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Tracking the early dispersion of contaminated sediment along rivers draining the Fukushima radioactive pollution plume

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Keywords: erosion; sediment; river catchments; contamination; transfer

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4 **6 ABSTRACT**
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8 7 Soil erosion and subsequent sediment transport in rivers play a major role in the global
9
10 8 biogeochemical cycles and on the dispersion of contaminants within the natural environment. As
11
12 9 other particle-borne pollutants, fallout radionuclides emitted after the Fukushima Dai-ichi
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14 10 Nuclear Power Plant (FDNPP) accident are strongly sorbed by fine particles, and they are
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16 11 therefore likely to be redistributed by hydro-sedimentary processes across catchments. Although
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18 12 regrettable, the Fukushima catastrophe and the associated massive radionuclide release provide a
19
20 13 unique opportunity to track the dispersion of sediment in catchments exposed to typhoons and to
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22 14 better understand the anthropogenic impacts on particle-borne transfers within the natural
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24 15 environment. Fieldwork around FDNPP and subsequent lab work on Fukushima samples
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26 16 required the compliance with very demanding radioprotection and security rules. Here, we
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28 17 collected exposed riverbed sediment (n=162) along rivers and in reservoirs draining the
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30 18 catchments contaminated by the main radioactive pollution plume that extends across Fukushima
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32 19 Prefecture in November 2011, April 2012 and November 2012. We measured their gamma-
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34 20 emitting radionuclide activities and compared them to the documented surveys in nearby soils.
35
36 21 We show that the $^{110m}\text{Ag}:^{137}\text{Cs}$ ratio provided a tracer of the dispersion of contaminated sediment
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38 22 in one specific catchment draining the most contaminated area. Our results demonstrate that the
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40 23 system was very reactive to the succession of summer typhoons and spring snowmelt. We
41
42 24 identified a partial export of contaminated sediment from inland mountain ranges – exposed
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44 25 initially to the highest radionuclide fallout – to the coastal plains as soon as in November 2011,
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46 26 after a series of violent typhoons. This export was amplified by the spring snowmelt, and
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48 27 remaining contaminated material temporarily stored in the river channel was flushed by the
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50 28 typhoons that occurred during summer in 2012. This catchment behaviour characterized by the
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high transmissivity of paddy fields strongly connected to the river network in upland mountain ranges and the potential storage in the coastal plains that are successively filled with contaminated sediment and then flushed was illustrated by the calculation of an index of hydro-sedimentary connectivity and the construction of river longitudinal profiles. We thereby suggest that coastal rivers have become a perennial supply of contaminated sediment to the Pacific Ocean. Our findings show that Fukushima accident produced original tracers to monitor particle-borne transfers across the affected area shortly after the catastrophe. Furthermore, we outlined that this accident generated a distinct geological record that will be useful for sediment dating behind reservoirs in Japan during the next decades.

1. INTRODUCTION

As a consequence of the magnitude 9.0 earthquake and the subsequent tsunami that occurred on 11 March 2011 (Simons et al., 2011), the Fukushima Dai-ichi Nuclear Power Plant (FDNPP) underwent a series of serious damages (Burns et al., 2012). After failure of the cooling systems, several hydrogen explosions affected three of the six nuclear reactors of the power plant on March 12, 14 and 15, and affected a fourth reactor which had already been stopped (Achim et al., 2012). Significant quantities of radionuclides were released into the environment between 12 and 31 March (Morino et al., 2013). Radioactive substance quantities released by the FDNPP accident were estimated to reach 11–40% (190-700 PBq) of the total amount of ^{131}I and 14–62% (12– 53.1 PBq) of the total ^{137}Cs emitted by Chernobyl accident (Chino et al., 2011; Nuclear Safety Commission of Japan, 2011; IRSN, 2012; Stohl et al., 2012; Winiarek et al., 2012). Despite the bulk of radionuclides (~80%) were transported offshore and out over the Pacific Ocean (Buesseler et al., 2011; Masson et al., 2011), significant wet and dry deposits of those

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4 52 radionuclides occurred predominantly in Fukushima Prefecture on 15–16 March, leading to a
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6 53 strong contamination of soils (Yasunari et al., 2011; Kinoshita et al., 2011). In particular, 6.4
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8 54 PBq of ^{137}Cs (~20% of the total emissions) were modeled to have deposited on Japanese soils
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10 55 (Stohl et al., 2012) over a distance of 70 km to the northwest of FDNPP (Fig. 1a). Soils
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12 56 characterized by a ^{137}Cs contamination exceeding 100 kBq.m^{-2} cover ca. 3000 km^2 (MEXT,
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14 57 2011).
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20 58 When reaching such high levels, radioactive contamination constitutes a real threat for
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22 59 the local populations. Resulting radiations lead to an external exposure threat that depends on the
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24 60 spatial distribution of radionuclides and the time of exposition (Endo et al., 2012; Garnier-
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26 61 Laplace et al., 2011). This threat, associated with the possibility of transfer of contamination to
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28 62 plants, animals and direct ingestion of contaminated particles, will affect human activities such
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30 63 as agriculture, forest exploitation and fishing for long periods of time, depending on the half-life
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32 64 of the radionuclides (e.g., 2 yrs for ^{134}Cs ; 30 yrs for ^{137}Cs). Those latter substances are strongly
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34 65 sorbed by soil particles (and especially by their clay, silt and organic matter fractions) and may
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36 66 therefore be delivered to rivers by runoff and erosion processes triggered on hillslopes (Motha et
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38 67 al., 2002; Tamura, 1964; Whitehead, 1978). This sediment may then further convey
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40 68 contaminants in rivers, and its transfer can lead to the dispersion of radioactive contamination
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42 69 across larger areas over time (Rogowski and Tamura, 1965, Simpson et al., 1976). To our
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44 70 knowledge, those transfers following the FDNPP releases have only been investigated at the
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46 71 scale of individual fields (e.g. Koarashi et al., 2012) or in very small catchments of northeastern
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48 72 Japan (Ueda et al., 2013). Still, assessing as soon as possible the spatial and temporal variations
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50 73 of radioactive contaminant dispersion has become one of the major concerns for the protection of
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52 74 natural ecosystems and human populations living in this region.
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75 In addition to problems associated with the high radioactive contamination which
76 justifies its urgent monitoring at the regional scale, this event, although regrettable, also
77 constitutes a unique scientific opportunity to track in an original way particle-borne transfers that
78 play a major role in global biogeochemical cycles (Van Oost et al., 2007) and in the transfer of
79 contaminants within the natural environment (Meybeck, 2003). Conducting this type of study is
80 particularly worthwhile in Japanese mountainous river systems exposed to both summer
81 typhoons and spring snowmelt, where we can expect that those transfers are rapid, massive and
82 episodic (Mouri et al., 2011).

83 During this study, fieldwork required being continuously adapted to the evolution of the
84 delineation of restricted areas around FDNPP, and laboratory experiments on Fukushima
85 samples necessitated the compliance with specific radioprotection rules (i.e., procedures for
86 sample preparation, analysis and storage). In addition, the earthquake and the subsequent
87 tsunami led to the destruction of river gauging stations in the coastal plains, and background data
88 (discharge and suspended sediment concentrations) were unavailable during the study period.
89 Monitoring stations have only become operational again from December 2012 onwards.

90 In this post-accidental context, this paper aims to provide alternative methods to estimate
91 the early dispersion of contaminated sediment during the 20 months that followed the nuclear
92 accident in those mountainous catchments exposed to a succession of erosive rainfall, snowfall
93 and snowmelt events. It will also investigate, based on the radioisotopes identified, whether the
94 accident produced geological records, i.e. characteristic properties in sediment deposit layers,
95 that may be used in the future for sediment tracing and dating.

97 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

98 **2.1. Study site and mapping of initial soil contamination**

99 The objective of the study that covered the period from November 2011 to November 2012 was
100 to document the type and the magnitude of radioactive contamination found in sediment
101 collected along rivers draining the main radioactive pollution plume that extends over 20 to 50
102 km to the northwest of FDNPP in Fukushima Prefecture (Fig. 1a). For this purpose, we measured
103 their gamma-emitting radionuclide activities and compared them to the documented surveys in
104 nearby soils. In association with the U.S. Department of Energy (DOE), the Japanese Ministry of
105 Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) performed a series of detailed
106 airborne surveys of air dose rates 1-m above soils and of radioactive substance deposition
107 (gamma-emitting) in the ground surface shortly after the nuclear accident (from 6 to 29 April
108 2011) in Fukushima Prefecture (MEXT and DOE, 2011). The MEXT sampled and analysed
109 gamma-emitting radionuclides in the upper 5-cm layer of soil collected from 2200 sites located
110 within a radius of approximately 100 km around FDNPP during June and July 2011 to validate
111 and enlarge the use of these airborne surveys (MEXT, 2011a). Background maps of point-based
112 radionuclide inventories in soils ($^{134}\text{Cs} + ^{137}\text{Cs}$, $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$) designed in this study (Fig. 1a, 2, 3, 4, 7)
113 were drawn from data provided by MEXT for these 2200 investigated locations. We
114 hypothesised that those radionuclides were concentrated in the soil upper 2 cm layer, and that
115 soils had a mean bulk density of 1.15 g.cm^{-3} based on data collected in the area (Kato et al.,
116 2011; Matsunaga et al., 2013). Within this set of 2200 soil samples, $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$ activities were only
117 reported for a selection of 345 samples that were counted long enough to detect this radioisotope
118 (Fig. 3, 4). All activities were decay corrected to 14 June 2011. A map of total radiocaesium
119 activities was interpolated across the entire study area by performing ordinary kriging to

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4 120 appreciate regional fallout patterns in soils (Fig. 1a, 2, 7; Chilès and Delfiner, 1988; Goovaerts,
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6 121 1997). A cross validation was then applied to the original data to corroborate the variogram
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9 122 model. The mean error (R) was defined as follows (Eq. 1):
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$$R = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n [z^*(x_i) - z(x_i)], \quad (1)$$

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17 124 where $z^*(x_i)$ is the estimated value at x_i , and $z(x_i)$ is the measured value at x_i .
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21 125 The ratio of the mean squared error to the kriging variance was calculated as described in Eq.
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$$S_R^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n [z^*(x_i) - z(x_i)]^2 / \sigma_k^2(x_i), \quad (2)$$

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31 128 where $\sigma_k^2(x_i)$ is the theoretical estimation variance for the prediction of $z^*(x_i)$.
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35 129 The temporal evolution of contamination in rivers draining the main radioactive plume
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37 130 was analyzed based on samples (described in section 2.2) taken after the main erosive events
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39 131 which were expected to affect this area (i.e., the summer typhoons and the spring snowmelt).
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41 132 During the first fieldwork campaign in November 2011, we travelled through the entire area
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43 133 where access was unrestricted (i.e., outside the area of 20-km radius centered on FDNPP; Fig.
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45 134 1b) and that potentially drained the main radioactive plume of Fukushima Prefecture, i.e. the
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47 135 Abukuma River basin (5200 km²), and the coastal catchments (Mano, Nitta and Ota Rivers,
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49 136 covering a total area of 525 km²). Those systems drain to the Pacific Ocean from an upstream
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51 137 altitude of 1835 m a.s.l. Woodland (79%) and cropland (18%) represent the main land uses in the
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53 138 area. Mean annual precipitation varies appreciably across the study area (1100–2000 mm), in
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139 response to the high variation of altitude and relief and the associated variable importance of
140 snowfall.

141 During the second campaign (April 2012), based on the results of the first survey, the size
142 and the delineation of the study area were adapted for a set of practical, logistical and safety
143 reasons. Therefore, we targeted our sampling on the coastal catchments, where contamination
144 was the highest and where the application of the potential tracer that we identified was the most
145 promising.

146 **2.2. Sample collection**

147 We collected representative river sediment samples at exposed subaerial sites free of vegetation
148 on channel bars between 17 and 23 November 2011 (69 sampling sites), between 3 and 8 April
149 2012 (40 sampling sites) and between 8 and 12 November 2012 (53 sampling sites) along the
150 main rivers draining the area and some of their major tributaries. At each sampling site, five to
151 ten subsamples of fine sediment that is likely to be deposited after the last major flood were
152 collected at several locations selected randomly down to the underlying coarser cobble or gravel
153 layer across a 10-m² surface by the means of a plastic trowel. They were subsequently used to
154 prepare a composite sample representative of the fine sediment deposited on the channel bars.
155 Bulk samples were dried, weighed, ground to a fine powder, packed into 15 ml pre-tared
156 polyethylene specimen cups and sealed airtight. During the November 2012 fieldwork campaign,
157 we also had the opportunity to collect samples of the different layers representative of the 1.6-m
158 deep sediment sequence that accumulated behind Yokokawa dam on Ota River.

159 **2.3. Radionuclide analyses**

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Radionuclide activities (^{134}Cs , ^{137}Cs , $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$) in all samples were determined by gamma spectrometry using very low-background coaxial N- and P-types HPGe detectors with a relative efficiency of ca. 50% at 1332 keV. Counting time of soil and sediment samples varied between 8×10^4 and 200×10^4 s to allow the detection of $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$, which was present in much lower activities in the samples ($2\text{--}2390 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1}$) than ^{134}Cs and ^{137}Cs ($500\text{--}1,245,000 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1}$). The ^{137}Cs activities were measured at the 661 keV emission peak. The ^{134}Cs activities were calculated as the mean of activities derived from measurements conducted at 604 keV and 795 keV (^{228}Ac activities being negligible compared to ^{134}Cs activities) as both peaks are associated with the largest gamma emission intensities of this radionuclide. The presence of $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$ was confirmed by the detection of emission peaks at 885, 937 and 1384 keV, but activities were calculated from results obtained at 885 keV only. Minimum detectable activities in $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$ for 24h count times reached 2 Bq.kg^{-1} . Errors reached ca. 5% on ^{134}Cs and ^{137}Cs activities, and 10% on $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$ activities at the 95% confidence level. All measured counts were corrected for background levels measured at least every 2 months as well as for detector and geometry efficiencies. Results were systematically expressed in Bq.kg^{-1} of dry weight. Counting efficiencies and quality assurance were conducted using internal and certified International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) reference materials prepared in the same specimen cups as the samples. All radionuclide activities were decay corrected to the date of 14 June 2011 corresponding to the reference date of the MEXT soil sampling campaign (used to compute the background contamination maps; see section 2.1 for details) that was conducted just before the occurrence of typhoons in 2011 (July–September).

2.4. Calculation of a hillslope-to-sink hydro-sedimentary connectivity index

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182 A connectivity index was computed according to the method developed by Borselli et al. (2008)
183 to outline the spatial linkages and the potential connection between the sediment eroded from
184 hillslopes by runoff processes and the different storage areas identified within catchments. These
185 areas may either store sediment temporarily (i.e., reservoirs, lakes or local depressions in the
186 floodplain) or definitively (i.e., outlets). Considering the lack of specific-event data such as soil
187 erosion rates, discharge and suspended sediment concentrations, this index of connectivity based
188 on GIS data tended to describe the general hydro-sedimentary behaviour of the investigated
189 catchments. To calculate this index, landscape morphological characteristics and recent land use
190 patterns were derived from high resolution databases. The potential of various land use surfaces
191 to produce or store sediment was also assessed.

The calculation was conducted on a Digital Elevation Model (DEM) with a 10-m regular
grid provided by the Geospatial Information Authority of Japan (GSI) from the Ministry of Land,
Infrastructure, Transport and Tourism (<http://www.gsi.go.jp/>). This DEM was computed by the
GSI from data obtained by LIDAR airborne monitoring surveys.

Values of the weighting cropping and management parameter (the so-called ‘C-factor’),
originally used in the USLE equation (USDA, 1978), were determined based on data found in
the literature (Borselli et al., 2008; Kitahara et al., 2000; Yoshikawa et al., 2004) and applied to
the different land use classes observed in the catchments and determined by a multitemporal and
multispectral classification of SPOT-4 and SPOT-5 satellite images. SPOT-4 20-m resolution
images dated from May 5, June 3 and September 10 2010, and SPOT-5 10-m resolution images
dated from March 18, April 13 and 24, 2011. Differences in spectral responses (reflectances)
between land uses allowed their spatial discrimination using ENVI 4.8 software. Then, based on
their respective vegetal cover density during the spring season and their implications on soil

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4 205 sensitivity to erosion, three main land uses were identified (i.e., forests, croplands and built-up
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6 206 areas). Additionally, surface water areas (i.e., rivers, lakes, reservoirs) were delineated. The land
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9 207 use map was validated by generating a set (n=150) of random points on the map and by
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11 208 comparing the classification output with the land use determined visually on available aerial
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14 209 photographs of the study area.

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17 210 Hydrological drainage networks were derived from the GSI 10-m regular grid DEM
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19 211 using hydrologic analysis tools available from ArcGIS10 (ESRI, 2011). As several sections of
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22 212 hydrological networks did not coincide with the observed ones due to anthropogenic
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24 213 modifications introduced for urban and rural landscape management, manual corrections were
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27 214 applied, based on the analysis of the SPOT-4, SPOT-5 images and maps provided by the ArcGIS
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30 215 Online Map and Geoservices (ESRI, 2013).

31 32 33 216 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

34 35 36 217 **3.1. Contamination of soils and river sediments**

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39 218 The map of total cesium activities in soils of the study area was drawn by performing ordinary
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42 219 **kriging** on the MEXT soil database (Fig. 1a, 2, 7). A pure nugget (sill= $1.07 \cdot 10^9 \text{Bq}^2 \cdot \text{kg}^{-2}$) and a
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44 220 Gaussian model (Anisotropy= 357° , Major range=69,100m, Minor range=65,000m and Partial
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47 221 sill= $1.76 \cdot 10^9 \text{Bq}^2 \cdot \text{kg}^{-2}$) were nested into the experimental variogram (Fig. S1). This high nugget
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49 222 value may be influenced by the limited spacing between MEXT sampling locations (ca. 200 m)
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52 223 that did not allow to assess the very close-range spatial dependence of the data, and by the
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54 224 impact of vegetation cover variations on initial fallout interception. Nevertheless, the resulting
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57 225 initial soil contamination map was considered to be relevant, as the mean error was close to zero

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4 226 (-1.19Bq.kg⁻¹) and the ratio of the mean squared error to the kriging variance remained close to
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7 227 unity (0.99).
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13 229 Eight months after the accident, main anthropogenic gamma-emitting radionuclides detected in
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15 230 river sediment across the area were ¹³⁴Cs, ¹³⁷Cs and ^{110m}Ag. Trace levels in ^{110m}Ag (*t*_{1/2} = 250 d)
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18 231 were previously measured in soils collected near the power plants (Tagami et al., 2011;
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20 232 Shozugawa et al., 2012) as well as in zooplankton collected off Japan in June 2011 (Buesseler et
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23 233 al., 2012), but a set of systematic ^{110m}Ag measurements conducted at the scale of entire
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25 234 catchments had not been provided so far. This anthropogenic radioisotope is a fission product
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28 235 derived from ²³⁵U, ²³⁸U or ²³⁹Pu (JAEA, 2010). It is considered to have a moderate radiotoxicity
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30 236 as it was shown to accumulate in certain tissues such as in liver and brain of sheep and pig
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33 237 (Oughton, 1989; Handl et al., 2000). This radioisotope was observed shortly after Chernobyl
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35 238 accident but, in this latter context, it was rather considered as an activation product generated by
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38 239 corrosion of silver coating of primary circuit components and by erosion of fuel rod coatings
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40 240 containing cadmium (Jones et al., 1986). The presence of ¹²⁵Sb (*t*_{1/2} = 2.7 y), which is also a
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43 241 fission product, was also detected in most samples (1-585 Bq.kg⁻¹; data not shown). All other
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45 242 short-lived isotopes (e.g., ¹³¹I [*t*_{1/2} = 8 d], ¹³⁶Cs [*t*_{1/2} = 13 d], ^{129m}Te [*t*_{1/2} = 34 d]) that were found
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47 243 shortly after the accident in the environment were not detected anymore in the collected sediment
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50 244 samples (Shozugawa et al., 2012). By November 2011, ¹³⁴⁺¹³⁷Cs activities measured in river
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52 245 sediment ranged between 500–1,245,000 Bq kg⁻¹, sometimes far exceeding (by a factor 2 to 20)
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55 246 the activity associated with the initial deposits on nearby soils (Fig. 2). This result confirms the
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57 247 concentration of radionuclides in fine river sediments because of their strong particle-reactive
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60 248 behaviour (Tamura, 1964; Whitehead, 1978; Motha et al., 2002).
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249 Those contamination levels are between 1 and 5 orders of magnitude higher than before
250 the accident (Fukuyama et al., 2010). As we could expect it, the highest contamination levels
251 (total $^{134+137}\text{Cs}$ activities exceeding 100,000 Bq. kg^{-1}) were measured in sediment collected along
252 the coastal rivers (i.e., Mano and Nitta Rivers) draining the main radioactive plume (Fig. 2).
253 Contamination levels were logically much lower in sediment collected along the Abukuma River
254 that drains less contaminated areas. The analyses conducted by the Japanese Ministry of
255 Environment (MoE) provided an additional temporal insight into contaminated sediment exports
256 in this area. Our samples were collected in November 2011, whereas samples provided by MoE
257 showed that contamination of sediment was systematically the highest in material collected in
258 September 2011. The presence of contamination hotspots close to Fukushima City and behind a
259 large dam located upstream of the city is likely due to the rapid wash-off of radionuclides on
260 urban surfaces during the first series of rainfall events that followed the accident, to their
261 concentration in urban sewers systems (Urso et al., 2013) and their subsequent export to the
262 rivers. This rapid export of radionuclides shortly after the accident along the Abukuma River is
263 confirmed by data collected by the MoE (Fig. 2) showing a peak of contamination in sediment
264 collected in September 2011, and then a huge decrease to low activities even during snowmelt.
265 Along the Hirose River, the snowmelt (in March 2012) led in contrast to an increase in sediment
266 contamination.

267 At the light of those first results outlining a very rapid wash-off of radionuclides obtained
268 following the accident in the Abukuma River basin, we decided to focus the next fieldwork
269 campaigns on the coastal basins where radionuclide activities in sediment were the highest. We
270 extended sampling to the Ota River catchment, closer to FDNPP, where access was unauthorized
271 during the first campaign (Fig. 1b).

3.2. Dispersion of radioactive sediment along river channels

Whilst ^{137}Cs and ^{134}Cs gamma-emitting radioisotopes constitute by far the most problematic contaminants (with total activities in soils ranging from 50 to 1,110,000 Bq.kg^{-1}), $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$ was also identified and measured in most samples (with activities ranging from 1 to 3150 Bq.kg^{-1}). Because of these low activities, contribution of $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$ to the global dose rates was considered to be negligible. It appeared from the analysis of the MEXT soil database that the initial fallout pattern of $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$ displayed significant spatial variations that were not observed for the radiocaesium fallout pattern at the scale of the entire Fukushima Prefecture. Soil activities in $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$ were the highest within the main radiocaesium contamination plume as well as at several places along the coast located between 40 and 50 km to the north of the power plant (MEXT, 2011b).

Most interestingly, the 345 values of $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}:^{137}\text{Cs}$ ratio in MEXT soil samples strongly varied across the entire region (0.0004–0.15 with a mean of 0.006; Fig. 4), whereas the 2200 values of $^{134}\text{Cs}:^{137}\text{Cs}$ ratio remained relatively stable across the contamination plume (0.4–1.5 with a mean value close to 0.9; data not shown). Fallout patterns of $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}:^{137}\text{Cs}$ ratio in soils of Fukushima Prefecture provided a way to delineate three distinctive zones (Fig. 3, Table 1; i.e., ‘eastern’, ‘southern’ and ‘western’ zones). A Kruskal–Wallis H-test was conducted and it confirmed that these three zones were characterized by significantly different values of $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}:^{137}\text{Cs}$ ratio ($P < 0.001$; $\alpha = 0.05$).

The differences in fallout patterns between $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$ and ^{137}Cs were most likely due to the fact that those radionuclides were released during different explosions affecting reactors containing different fuel assemblages (Schwantes et al., 2012). Furthermore, even though the

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294 overall chronology of the reactor explosions could be reconstructed (e.g., Le Petit et al., 2012),
295 the subsequent radionuclide deposits are still imperfectly understood. To our knowledge, studies
296 that modeled radionuclide deposits across Fukushima Prefecture dealt with ^{131}I and/or ^{137}Cs
297 exclusively (e.g., Morino et al., 2013), and never with $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$. The single main operational
298 difference between the FDNPP damaged reactors is that mixed-oxide (MOX) containing
299 plutonium fuel that generates $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$ as a fission product was only used in reactor 3 (Le Petit et
300 al., 2012), which may explain this different radionuclide deposition pattern.

301 In the coastal study area, the area covered by both ‘western’ and ‘eastern’ zones was
302 unfortunately only large enough in the Nitta River catchment to be subsequently used to track the
303 dispersion of contaminated sediment based on values of this ratio measured in soils as well as in
304 river sediment (the area covered by the ‘western’ zone was too small in the Mano River
305 catchment, and no soil sample was collected by MEXT in the ‘western’ part of the Ota River
306 catchment; Fig.4). Descriptive statistics of $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}:^{137}\text{Cs}$ values in the single Nitta catchment
307 confirmed that the spatial variability of this ratio provided significantly different signatures in
308 both ‘western’ and ‘eastern’ areas in this catchment (Table 2).

309 In order to use this ratio to track sediment pathways, both radionuclides should exhibit a
310 similar behaviour in soils and sediment. A wide range of investigations dealt with ^{137}Cs
311 behaviour in soils, but a much lower number of studies addressed the behaviour of $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$ in
312 soils and sediment. However, according to our literature review, ^{137}Cs and $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$ are
313 characterized by similar solid/liquid partition coefficient (K_d) values ($9.0 \cdot 10^1$ - $4.4 \cdot 10^3$) in both
314 soils and sediment (IAEA, 1994; IPSN, 1994; Garnier-Laplace et al., 1997; Roussel-Debet and
315 Colle, 2005). Furthermore, it was demonstrated that $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$ is not mobile in soils (Alloway,
316 1995) and that it tends to concentrate in the few first centimeters of the soil uppermost surface, as

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317 it was reported for ^{137}Cs in Fukushima region (Kato et al., 2012; Handl et al., 2000; Shang and
318 Leung, 2003). Those literature data validate the relevance of using this ratio to discriminate
319 between sediment eroded from the mountain ranges located in the main contamination plume vs.
320 sediment mobilized from the coastal plains. This investigation is particularly crucial in the case
321 of coastal rivers in Fukushima Prefecture to guide the implementation of appropriate soil and
322 river management measures. Nitta River drains mountainous areas characterized by a high initial
323 contamination to the Pacific Ocean, by flowing across coastal plains that were relatively spared
324 by initial continental fallout but that are still currently densely populated (e.g. in Minamisoma
325 town).

326 The relative contribution of each source in the composition of riverbed sediment collected
327 during the three sampling campaigns in the Nitta catchment was then quantified through the
328 application of a binary mixing model. As an example, the relative contribution of ‘western’
329 source area X_w was determined from Eq. (3):

$$330 \quad X_w = \frac{\left(\frac{^{110m}\text{Ag}}{^{137}\text{Cs}}\right)_S - \left(\frac{^{110m}\text{Ag}}{^{137}\text{Cs}}\right)_E}{\left(\frac{^{110m}\text{Ag}}{^{137}\text{Cs}}\right)_W - \left(\frac{^{110m}\text{Ag}}{^{137}\text{Cs}}\right)_E} * 100, \quad (3)$$

331 Where X_w is the percentage fraction of the western source area, $(^{110m}\text{Ag}:^{137}\text{Cs})_w$ and
332 $(^{110m}\text{Ag}:^{137}\text{Cs})_E$ are the median values of $^{110m}\text{Ag}:^{137}\text{Cs}$ ratio measured in MEXT soil samples
333 collected in the ‘western’ and the ‘eastern’ source areas of the Nitta catchment, i.e. 0.0024 and
334 0.0057 respectively (Table 2), and $(^{110m}\text{Ag}:^{137}\text{Cs})_S$ is the isotopic ratio measured in the river
335 sediment sample. We did not include initial river sediment as a third end-member as the violent
336 typhoons that occurred between the accident (March 2011) and our first fieldwork campaign (November

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337 2011) likely flushed the fine riverbed sediment that was already present in the channels before the
338 accident.

339 Application of the mixing model illustrates the very strong reactivity of this catchment
340 and the entire flush of sediment stored in the river network during a one-year period only (Fig.
341 5). In November 2011, following the summer typhoons (i.e., Man-On on 20 July and Roke on 22
342 September that generated cumulative precipitation that reached between 215–310 mm across the
343 study area), contaminated soil was eroded from upstream fields and supplied to the upstream
344 sections of the rivers (Fig. 5a). Then, this sediment was exported to the coastal plains during the
345 discharge increase generated by the snowmelt in March 2012, as illustrated by the measurements
346 conducted on material sampled in April 2012 (Fig. 5b). Finally, sediment deposited within the
347 river network was flushed by the typhoons that occurred during summer in 2012. Those
348 typhoons were less violent than the ones that happened in 2011, and led to less intense erosion
349 than during the previous year, but they were sufficiently powerful to increase river discharges, to
350 export the sediment stored in the river channel and to replace it with material originating from
351 closer areas (Fig. 5c).

352 This massive transfer of contaminated sediment reflects the strong seasonality of
353 sediment fluxes in these rivers affected by both typhoons and spring snowmelt. Our results
354 confirm that, by exporting contaminated particles originating from the main inland radioactive
355 plume, coastal rivers are likely to have become a significant and perennial source of radionuclide
356 contaminants to the Pacific Ocean off Fukushima Prefecture. This could at least partly explain
357 the still elevated radionuclide levels measured in fish off Fukushima Prefecture (Buesseler et al.,
358 2012).

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359 Quantification of the hydro-sedimentary connectivity between hillslopes and the
360 identified sinks in the three coastal catchments provided additional information on the timing of
361 sediment transfer processes and their preferential pathways observed along the investigated
362 rivers (Fig. 6). Paddy fields located in the upstream part of both Nitta and Mano River
363 catchments were well connected to the thalweg and they constituted therefore an important
364 supply of contaminated material to the rivers or to small depressions located in the floodplain. In
365 contrast, in the flat coastal plains of those catchments, large cultivated surfaces were poorly
366 connected to the rivers. A distinct situation was observed in the Ota River catchment. In the
367 upper part of this catchment, land use is dominated by forests that are much less erodible than
368 cropland, but that could deliver contaminated material to the river during heavy rainfall
369 (Fukuyama et al., 2010). Furthermore, the high slope gradients observed in this area may have
370 led to the more frequent occurrence of mass movements in this area. This contaminated material
371 was then stored in the large Yokokawa reservoir. In the downstream part of the Ota River
372 catchment, paddy fields located in the vicinity of rivers were well connected to the watercourses
373 which contrasts with the situation outlined in the coastal plains of the Mano and Nitta River
374 catchments.

375 This transfer timing and preferential pathways are confirmed when we plot the
376 contamination in total $^{134+137}\text{Cs}$ measured in sediment collected during the three fieldwork
377 campaigns along the longitudinal profiles of the investigated rivers (Fig. 7). Overall, we
378 observed a general decrease in the contamination levels measured between the first and the last
379 campaign, especially in the Nitta River catchment (Fig. 7, left panels) where the difference is
380 particularly spectacular along the upstream sections of the Nitta (Fig. 7; profile c-d) and Itoi
381 Rivers (Fig. 7; profile g-e). Our successive measurements suggest that there has been a

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382 progressive flush of contaminated sediment towards the Pacific Ocean. However, the mountain
383 range piedmont and the coastal plains that have remained continuously inhabited constitute a
384 potentially large buffer area that may store temporarily large quantities of radioactive
385 contaminants from upstream areas. However, our data and the drawing of the longitudinal
386 profiles suggest that this storage was of short duration in the river channels. A similar flush was
387 observed between November 2011 and November 2012 along both Mano and Ota Rivers (Fig. 7;
388 profiles a-b and i-j). They are equipped with dams at 20 km from the outlet for Nitta River, and
389 at 16 and 12 km from the outlet for the Ota river. Only the finest – and most contaminated –
390 material is exported from their reservoirs, as suggested by the very high $^{134+137}\text{Cs}$ activities
391 measured in sediment collected just downstream of the dams (Fig. 7; profiles a-b and i-j). Those
392 reservoirs stored very large quantities of contaminated sediment, as illustrated by the
393 contamination profile documented in sediment accumulated behind Tetsuzen dam (Fig. 8).
394 Identification of a 10-cm sediment layer strongly enriched in $^{134+137}\text{Cs}$ ($308,000 \text{ Bq.kg}^{-1}$) and
395 overlaid by a more recent and less contaminated layer ($120,000 \text{ Bq.kg}^{-1}$) shows that Fukushima
396 accident produced a distinct geological record that will be useful for sediment dating and
397 estimation of stocks of contaminated material in this region of Japan during the next years and
398 decades.

400 **4. Conclusions**

401 The succession of typhoons and snowmelt events during the 20 months that followed FDNPP
402 accident led to the rapid and massive dispersion of contaminated sediment along coastal rivers
403 draining the catchments located in the main radioactive pollution plume. In this unique post-

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404 accidental context, the absence of continuous river monitoring has necessitated the combination
405 of indirect approaches (mapping and tracing based on radioisotopic ratios, connectivity
406 assessment) to provide this first overall picture of early sediment dispersion in Fukushima
407 coastal catchments. These results obtained on riverbed sediment should be compared to the
408 measurements conducted on suspended sediment that are being collected since December 2012.
409 The combination of those measurements with discharge and suspended sediment concentration
410 data will also allow calculating exports of contaminated sediment to the Pacific Ocean. Our
411 results showing the rapid dispersion of contaminated sediment from inland mountain ranges
412 along the coastal river network should also be compared to the ones obtained with the
413 conventional fingerprinting technique based on the geochemical signatures of contrasted
414 lithologies. Fukushima coastal catchments investigated by this study are indeed constituted of
415 contrasted sources (volcanic, plutonic and metamorphic sources in upper parts vs. sedimentary
416 sources in the coastal plains). This unique combination of surveys and techniques will provide
417 very important insights into the dispersion of particle-borne contamination in mountainous
418 catchments that are particularly crucial in this post-accidental context, but that will also be
419 applicable in other catchments of the world where other particle-borne contaminants are
420 problematic.

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Figure 1
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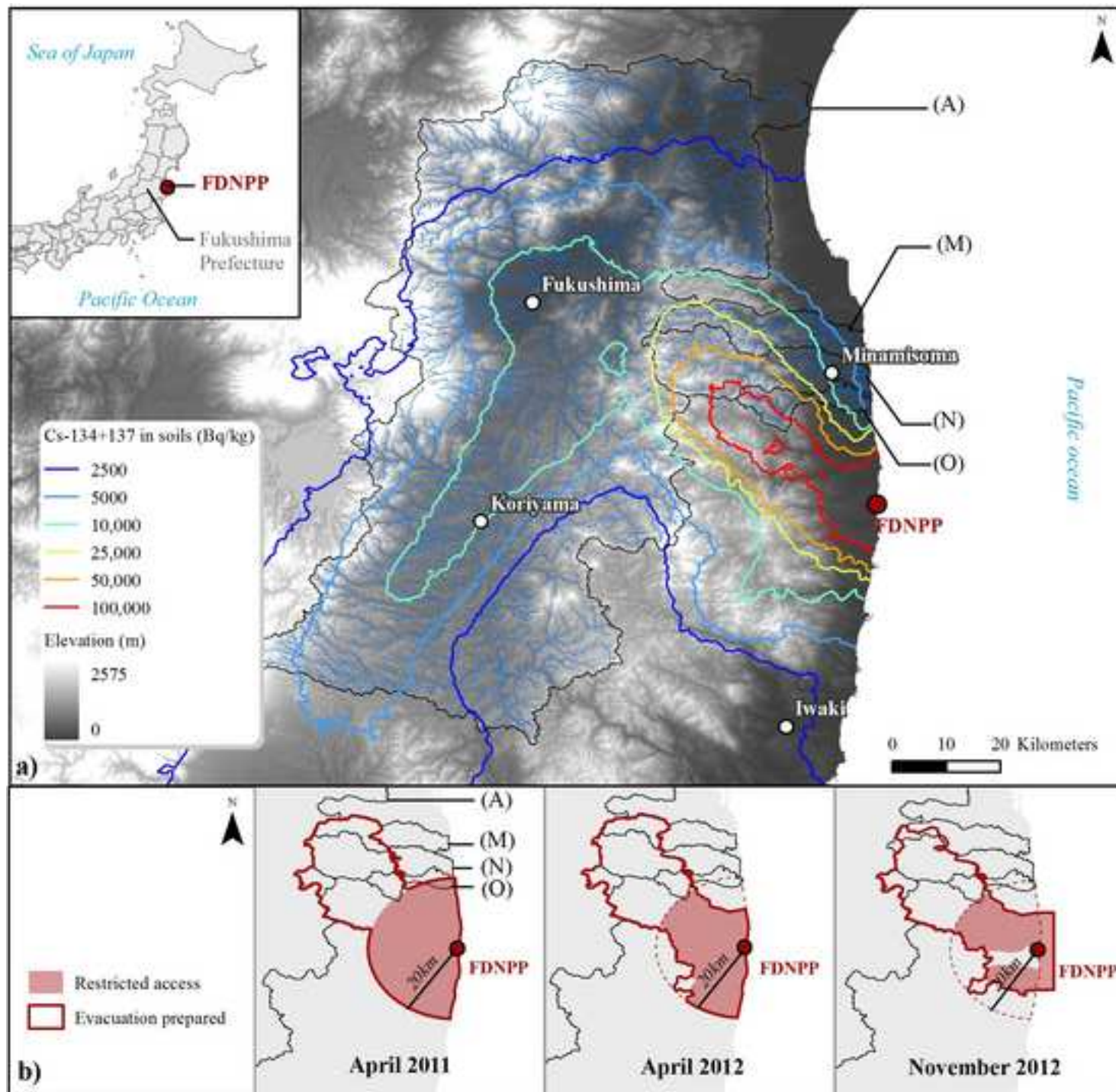


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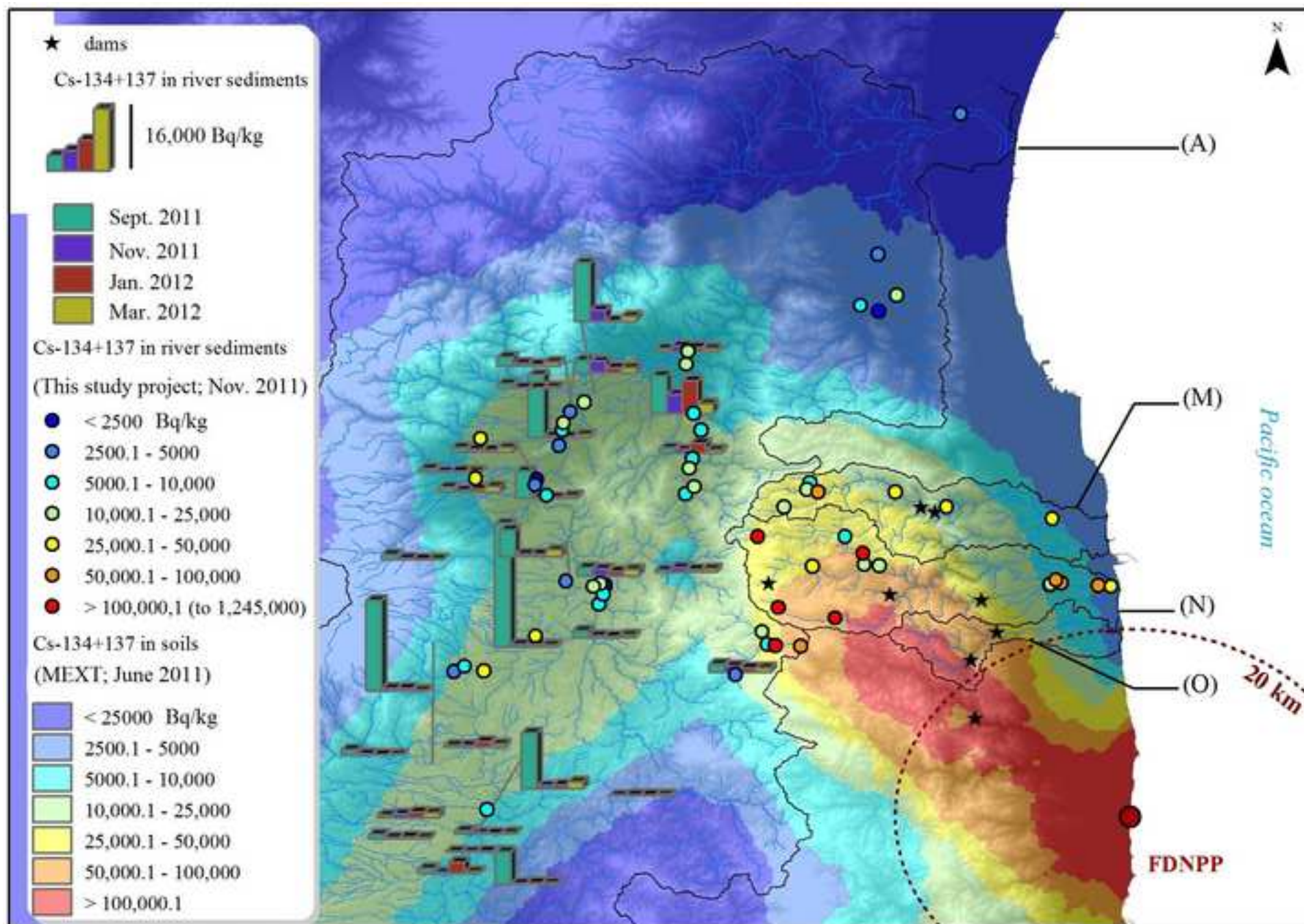


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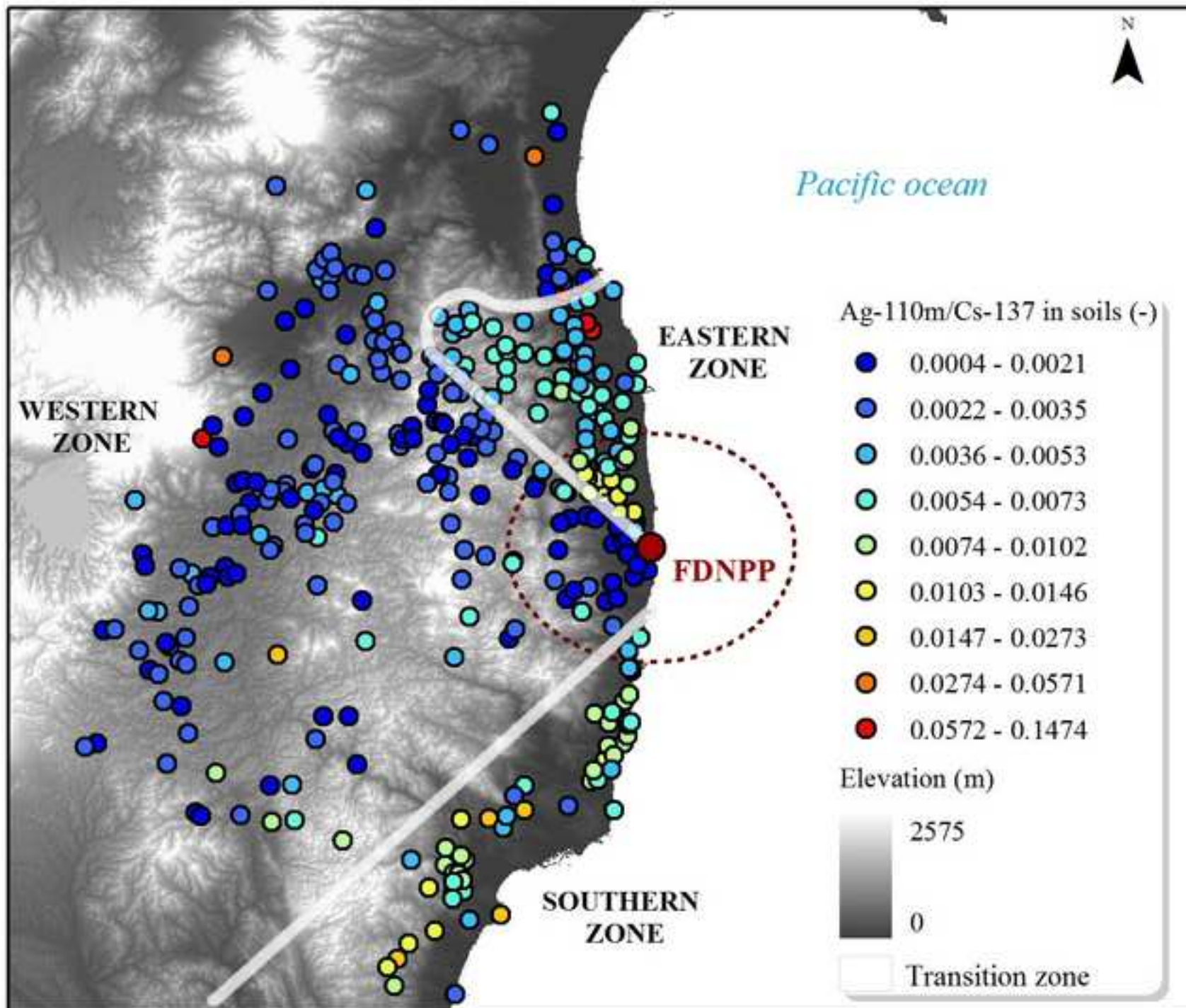


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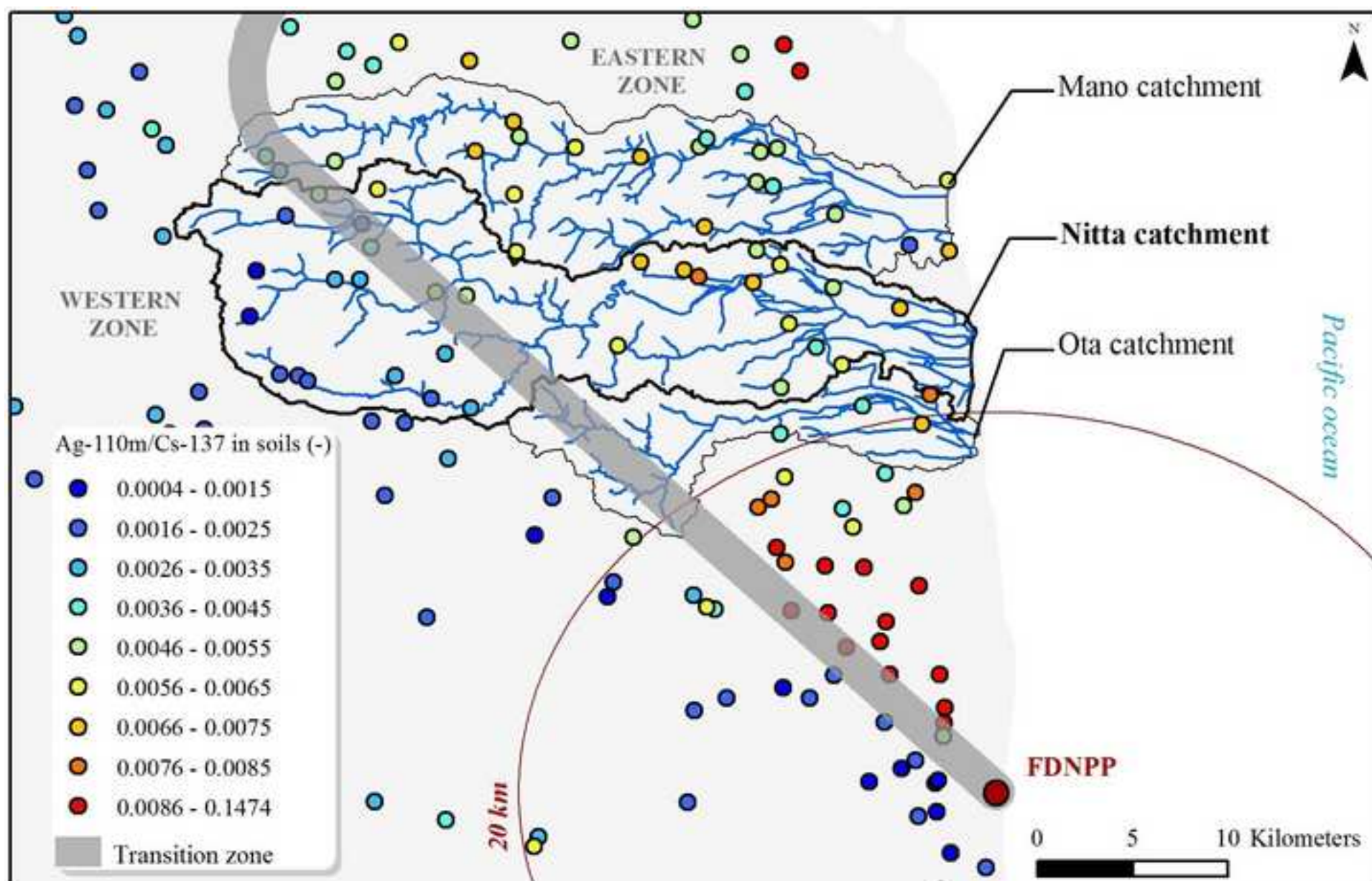


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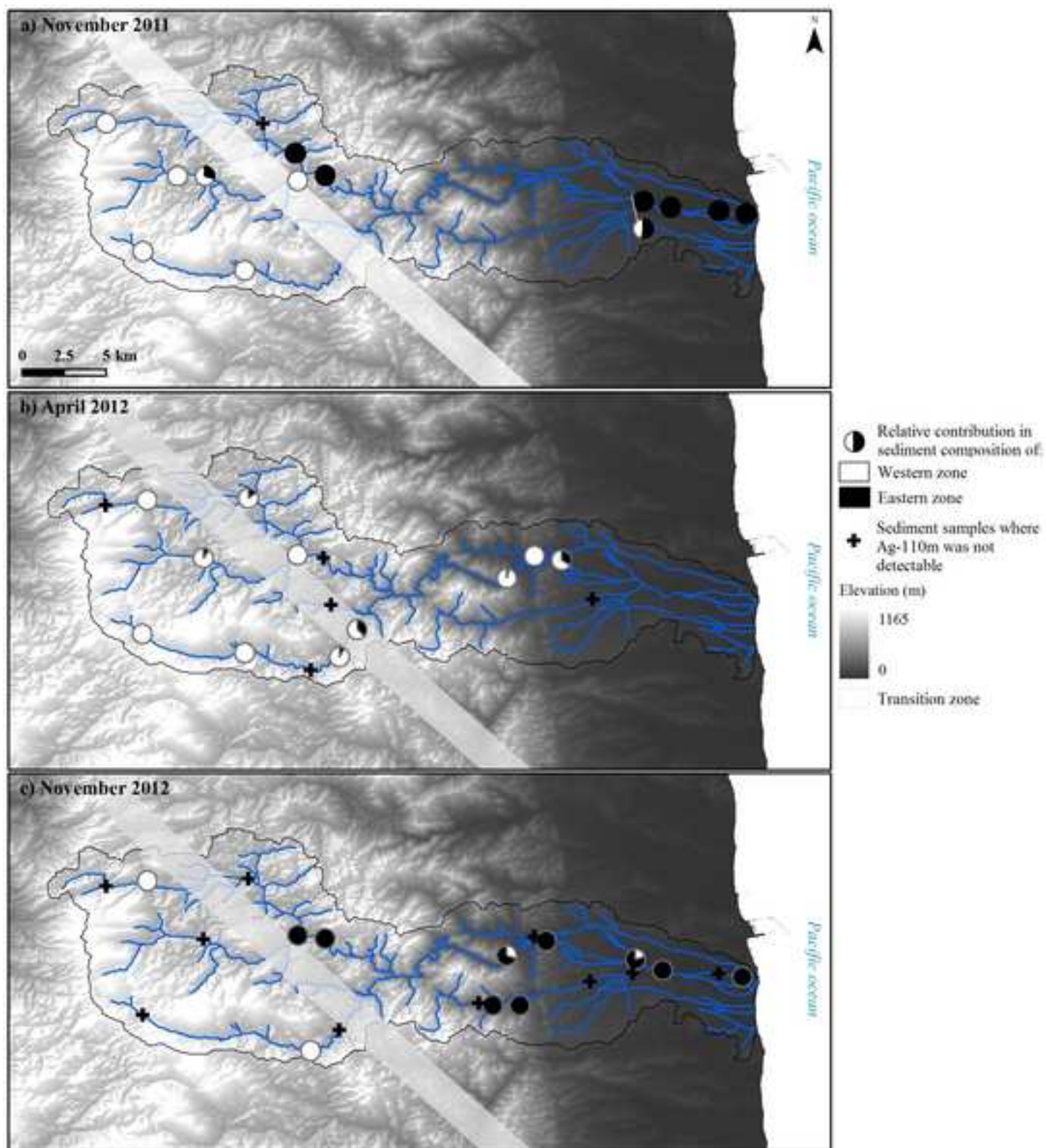


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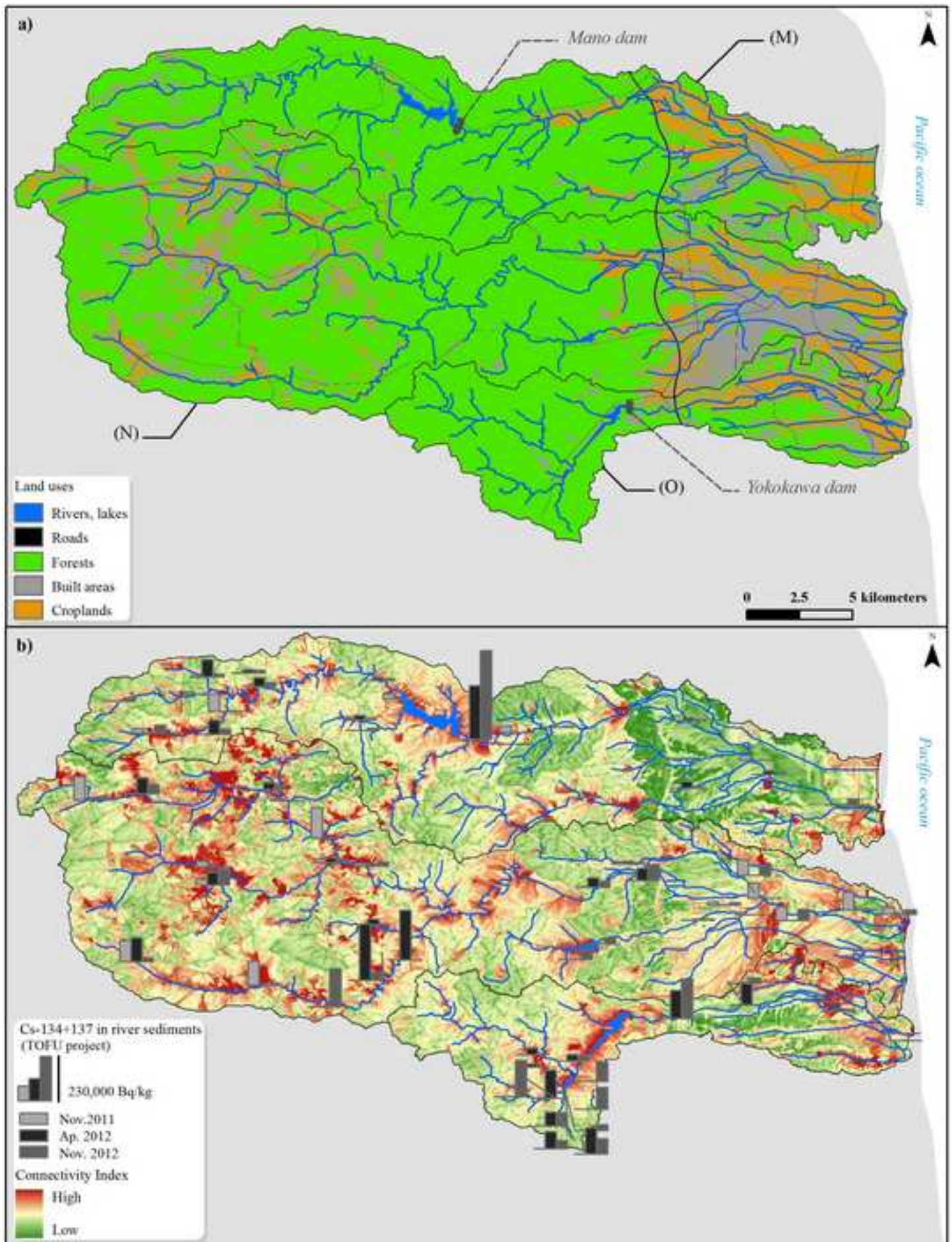


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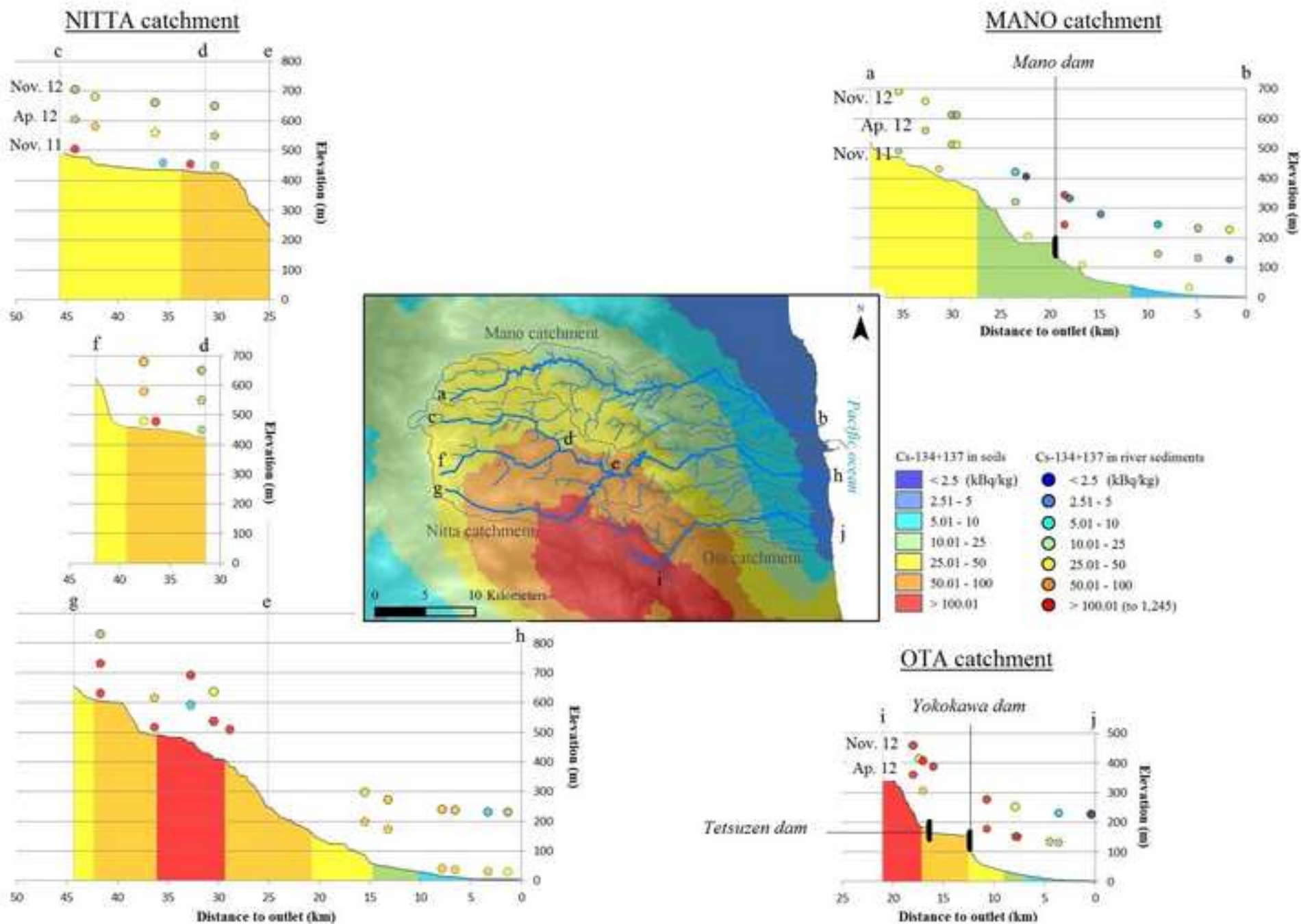


Figure 8

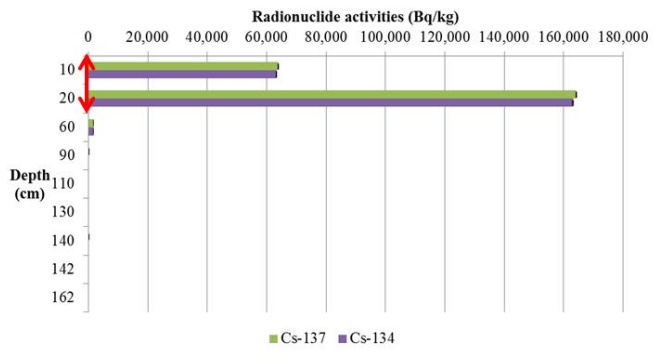
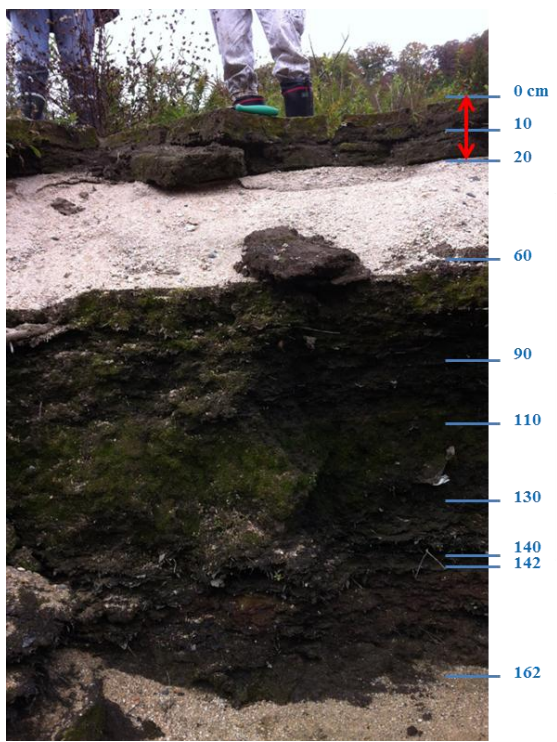


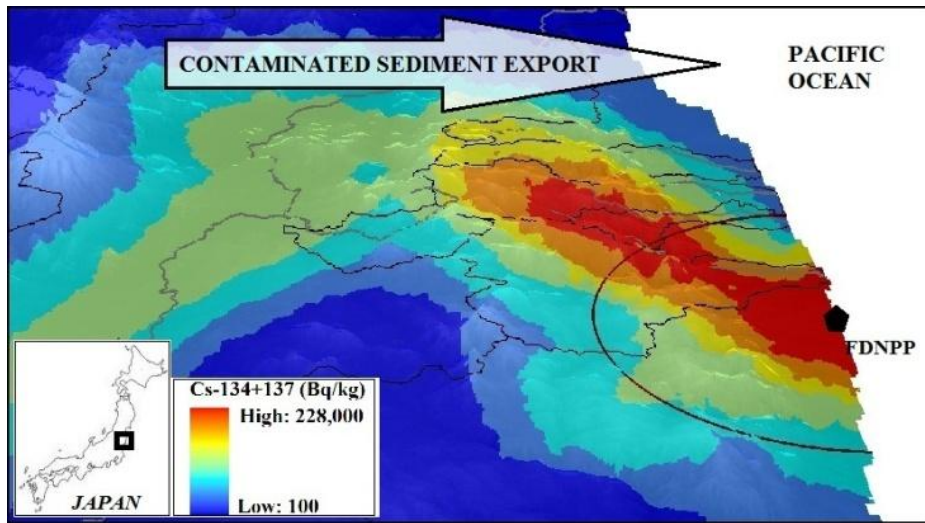
Table 1. Descriptive statistics of $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}:$ ^{137}Cs ratio values measured in bulk soil under the authority of MEXT across Fukushima Prefecture (data located in a transition zone of 2-km width where there was a short-scale variability in $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}:$ ^{137}Cs values between the ‘western’, the ‘eastern’ and the ‘southern’ zones were excluded).

Dataset	Western zone	Eastern zone	Southern zone
Count (-)	209	71	51
Minimum (-)	0.0004	0.0025	0.0024
Maximum (-)	0.1474	0.0969	0.0273
Mean (-)	0.0038	0.0090	0.0086
S.D. (-)	0.0112	0.0145	0.0044
Median (-)	0.0024	0.0058	0.0081

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}:$ ^{137}Cs ratio values measured in bulk soil under the authority of MEXT within the Nitta catchment (data located in the transition zone were excluded).

Dataset	Western zone (<i>Nitta catchment</i>)	Eastern zone (<i>Nitta catchment</i>)
Count (-)	12	14
Minimum (-)	0.0010	0.0041
Maximum (-)	0.0035	0.0082
Mean (-)	0.0023	0.0059
S.D. (-)	0.0008	0.0012
Median (-)	0.0024	0.0057

1 Graphical abstract



2

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