cs	Yes	Νο	No	
Lim et al. (2019)	South Korea	1	2365	Chann el banks	Cropland topsoils, forest floor topsoils	FRNs, Elemental Geochemis try, magnetic properties	137Cs, 226Ra, 210Pb	Yes	Νο	Νο	

Lizaga et al.	Spain	1	23	Erode	Cropland,	FRNs,	238U, 226Ra,	Yes	Yes	No	Before/
(2019)				d	open	Elemental	232Th, 40K,				after a
				subsoi	forest, pine	Geochemis	137Cs				major
				I,	afforestati	try,					flood
				chann	on	magnetic					(flood
				el		properties					stages)
				bank							

Referen ce	Countr Y	Stud y site( s)	Surfa ce area (km²)	Type of sources considered	Subsurfa ce sources	Surface sources	Tracing properties considere d	Environme ntal radionucli des considered	Use of an un- mixi ng mod el	Inclusion of <sup>137</sup> Cs in the model	Use of a model consideri ng <sup>137</sup> Cs alone	Remark
Walling and Woodw ard (1995)	UK	1	276	Land use + Geology	Channel banks	Cultivated, pasture	FRNs, Magnetis m, C+N	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	Yes	Yes	Νο	Land uses were traced in different geologies; 226Ra indicative of rock type
Collins et al. (1997)	UK	2	601; 4325	Land use + sub-basin	Channel banks	Cultivated, pasture, forest	FRNs, Elemental Geochemi stry, C+N, total P	137Cs	Yes	Νο	Νο	Tributary approach

Table 3. Studies including <sup>137</sup>Cs to trace a combination of surface vs. subsurface and/or land use-based source contributions to sediment, or based on tributary based approaches or investigating the contributions of particular source types (i.e. mining vs. non-mining, contaminated vs. non-contaminated).

Walling et al. (1999)	UK	1	4133	Land use, geology	Channel banks	Uncultivate d topsoil, cultivated topsoil, forest	FRNs, Elemental Geochemi stry, C+N, total P, magnetic properties	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	Yes	Yes (for land use not geology)	Νο	
Russell et al. (2001)	UK	4	1.5; 0.31; 2.3; 0.96	Mix of land use, soil type and geology	Channel banks	Arable, hopyard, pasture	FRNs, Elemental Geochemi stry, C+N, free oxide forms of Fe, Mn and Al, magnetic properties	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	No	Field drains

Motha et al. (2004)	Austral ia	1	11.1	Mix of land use and geology	Gravelle d or ungravel led road	Cropland, grassland, undisturbe d forest	FRNs, Elemental Geochemi stry, magnetic properties	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes	Νο	Geology: cropland on basalt or granite material
Collins and Walling (2007a)	UK	2	437; 183	Land use + sub-basin	Channel banks	Cultivated, uncultivate d, forest	FRNs, Elemental Geochemi stry, C+N, total P	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	Yes	Yes (in some catchme nts)	Νο	Tributary approach
Collins and Walling (2007b)	UK	3	234; 166; 231	Land use + sub-basin	Channel banks	Cultivated, pasture	FRNs, Elemental Geochemi stry, C+N, P fractions	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	Yes	n/a (!!!)	Νο	Tributary approach

Rhoton et al. (2008)	USA	1	150	Sub-basins (7)			FRNs, TOC+TIC, exchangea ble cations, d13C, quantified colour, magnetic properties	137Cs, 40K, 226Ra,	Yes	Yes	No	Tracing the sub- basin contributions at the outlet
Simms et al. (2008)	Austral ia	1	91.5	Erosion processes	Gully floor, gully collapse	Rills, sheet erosion	FRNs	137Cs, 210Pb	No	No	No	Only descriptive
Hughes et al. (2009)	Austral ia	1	6000	Geologies and surface vs. subsurface	Gully sidewall s and headcut s, exposed river banks	Cultivated land, uncultivate d pasture	FRNs, Geochemi cal Elements	137Cs, 210Pb, 226Ra	Yes	Yes (for erosion type)	Νο	

Ritchie et al. (2009)	USA	1	150	Sub- catchment/la nd use	Not informe d	Shrub- dominated, grass- dominated	FRNs, TOC, d13C	137Cs	Yes	Yes	Νο	
Evrard et al. (2011)	France	1	907	Geologies	n/a	n/a	FRNs, Elemental Geochemi stry	241Am, 7Be, 137Cs, 210Pb, 40K, 226Ra, 228Th, 234Th	Yes	Νο	Νο	Description of FRNs
Navratil et al. (2012)	France	1	907	Geologies	n/a	n/a	FRNs, Elemental Geochemi stry	7Be, 137Cs, 210Pb, 40K, 226Ra, 228Ra, 234Th, 228Th	Yes	Νο	Yes	Description of FRNs

Evrard et al. (2013)	Mexico	4	12; 3; 9; 630	Land use + soil types	Gullies, forest roads;	Cropland	FRNs, C+N, spectrosco py (DRIFTS)	241Am, 7Be, 137Cs, 210Pb, 40K, 226Ra, 228Ra, 228Ra, 228Th, 234Th,	Yes	Yes (in 2 catchme nts)	Νο	
Koiter et al. (2013)	Canada	1	74.41	Mix of land use and geology	Channel banks; shale bedrock material	Topsoil from cropland and riparian zones	FRNs, Elemental Geochemi stry	137Cs,	Yes	Yes	Νο	
Schuller et al. (2013)	Chile	4	0.198 ; 0.076 ; 0.127 ; 0.077	Pre-harvest, post-harvest, post- replanting, control			FRNs	137Cs, 210Pb, 40K, 226Ra	Yes	Yes	Νο	Forest management
Stout et al. (2013)	USA	1	4300	Tributary approach	Unclear	Unclear	FRNs	7Be, 210Pb, 137Cs, 10Be	No	Νο	No	Floodplain exchange
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Wilkins on et al. (2013)	Austral	4	14, 1200; 9400, 1300 00	Mix of surface vs. subsurface, geologies, river confluences	Gully wall, gully floor deposits , rilled hillslope	Hillslope soil	FRNs, Elemental Geochemi stry	137Cs, 210Pb	Yes	Yes (for surface vs. subsurfa ce)	Yes (in some catchme nts)	
Krausha ar et al. (2015)	Jordan	1	263.5	Mix of land use and geology	Gullies; C- horizons	Cultivated with olives; cultivated with wheat and vegetables; grazed	FRNs, Elemental Geochemi stry, C (TOC/TIC)	137Cs, 40K, 228Th, 232Th	Yes	Νο	Νο	Cultivation type

Zebracki et al. (2015)	France	1	9650 0	Sub-basin (geology/loca tion)			FRNs	40K, 232Th, 238U, 137Cs, 239+240Pu	Yes	Νο	Νο	Upstream/Ceven ol/Pre-Alpine
Du and Walling (2017)	UK	1	0.07	Eroding vs. deposition locations			FRNs, C+N, P fractions, Elemental Geochemi stry	137Cs,	Yes	Yes	Νο	Field scale
Nosrati (2017)	Iran	1	4.47	Mix of land use and hillslope components	n/a	Forest/crop land (summit, shoulder, backslope, toeslope)	FRNs, C	40K, 238U, 226Ra, 232Th, 137Cs,	Yes	Yes	Νο	Hillslope components
Evrard et al. (2019)	Japan	2	77, 275	Contaminate d vs. uncontamina ted	Subsoil	Topsoil exposed to fallout	FRNs	137Cs, 134Cs	Yes	Yes	Yes	Following Fukushima (tributary approach)

Sellier	New	1	397	Mining vs.	Tributari	Tributaries	FRNs,	137Cs,	Yes	No	No	Mining
et al.	Caledo			non-mining	es	devoid of	Elemental	210Pb,				
(2019)	nia				draining	mines	Geochemi	228Th,				
					mines		stry	238U, 40K				

- 1 Figure 1. Location of catchments and number of studies where <sup>137</sup>Cs was used to discriminate
- 2 sediment source contributions across the world.





Figure 2. Evolution of the cumulative number of studies including <sup>137</sup>Cs measurements for quantifying
sediment source contributions between 1988 and 2019.



Figure 4. Distribution of radionuclide fallout from thermonuclear bomb testing with latitude in the world, after UNSCEAR (2000), and the proportion of monthly bomb fallout data missing between 1954-1976 for each 10-degree latitude based on records from those available monitoring stations (Health and Safety Laboratory, 1977). Overall, 50% of data were missing for this period, as most of the monitoring stations did not show continuous records. Of note, the global fallout period (1963– 1967) is that with the lowest proportion of missing data, ranging from 20 to 30% in both hemispheres, compared to higher proportions between 1954-1959 (~89%) and 1967-1976 (~40%).



## Proportion of EML <sup>90</sup>Sr data missing (%) between 1954-1976

- 71
- 72
- 73
- 74
- 75
- 76
- 77
- .
- 78
- 79
- 80
- 81
- 82

Figure 5. Evolution of the <sup>137</sup>Cs activities in (a) cultivated topsoil and (b) subsurface soils of the northern hemisphere and (c) in cultivated topsoil and (d) subsurface soils of the southern hemisphere depending on the proportion of <sup>137</sup>Cs worldwide fallout after UNSCEAR (2000). Data decay-corrected to January 1, 2019. 



96 Figure 6. Box-plots of <sup>137</sup>Cs activities (decay-corrected to January 1, 2019) in surface and subsurface





- 110 Figure 7. Comparison of the proportion of the global fallout of atmospheric <sup>210</sup>Pb (Baskaran, 2011)
- 111 and <sup>137</sup>Cs (after UNSCEAR, 2000).



- 126 Figure 8. Applicability of sediment fingerprinting techniques including <sup>137</sup>Cs for discriminating surface
- 127 and subsurface sources around the world.



## SM1

Click here to download Supplementary material for online publication only: SM1\_literature-review-data.xlsx

## SM2

Click here to download Supplementary material for online publication only: SM2\_137Cs\_literature-values-Final.xlsx