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3 **Vertical distributions of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in soils: a meta-analysis**

4

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24

25 **Abstract**

26 *Purpose.* The vertical distribution of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  – an artificial fallout radionuclide – is controlled  
27 by soil characteristics and processes that may differ among soil groups. The application of a  
28 single modelling approach to large number of soil profiles provides an original contribution to  
29 the literature and allows for comparison between these different soil groups.

30 *Materials and methods.* In order to quantify  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  migration in soils, we compiled and  
31 modelled depth-distributed data documented in the literature between 2000–2012. The  
32 resulting database comprised ninety-nine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  profiles sampled in fourteen soil groups of the  
33 World Reference Base (WRB) classification (FAO 1998) under different land uses or covers  
34 and collected at various geographical locations in the Northern hemisphere between 1992 and  
35 2007.

36 *Results and discussion.* The  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  profiles were classified in seven different categories  
37 according to the shape and location of radiocaesium peak. Depth of the latter ranged between  
38 0 and 12 cm (median of 2 cm) and maximal penetration of cesium reached from 12 to 60 cm.  
39 The  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  depth distributions in these soils were fitted using a diffusion-convection equation  
40 to allow comparison between different soil groups. Diffusion coefficients ranged from 0.02 to  
41  $4.44 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  in soils (median of  $0.64 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ); and convection velocities varied from 0 to  
42  $0.74 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$  (median of  $0.1 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$ ). The model underestimated  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations by a  
43 median value of 1.9% of the total inventory in soil samples collected below 13 cm depth.

44 *Conclusions.* Global  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  penetration velocities ranged from 0.05 to  $0.76 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$  (median of  
45  $0.28 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$ ) over a 25-year period. In future, the model could be improved to better simulate  
46 deep penetration of Cs. Our results showed that modelling  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  depth profile with a  
47 diffusion-convection equation allowed estimating the bioturbation and clay translocation  
48 velocity in a certain number of soil groups. This quantification is crucial as these processes  
49 partially control the development of soil surface characteristics and several soil services.

50

51 **Keywords** Bioturbation • Clay translocation • Diffusion-convection equation • Fallout  
52 radionuclides • Numerical modelling • Pedogenesis

53

## 54 **1 Introduction**

55 Caesium-137 is characterised by a strong affinity for fine soil particles and is therefore widely  
56 used to quantify soil erosion at the plot and hillslope scales (Ritchie and Ritchie 2007), but it  
57 is also employed to quantify the relative contribution of sources delivering sediment to rivers  
58 (Ben Slimane et al. 2013). However, its ability to trace vertical transfers of solid matter in  
59 soils was much less investigated. Despite the importance of these transfers in controlling the  
60 soil surface characteristics, the occurrence and the velocity at which those transfers operate  
61 are still poorly understood and quantified. To this end, measurement of tracers that are  
62 strongly bound to the solid phase and that were absent from the parent material before the  
63 start of pedogenesis along soil profiles could provide relevant information to improve our  
64 knowledge on those processes.

65 Although some limitations to this method exist (e.g. Parsons and Foster 2011), caesium-137  
66 fulfils both conditions. It was released into the atmosphere by the nuclear weapon tests or,  
67 more recently, by nuclear accidents like Chernobyl or Fukushima. Soils may therefore be  
68 considered as free of this isotope prior to the first nuclear weapon tests in 1953. During the  
69 nuclear weapon tests, from the 1950s to the 1970s,  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  was mixed in the stratosphere and its  
70 deposition pattern to the terrestrial surface, referred to as global fallout, reflects the  
71 atmospheric circulation and its latitude-dependence (UNSCEAR 1982). In contrast,  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
72 atmospheric deposits after nuclear accidents displayed locally heterogeneous spatial patterns,  
73 mostly depending on the weather conditions that prevailed shortly after the emissions  
74 (Chartin et al., 2013; Korsakissok et al. 2013). As a result of the combination of wet and dry  
75 fallout,  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  is delivered to the soil surface, and it may then migrate in depth at a rate  
76 depending on processes controlling this transfer and soil characteristics.

77 These characteristics control the fixation of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  on solid phases. Caesium-137 was shown to  
78 be fixed on soil constituents such as micaceous clay minerals (Tamura and Jacobs 1960;

79 Sawhney 1972; Konoplev et al. 1996; Bunzl et al. 1998), bearing Frayed Edge Sites (FES)  
80 which are specific sites for caesium sorption (Cremers et al. 1988). According to  
81 Vandebroek et al. (2012), surface layers of most soils found across the world were shown to  
82 have a high selectivity for caesium adsorption, with the exception of Oxisols, Podzols and  
83 Andosols that are depleted in micas. Regarding the other soil types, Gil-Garcia et al. (2009)  
84 found high solid/liquid distribution coefficients ( $K_d$ ) for caesium with mean  $K_d$  values of 530  
85 L kg<sup>-1</sup>, 5 500 L kg<sup>-1</sup> and 3 500 L kg<sup>-1</sup> for sandy, clayey and loamy soils respectively. Under  
86 these conditions, transport of caesium in dissolved form may be considered negligible after  
87 the initial fixation of this radionuclide onto mineral soil particles (Elshamy et al. 2007; Jarvis  
88 et al. 2010; Matisoff et al. 2011). Consequently, over the long-term, radionuclides are mainly  
89 transported along hillslopes with soil particles (Müller-Lemans and van Dorp, 1996; Turner et  
90 al. 2006). In this context, the presence of artificial fallout radionuclides in depth can be  
91 interpreted as resulting from a particle-borne transfer due to clay migration or to a physical  
92 mixing by turbation including bioturbation processes (Müller-Lemans and van Dorp 1996;  
93 VandenBygaart et al. 1998; Ireson and Butler 2009). Nevertheless organic soils containing  
94 more than 20 % of organic matter were shown to have a relatively lower  $K_d$  value (mean of  
95 270 L kg<sup>-1</sup>) (Gil-Garcia et al. 2009). In these soils, a significant contribution of solute transfer  
96 of <sup>137</sup>Cs that may be associated with DOC cannot be ruled out (AIEA 2010).

97 Finally, the relatively short half-life of <sup>137</sup>Cs ( $T_{1/2}=30$  yr) is particularly relevant for  
98 investigating processes occurring at decadal scales (Kaste et al. 2007). Although soil  
99 formation occurs over much longer periods, individual pedological processes may be  
100 characterised by temporal variations with a succession of active and inactive periods  
101 throughout the entire story of soil development. The use of <sup>137</sup>Cs as a tracer provides therefore  
102 a relevant tool to understand and quantify those variations during the last 50 years.

103 Most approaches that aimed to quantify the migration velocities of fallout radionuclides in

104 soils solved the diffusion-convection equation (e.g. Bossew and Kirchner 2004; Schuller et al.  
105 2004; Schimmack and Márquez 2006), using either analytical or numerical solutions (Smith  
106 and Elder 1999; Bunzl et al. 2000; Bossew and Kirchner 2004).

107 In this study, we aimed at quantifying the kinetics of vertical transfers of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in soils  
108 depending on their characteristics and the relative contribution of processes controlling this  
109 transfer in soils. To this end, we modelled the vertical distributions of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fallout along soil  
110 profiles documented in the literature.

111

## 112 **2 Materials and methods**

### 113 2.1 Database description

114 The database compiles 99 profiles with detailed evolution of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  activities with depth  
115 retrieved from 17 publications published before 2013 (Table 1, detailed information is  
116 provided in the Electronic Annex A). We restricted our work to the investigations mentioning  
117 the soil group of the studied profiles. This reduced considerably the amount of relevant  
118 studies among the hundreds of studies dedicated to  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in soils that have been continuously  
119 published since the mid-1990s (Ritchie and Ritchie 2007). Land use or cover, altitude, annual  
120 precipitation, sampling date and pedological data such as pH and organic matter content were  
121 compiled when available. The depth of maximum  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration and the maximum  
122 depth reached by  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  were also collected.

123 In these studies,  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  data were expressed in different units:  $\text{Bq kg}^{-1}$  (direct measurement of  
124  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  activity in gamma spectrometry - 85 % of observations),  $\text{Bq cm}^{-3}$  ( $^{137}\text{Cs}$  activity per  
125 volume of soil, which requires multiplying the values in  $\text{Bq kg}^{-1}$  by the bulk density – 2 % of  
126 observations),  $\text{Bq cm}^{-2}$  (inventory per layer, which requires multiplying the values in  $\text{Bq cm}^{-3}$   
127 by the sample thickness – 7 % of observations), or percentage of the total inventory %  $\text{Bq cm}^{-2}$   
128  $^2$  (inventory per layer divided by the total inventory - 6 % of observations). All  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  data

129 were therefore converted into  $\text{Bq cm}^{-3}$  to facilitate modelling. Several pedotransfer functions  
130 exist to estimate soil bulk density (De Vos et al. 2005). However, they are generally based on  
131 the measurements of organic matter content or particle-size distributions and these data were  
132 not available in most of the compiled studies. We therefore derived a relationship between  
133 this parameter and the soil depth from the values available for 13 soil profiles. ). However,  
134 We determined the duration between soil sampling and publication (mean of four years with a  
135 standard-deviation of 1 year). Therefore, when not available (6 profiles), the sampling date  
136 was estimated as the publication date minus 4 years.

137 Soil groups were given according to different classifications (WRB in 38 % of studies (FAO,  
138 1998); Soil Taxonomy in 36 % of studies (Soil Survey Staff 1999) and national classification  
139 systems in the remaining studies). To allow for comparison, all soil groups were reclassified  
140 according to the WRB system (FAO 1998). Among the 30 main soil groups of the WRB  
141 classification, only 14 soil groups were represented in the database (Table 1).

142 The studies were conducted in 12 countries from the Northern Hemisphere that were  
143 submitted to different levels of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  contamination due to the Chernobyl accident, which  
144 resulted in a large variability in  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventories (Table 1).

145 Soil profiles were collected under different land uses or covers, i.e. grassland (56 % of the  
146 cases), woodland (25 % of the cases), peatland (2% of the cases), cropland (4% of the cases),  
147 and land use or cover was not specified in 13 % of the cases. In the latter case, the sites were  
148 described as undisturbed and we hypothesised that they were under grassland.

149 Most studies restricted sampling to the uppermost 20-cm layer (87 %). However, in 79 % of  
150 the cases, the deepest sample had  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  non-null concentration. The inventories estimated by  
151 the authors were therefore probably underestimated.

152 In some studies, only three samples were analysed along the profile. The modelling approach  
153 was therefore not applicable to such a small number of samples and these soil profiles were

154 removed from further analysis (16 profiles). We did not model  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  distribution in the  
155 profiles located under cropland, as our model did not take tillage processes into account.

156

## 157 2.2 Modelling of radionuclide vertical distributions

158 The migration of fallout radionuclides in soils is often described using the diffusion-  
159 convection equation (e.g. He and Walling 1997; Schuller et al. 1997):

$$160 \quad \frac{\partial A}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left( D_s \frac{\partial A}{\partial z} - v_s A \right) - \lambda A \quad (1)$$

161 With  $A$ - the total  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  activity per volume of soil ( $\text{Bq m}^{-3}$ ; obtained by multiplying the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
162 activity in  $\text{Bq kg}^{-1}$  by the soil bulk density),  $z$ - the soil depth (m),  $t$ - the time (s),  $D_s$ - the  
163 diffusion coefficients ( $\text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$ ),  $v_s$ - the convection velocity ( $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ),  $\lambda$ - the radioactive decay  
164 constant ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ ). The diffusion coefficients  $D_s$  and the convection velocity  $v_s$  were considered as  
165 spatially and temporally constant in this study. This is an over-simplification, as we know that  
166 mixing processes and vertical transfers in soil may vary in both time and depth. However, we  
167 considered that intensity of these processes remained constant during the last decades.

168 In the model,  $^{137}\text{C}$  is given as a bulk concentration, hypothesising that  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  is evenly  
169 distributed within the soil mass of the considered layer. However, as  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  is mainly deposited  
170 as the result of wet fallout, its distribution is heterogeneous in soils and depends on soil  
171 structure, macropore distribution and preferential flow (Bundt et al. 2000). Furthermore, it  
172 evolves throughout time due to the occurrence of wetting/drying cycles and bioturbation, and  
173 it depends on the soil moisture content at the time of deposition. Therefore, we acknowledge  
174 that  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  distribution in soils may be more complex than modelled in our study.

175

### 176 2.2.1 Boundary conditions

177 At the soil surface, we applied a boundary condition with a pulse-like input of radionuclides.

178 This pulse-like input was obtained by multiplying the annual fallout deposition  $a_0(t')$  in Bq

179  $\text{m}^{-2}$  of the considered year  $t'$  by a Dirac delta function  $a(0, t') = a_0(t')\delta(t-t')$ :

$$180 \quad D_s \frac{\partial A(0, t')}{\partial z} = a_0(t')\delta(t-t') \quad (2)$$

181 Isotopes were delivered to the surface, at  $z=0$ , annually and input time-series were dealt as a  
182 time-dependent boundary condition, i.e.  $A(0, t') = A(0, t'-1) + a_0(t')\delta(t-t')$ .

183 The annual global fallout input  $a_{GF}(t')$  followed the distribution calculated by Cambray et al.  
184 (1989) for various locations across the Northern Hemisphere, with a total fallout  
185 accumulation of  $3018 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$  before the Chernobyl accident in 1986. The global fallout was  
186 latitude-dependent and it was reconstructed based on  $^{90}\text{Sr}$  fallout recorded by UNSCEAR  
187 (1982) in different latitudinal bands (Table 2). As the  $^{137}\text{Cs}/^{90}\text{Sr}$  ratio was constant over time  
188 (1.6 for global bomb fallout),  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fallout (Table 2) was deducted from  $^{90}\text{Sr}$  measurements.

189 With respect to the total fallout accumulation of Cambray et al. (1989), we defined a weighted  
190 factor maximum  $r_{th}$  as a function of the latitudinal position of the sampled site (Table 2).  
191 Therefore global fallout contribution was determined as the product of the weighted factor  $r$   
192 and the annual global fallout  $a_{GF}$  (3). In the model, the weighted factor  $r$  was allowed to vary  
193 between 0 and the maximal weighted factor  $r_{th}$  of the latitudinal band in which the sampling  
194 site was located (Table 2). The factor  $r$  was considered as an unknown variable and was  
195 estimated by the model for each profile. As  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  input due to the Chernobyl accident ( $a_{Ch}$ )  
196 strongly varied across space, it was also considered as an unknown variable and was  
197 estimated by the model. Hence, the temporal input variations were described as follows:

$$198 \quad \begin{aligned} a(0, t') &= r a_{GF}(t')\delta(t-t') & 1954 \leq t' < 1986 \\ a(0, t') &= a_{Ch}\delta(t-t') & t' = 1986 \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

199 We applied as lower boundary condition (at 200 cm) an advective transport free of diffusion  
200 in order to avoid spurious accumulation of radionuclides and not to influence the numerical  
201 solution within the first 100 cm.

202

### 203 2.2.2 Discretization and resolution of the equation

204 We solved the differential Eq. (1) using upwind finite differences approximation for spatial  
205 derivatives and semi-implicit Crank-Nicholson scheme as a time-solver. The obtained  
206 algebraic system of equations was solved by Gaussian elimination. All the simulations started  
207 in 1954 and finished on the sampling year. Time-step was equal to 0.01 year. The accuracy of  
208 the numerical solution was verified by comparison with the analytical solution (4) obtained  
209 with similar initial and boundary conditions:

$$210 \quad A(z, t) = a_0 \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi D_s t}} \exp\left(-\frac{(z - v_s t)^2}{4D_s t}\right) - \frac{v_s}{2D_s} \exp\left(\frac{v_s z}{D_s}\right) \operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{v}{2} \sqrt{\frac{t}{D}} + \frac{z}{2\sqrt{Dt}}\right) \right\} \exp^{-\lambda t} \quad (4)$$

211 with a simple pulse-like input ( $a_0(t)\delta(t)$ ) into a semi-infinite domain and a zero-concentration  
212 when  $z \rightarrow \infty$ .

213

### 214 2.2.3 Non-linear least square minimization procedure

215 The unknown parameters ( $D_s$ ,  $v_s$ ,  $r$ ,  $a_{Ch}$ ) and their standard deviations were determined with a  
216 non-linear least-square minimization procedure based on the Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm  
217 included in Python *lmfit* package. The minimized value for each measurement  $A_m$  (in Bq cm<sup>-3</sup>)  
218 was calculated in an integral form, which provided a way to take different sampling intervals  
219 into account (Bossew and Kirchner, 2004):

$$220 \quad \operatorname{argmin} = \left( A_m(z_2 - z_1) - \int_{z_1}^{z_2} A(z, t) dz \right)^2 \quad (5)$$

221 In order to estimate the performance of the fitting procedure, we calculated residual sum of  
222 squares (*RSS*) for  $N$  sampled layers and modelling efficiency (*EF*):

$$223 \quad RSS = \sum_{i=0}^N \left( A_m(i)(z_{i2} - z_{i1}) - \int_{z_{i1}}^{z_{i2}} A(z, t) dz \right)^2 \quad (6)$$

$$EF = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=0}^N \left( \int_{z_{i1}}^{z_{i2}} A(z,t) dz - A_m(i)(z_{i2} - z_{i1}) \right)^2}{\sum_{i=0}^N \left( A_m(i)(z_{i2} - z_{i1}) - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^N A_m(i) \right)^2} \quad (7)$$

224

225 The first simulation was run to fit all 4 parameters ( $D_s$ ,  $v_s$ ,  $r$ ,  $a_{Ch}$ ). If the resulting model  
 226 parameters remained in the range of possible values ( $0 < r \leq r_{th}$ ,  $0 \leq a_{Ch}$ ), the simulation was  
 227 retained as the best fit. Otherwise, we added the following assumptions:  $a_{Ch} = 0$  if the  
 228 sampling site was located in a region spared by Chernobyl deposits and  $ra_{GF} = 4\,527 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$   
 229 (the maximum global fallout input) if the model attributed larger global fallout input than  
 230 expected, which was often the case for the sites characterised by high levels of Chernobyl  
 231 contamination. All sites affected by soil erosion or soil accumulation were excluded from the  
 232 database for further analysis, and these processes were therefore not simulated by the model.

233

### 234 3 Results and discussion

235 3.1 Soil bulk density within the uppermost 20 centimetres of the soil: evolution and  
 236 estimation

237 Bulk densities reported in the literature for 13 soil profiles ranged from 0.6 to 1.41 g  
 238  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  at 5-cm-depth and from 0.9 to 1.47 g  $\text{cm}^{-3}$  at 20-cm-depth. The mean bulk density of  
 239 these 13 soil profiles evolved with depth following a logarithmic function (Fig. 1a; eq. 8):

$$240 \quad \rho(z) = C_1 \ln(z) + C_2 \quad (8)$$

241 with depth  $z$  expressed in cm. For the considered soil profiles,  $C_1$  was equal to 0.1636 and  $C_2$   
 242 to 0.7329 ( $R^2=0.94$ ).

243 We considered a comparable evolution of the bulk density in depth for the other profiles, with  
 244 the same  $C_1$  value, whereas  $C_2$  was estimated in order to fit the total  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory ( $I$ )  
 245 considering the depth evolution of the activities of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in  $\text{Bq kg}^{-1}$ , using the minimization  
 246 equation (9):

$$\text{argmin} = \left( \sum_{i=0}^N \left( (C_1 \ln \left( \frac{z_{i2} + z_{i1}}{2} \right) + C_2) A_s(i)(z_{i2} - z_{i1}) \right) - I \right)^2 \quad (9)$$

247  
 248 In order to check the accuracy of the obtained predictive model, bulk densities were estimated  
 249 for the soil profiles for which these data were available (Fig. 1b). We obtained a reasonable  
 250 estimation of the bulk density in samples close to the surface, but the density was  
 251 underestimated by the model below 10 cm depth. However, as only a small proportion of the  
 252  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  was located at this depth, the impact of bulk density underestimation on  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  vertical  
 253 distribution was considered to be negligible.

254 The model was applied to the 48 soil profiles for which bulk density data were not available  
 255 (Electronic Annex A).  $C_2$  varied between 0.37 and 2.53. Eighty percent of the mean bulk  
 256 density of the 0-20 cm layer - estimated by the predictive model - ranged from 0.94 to  
 257  $1.66 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ , with a median value of  $1.22 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ . The estimated soil bulk densities were  
 258 considered as irrelevant in 5 profiles compared to the values classically found in soils. In  
 259 addition, negative values were obtained in 4 profiles. They were therefore not considered in  
 260 further analysis.

261

### 262 3.2 Cs-137 distributions in soils

263 The recorded  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventories (decay-corrected for 2013) ranged from  $697 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$  to  $107\,200$   
 264  $\text{Bq m}^{-2}$ . The highest inventories were measured in soils collected in the areas severely  
 265 contaminated by Chernobyl fallout in central Europe and Sweden as documented in the atlas  
 266 of Chernobyl contamination (De Cort et al. 1998). The depth of the maximum concentration  
 267 ( $z_{maxC}$ ) ranged between 0 and 12 cm (with a median value of 2 cm) and the maximal  
 268 penetration depth (*i.e.* with a  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration higher than or equal to  $0.001 \text{ Bq cm}^{-3}$ )  
 269 ranged between 12 cm and 60 cm. Width of the peak (estimated as Half Width at Half  
 270 Maximum (*HWHM*)) ranged between 1.25 and 13.7 cm (median of 5 cm). We could not  
 271 identify any clear relationship between the soil groups and the depth of maximum

272 concentration, maximum depth or width of the peak.

273 Based on the depth of maximum  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration, the width of peak and the shape of  
274 radiocesium profile, we determined 7 classes of depth distribution profiles (Fig. 2):

275 1- Continuous decrease in the concentrations with depth ( $z_{\text{max}C} = 0$  cm and  $HWHM \leq 5$  cm -  
276 13 profiles);

277 2- Half bell-shaped curve with maximum concentration at the soil surface. The concentrations  
278 decrease with depth following a Gaussian-like shape ( $z_{\text{max}C} = 0$  cm and  $HWHM > 5$  cm - 10  
279 profiles);

280 3- Narrow hump-shaped curve at shallow depth with a maximum concentration comprised  
281 between 0 and 2 cm depth ( $0 < z_{\text{max}C} \leq 2$  cm and  $HWHM \leq 5$  cm - 25 profiles);

282 4- Wide hump-shaped curve shape at shallow depth with a maximum concentration within the  
283 0-2 cm depth interval ( $0 < z_{\text{max}C} \leq 2$  cm and  $HWHM > 5$  cm - 13 profiles);

284 5- Narrow hump-shaped curve with maximum concentration deeper than 2 cm ( $z_{\text{max}C} > 2$  cm  
285 and  $HWHM \leq 5$  cm - 12 profiles);

286 6- Wide hump-shaped curve with maximum concentration deeper than 2 cm ( $z_{\text{max}C} > 2$  cm and  
287  $HWHM > 5$  cm - 18 profiles);

288 7- Constant isotopic profile concentration over depth (4 profiles).

289

290 As  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fate in the soil depends on the soil characteristics and processes,  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  depth  
291 distribution should be a function of the soil groups. It was however not the case (Table 3).

292 Other factors may influence the distribution profile such as the duration since the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  input  
293 or the climate conditions.

294 VandenBygaert et al. (1998), Tyler et al. (2001), Bunzl (2002), Kaste et al. (2007), Elshamy  
295 et al. (2007), Ireson and Butler (2009), Jarvis et al. (2010) and Matisoff et al. (2011)  
296 demonstrated the impact of bioturbation on radionuclide redistribution in soil profiles. The

297 importance of bioturbation may be estimated from the width of the peak: highly active  
298 bioturbation leads to wider shaped curves. We would thus expect stronger bioturbation in the  
299 profile types 2, 4, 6 than in profile types 1, 3, 5. As bioturbation depends on the mean annual  
300 temperature, it should be more intense under warm climates than under cold or dry climates.  
301 Table 4 shows the climate distribution for the different profile types as it was determined  
302 from the location of the sampling site and the climate classification according to Kotték et al.  
303 (2006). However, depth distribution profiles 2, 4, 6 were not more frequent under warm  
304 temperate and humid climates (C classes of Köppen's climate classification, 32 profiles out of  
305 69), than under dry or cold climates (B and D classes of Köppen's climate classification; 8 out  
306 of 20). Land use or cover may also impact the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  distribution. Most of the type-1  
307 distribution profiles corresponding to Cambisols were collected under forests whereas  
308 peatlands corresponded to type 5 ( $n = 2$ ). All the cultivated plots were attributed to type 7  
309 ( $n = 4$ ).

310 The soil profiles were sampled between 1992 and 2007. The classification of different soils of  
311 a same soil group according to different depth-profile types may be explained by the temporal  
312 evolution of the initial profile. Indeed, after  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inputs, the peak progressively migrates in  
313 depth, and its distribution profile will widen with time depending on the turbation rate. This  
314 evolution will nevertheless depend on the time elapsed after the main  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  input that may  
315 either be due to the bomb tests or to the Chernobyl accident depending on the site. This  
316 probably explains why we could not find any relationship between  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  depth profiles and  
317 the sampling dates. In addition, for similar sampling dates, classification according to  
318 different profile shapes may originate from differences in values of diffusion coefficient ( $D_s$   
319 in  $\text{cm}^2 \text{yr}^{-1}$ ) and convection velocity ( $v_s$  in  $\text{cm yr}^{-1}$ ): profile type 1 being obtained for  $D_s > 0$   
320 and  $v_s \approx 0$ ; profile type 2 for  $D_s \gg 0$  and  $v_s \approx 0$ ; profile type 3 for  $D_s > 0$  and  $v_s > 0$ ; profile  
321 type 4 for  $D_s \gg 0$  and  $v_s > 0$ ; profile type 5 for  $D_s > 0$  and  $v_s \gg 0$ ; and profile type 6 for  $D_s$

322  $\gg 0$  and  $v_s \gg 0$ . The profiles belonging to class 7 result either from a disturbance or from a  
323 mixing of the entire profile that may have been achieved by agricultural practices such as  
324 tillage.

325 As a conclusion, the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  profile type is a complex result of the variations in soil processes  
326 affecting the diffusion and convection transport and resulting in contrasted temporal  
327 evolutions.

328

### 329 3.3 Diffusion and convection in soils

#### 330 3.3.1 Overall quality of the simulation results

331 We have simulated the evolution of 71 profiles out of the 99 profiles compiled in the database  
332 (detailed results are provided in the Electronic Annex A and B). We have excluded 4  
333 cultivated profiles, 4 profiles with thick organic horizons containing more than 30 % of the  
334 total  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory, 4 profiles with unrealistic bulk density values and 16 profiles with only  
335 3 measurements per profile, which was insufficient for optimizing the 4 required parameters.  
336 Overall, modelling efficiency ( $EF$ ) reached a mean of  $0.89 \pm 0.20$ , and a median of 0.96  
337 ( $\max(EF) = 1$ ), which is fairly good. The comparison between simulated and observed  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
338 concentrations in all profiles showed a reasonable agreement with some underestimation at  
339 low concentrations (Fig. 3). Scaled residuals as a function of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations were  
340 normally distributed. However, when considered as a function of depth (Fig. 4), residuals  
341 were normally distributed and centred at zero in the first 13 cm only. They shifted towards  
342 positive values below 13 cm and they were all positive below 30 cm. This demonstrates that  
343 the model underestimated  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations in most samples collected below 13 cm and  
344 that it underestimated all values below 30 cm.

345 Finally,  $v_s$  was null for 23 profiles. These profiles exhibited large standard deviation values  
346 for all parameters. The model could therefore not differentiate the inputs due to global fallout  
347 from those due to the Chernobyl accident, and the estimation of  $D_s$  coefficient satisfied a wide

348 range of values.

349

### 350 3.3.2 *Estimation of global fallout*

351 We have compared the global fallout  $ra_{GF}$  values optimized by our model to the range of  
352 fallout estimations provided by UNSCEAR (1982) for different latitudes (Table 2). In 59 % of  
353 the cases, the modelled global fallout values were equivalent to the values estimated by  
354 UNSCEAR (1982), but they were lower in the remaining 41% of the sites. However, the  
355 values estimated by UNSCEAR (1982) may have been affected by other local factors such as  
356 rainfall. As an example, Cambray et al. (1989) provided lower values of global fallout  
357 compared to UNSCEAR (1982) for regions located in the 40-50°N band. Furthermore,  
358 extremely low values of global fallout were obtained for the sites located in arid regions in  
359 Syria, reaching even zero at several places (4 sites). The lower fallout obtained in this region  
360 compared to those estimated by UNSCEAR (1982) probably reflects the absence of  
361 precipitations (Aoyama et al. 2006).

362 The occurrence of soil erosion between the end of 1960s and Chernobyl accident may also  
363 explain the lower values of global fallout obtained for several profiles. However, no data  
364 (such as the history of land use or cover of the corresponding sites) were available to verify  
365 this hypothesis. In addition, erosion was probably very limited at these sites, since they were  
366 generally covered by vegetation (forest, grassland) and were therefore considered as  
367 undisturbed.

368 For three Swedish sites located between 62 and 64°N, the use of the global fallout of the 50-  
369 60°N band with higher fallout rates improved the modelling efficiency compared to the one  
370 obtained when taking values of the 60-70° band. Similarly, Sigurgeirsson et al. (2005)  
371 reported that  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  deposition was underestimated for 60-70° N band by UNSCEAR (1982) in  
372 Icelandic soils. We observe the same phenomena for Chinese sites at 29°N, showing that the

373 latitude parallels defining the limit between two bands should be rather considered as buffer  
374 (transition?) zones.

375 Overall, differences between observed and simulated global fallout may be explained by: (i),  
376 a virtual absence of fallout because of the lack of precipitation in arid regions (as it was  
377 probably the case in Syria); (ii), the possible occurrence of soil erosion between the end of  
378 1960s and Chernobyl accident.

379

### 380 *3.3.3 Possible mechanisms behind $D$ and $v$*

381 Diffusion coefficient is widely used to estimate bioturbation in the literature (e.g. Elzein and  
382 Balesdent 1995; Schiffers et al. 2011). Bioturbation in soil is due to the activity of micro- and  
383 macro-organisms. Under temperate climates, it is mainly controlled by earthworm activity  
384 (Wilkinson et al. 2009). However, diffusion coefficient only represents a local mixing,  
385 whereas a non-negligible part of bioturbation may be due to non-local feeder earthworm  
386 species (Jarvis et al. 2010; Schiffers et al. 2011). As the diffusion coefficient is unable to  
387 simulate this non-local behaviour, alternative models were developed (Müller-Lemans and  
388 van Drop, 1996; Schiffers et al. 2011). A non-local mixing term was integrated into the  
389 general diffusion-convection equation (Jarvis et al. 2010), which improved the simulations of  
390 deep penetration of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ . The transfer function describing the behaviour of non-local feeders  
391 requires the implementation of other parameters (*i.e.* ingestion rate of non-local feeders, depth  
392 of ingestion), which were calibrated by Jarvis et al. (2010) for their field-site based on an  
393 ecological study of anecic and endogeic earthworm species (*i.e.*, classical non-local feeders in  
394 temperate soils). As such data were not available for the study sites, we could not model the  
395 behaviour of non-local feeders. However, Jarvis et al. (2010) showed that estimating  
396 bioturbation with a diffusion coefficient fits reasonably well with  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  profiles, although it  
397 underestimates concentrations at depth.

398 The simulated diffusion coefficients  $D_s$  ranged from 0.02 to 4.44 cm<sup>2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> (median of 0.64 cm<sup>2</sup>  
399 yr<sup>-1</sup>). Among the profiles compiled in our database, modelling had already been conducted on  
400 35 soils using different methods for solving the diffusion-convection equation (Szerbin et al.  
401 1999; Krstic et al. 2004; Schimmack and Márquez 2006; Zhang et al. 2008; Legarda et al.  
402 2011). These studies obtained a median  $D_s$  value of 0.53 cm<sup>2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, which is slightly different  
403 from our findings. However, this discrepancy may be explained by the inclusion of ca. 40  
404 additional profiles in our study, which may have enlarged the range of  $D_s$  values in soils.  
405 These  $D_s$  values were the highest for depth-distribution type 4 (mean of 1.4 cm<sup>2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>). Then,  
406 they were higher for depth distribution types 2, 3, and 6 (mean ranging from 0.8 to 1.3 cm<sup>2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>)  
407 than for depth distribution types 1 and 5 (mean of 0.5 cm<sup>2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>; ANOVA with a Fisher test  
408 at 5 % level of confidence).

409 We could not observe any significant difference in  $D_s$  values as a function of land use or  
410 cover, the time elapsed after the main <sup>137</sup>Cs input, soil group or the climate type.

411 One of the difficulties associated with our approach is that  $D_s$  may account for both a  
412 diffusion process and a dispersion of the convection velocities when the convection operates.  
413 Therefore, a correlation between both parameters may indicate that  $D_s$  is not exclusively  
414 linked to bioturbation but that it is also affected by convection processes. However, we did  
415 not observe any correlation between  $D_s$  and either the precipitation or  $v_s$  when considering the  
416 entire set of profiles. When the different soil groups were considered separately (Fig. 5),  $D_s$   
417 remained independent from  $v_s$  in Luvisols and Regosols, whereas in Yermosols, a positive  
418 linear relationship was observed between  $D_s$  and  $v_s$  ( $D_s = 4.13v_s + 0.08$ ,  $R^2 = 0.84$ ,  $n = 8$ ). This  
419 relationship suggested that an important dispersive effect exists in Yermosols with increasing  
420 convection velocity. The relatively high  $D_s$  values observed in this soil group under a dry  
421 climate are therefore likely due to the convection process occurring in these soils and not to  
422 bioturbation, which is probably low under dry climate conditions. In Cambisols, i.e. the most

423 documented soil group (n = 19), three trends between  $D_s$  and  $v_s$  were observed: a variable  
424 diffusion at zero-velocity, a slight dispersion with increasing  $v_s$  and a high dispersion.  
425 Although they were not significantly different,  $D_s$  values lower than  $0.2 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  were  
426 generally found either in the soils experiencing podzolization or gleization (Spodic Dystric  
427 Cambisols, Hypogleyic Cambisols, Podzols, Gleyic Phaeozems) or in soils collected in  
428 Northern regions (latitude  $> 60^\circ\text{N}$  with the exception of a Histosol profile sampled in Hille,  
429 Sweden). Soils of the first group were acidic and thus unfavourable to bioturbating organisms,  
430 whereas in the second group bioturbation was limited because of the cold climate conditions.  
431 In Cambisols and Regosols,  $D_s$  increased with soil pH ( $R$  of 0.50 for  $n = 13$  in Cambisol). For  
432 the other soil groups, the soil pH data were too scarce to draw any conclusion. Finally, the  
433 high  $D_s$  values obtained for Chernozems and Vertisols may be due to the occurrence of  
434 specific pedological processes in these soils (organic matter diffusion and turbation via  
435 shrinking and swelling, respectively), rather than to bioturbation (Table 5).

436 The  $v_s$  coefficient can be considered as representative of the transfer of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  that was either  
437 adsorbed on the clay surface - and that may therefore reflect clay translocation-, or that was  
438 dissolved in organic rich soils. In this study,  $v_s$  ranged from 0 to  $0.74 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$  (median of  $0.1$   
439  $\text{cm yr}^{-1}$ ). These values were of the same order of magnitude as those obtained for the 35  
440 profiles that were previously modelled in the literature (Szerbin et al. 1999; Krstic et al. 2004;  
441 Schimmack and Márquez 2006; Zhang et al. 2008; Legarda et al. 2011). The  $v_s$  values ranked  
442 as follows from the highest to the lowest: types 5 and 6 (mean ranging from 0.27 to  $0.35 \text{ cm}$   
443  $\text{yr}^{-1}$ )  $>$  type 3 and 4 (mean ranging from 0.13 to  $0.15 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$ )  $>$  type 1 and 2 (mean ranging  
444 from 0 to  $0.01 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$ ) (ANOVA with a Fisher test at 5 % level of confidence). Zero-velocity  
445 occurred in 23 profiles corresponding to different soil groups: Acrisols (n=1), Cambisols  
446 (n=7), Fluvisols (n=2), Histosols (n=3), Leptosols (n=1), Regosols (n=2), Solonetz (n=2),  
447 Vertisols (n=2) and Yermosols (n=3). We could not identify the key parameter responsible for

448 these zero-velocities. Significant differences in  $v_s$  were observed under various land uses and  
449 covers, with the highest  $v_s$  values found under peatland ( $0.38 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$ ,  $n=2$ ) and the lowest  
450 under forests ( $0.07 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$ ,  $n=6$ ), soils located under grassland being associated with  
451 intermediary  $v_s$  values ( $0.14 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$ ,  $n=63$ ).

452 Several authors found that migration velocity of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  decreased with time after the  
453 radionuclide input (Alexakhin and Krouglov, 2001). To test the impact of this parameter, we  
454 calculated the time elapsed since the main  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  input considering the simulated respective  
455 contributions of global fallout and Chernobyl accident (all values were decay-corrected to the  
456 sampling date). The simulated  $v_s$  values for the entire set of profiles decreased with time ( $T$ )  
457 after the main  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  input ( $R=-0.32$ ,  $n=71$ ; Fig. 6).

458 When considering the different soil groups, velocities were independent of the time after the  
459 main input in Vertisols, Solonetz, Luvisols, Fluvisols and Cambisol. For the two first soil  
460 groups,  $v_s$  were systematically lower than  $0.11 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$ , whereas in Luvisols, velocities were  
461 relatively high ( $0.22 \pm 0.06 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$ ). They ranged from 0 to  $0.43 \text{ yr cm}^{-1}$  in Fluvisols and  
462 Cambisols. In Leptosols, Podzols, Regosols and Yermosols, the velocities decreased with  
463 time, whereas they increased in Histosols.

464 In addition, Histosols showed two populations of profiles: profiles with a high  $D_s$  value  
465 ( $> 1.5 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ) and a  $v_s$  close to  $0 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$  or profiles with the highest  $v_s$  values ( $v_s > 0.2 \text{ cm yr}^{-1}$   
466  $^1$  with  $D_s < 0.2 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ). The highest  $v_s$  values were simulated in peatland profiles, whereas  
467 the lowest velocities were obtained for Histosols under forest or grassland. In addition  $v_s$   
468 values increased with time. As discussed in the introduction, transport of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in dissolved  
469 form can partially explain the simulated  $v_s$  values in Histosols that contain more than 20% of  
470 organic matter. Their relatively lower value when Histosol were collected under grassland or  
471 forest is probably due to a partial absorption of the soluble fraction of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  by the vegetation.

472 In the case of Luvisols, Acrisols, Solonetz and Cambisols, the obtained  $v_s$  values may reflect

473 the occurrence of clay translocation, as clay translocation is a major pedogenic process in  
474 Luvisols, Acrisols and Solonetz, and secondary pedogenic process in Cambisols (FAO 1998;  
475 Bockheim and Gennadiyev 2000). The significantly higher  $v_s$  values obtained for Luvisols  
476 (ANOVA with a Fisher test at 5 % level of confidence, Table 5) are consistent with the  
477 occurrence of clay translocation in this soil group. Clay translocation may also explain some  
478 of the few high  $v_s$  values found in Cambisols. However, some profiles corresponding to these  
479 soil groups have a  $v_s$  value equal to 0 cm yr<sup>-1</sup> (Acrisols for example) or positive but extremely  
480 low values (Solonetz with a mean  $v_s$  of 0.03 cm yr<sup>-1</sup>). In these soils, clay translocation might  
481 not have been active since the beginning of the <sup>137</sup>Cs release into the atmosphere. This finding  
482 is consistent with the fact that this process is only active in soils where pH ranges from 5 to  
483 6.5 (Quénard et al. 2011), except in sodic soils (Solonetz for example).

484

#### 485 *3.3.4 Global penetration velocity of caesium-137*

486 Soils compiled in the database were submitted to different inputs of <sup>137</sup>Cs and were sampled  
487 at various dates. As mentioned above, these parameters control the actual depth of  
488 penetration. We modelled  $D_s$  and  $v_s$  that are responsible for the penetration of caesium in the  
489 soils, but these parameters did not provide a direct picture of the penetration velocity of  
490 caesium in the soil. To obtain it, we calculated the mean depth reached by <sup>137</sup>Cs after 25 years  
491 of migration, considering that <sup>137</sup>Cs was instantaneously injected into the soil as a Dirac  
492 distribution representing a 'spike' of concentrated <sup>137</sup>Cs (Table 5). Mean penetration velocity  
493 of <sup>137</sup>Cs over 25 years varied between 0.05 and 0.76 cm yr<sup>-1</sup> (median of 0.28 cm yr<sup>-1</sup>). When  
494 calculated over 50 years, these values decreased by about 20 % in average because of  
495 diffusive processes and ranged from 0.04 to 0.71 cm yr<sup>-1</sup> (median of 0.21 cm yr<sup>-1</sup>).

496

#### 497 *3.3.5 Caesium-137 content at depth below 13 cm*

498 As mentioned before, the distribution of scaled residuals suggested that the model  
499 underestimated the deep penetration of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  below 13 cm. We therefore estimated the  
500 unmodelled Cs inventory and quantified its migration rate. The proportion of the inventory  
501 underestimated by the model below 13 cm ranged between -3.8 and 37.2 %, with a median  
502 value of 1.9 %. The mean transfer rate below 13 cm was then calculated by dividing the  
503 underestimated fraction by the time after the main  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  input. It ranged from 7.5 to 44.1  
504 years (median of 20.1 years) and the obtained rate of transfer below 13 cm varied from 0 to  
505  $0.02 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (median of  $0.001 \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ). As discussed above, this transfer in depth could be due to the  
506 behaviour of non-local feeders. Matisoff et al. (2011) estimated that the feeding rate of non-  
507 local feeders ranged from  $0.002$  to  $0.02 \text{ yr}^{-1}$  depending on the soil group. As our results are of  
508 the same order of magnitude, this suggests that non-local feeders could be responsible for  
509 these deep transfers.

510

### 511 *3.3.6 Approximations in the model: implications for estimating solid matter transfers*

512 Initial distribution of radionuclides was modelled as an injection at the surface ( $z=0$ ), which is  
513 an over-simplification as  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  wet deposits are inherently heterogeneous. Cs-137 is most  
514 likely sorbed in soil macropores, and sorbing zones are affected by preferential flow (Bundt et  
515 al. 2000), which depends itself on soil structure and moisture. Prediction of initial  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
516 distribution is therefore case-dependent and as such, it is difficult to reproduce in a general  
517 modelling approach.

518 Furthermore, in our modelling approach, we considered that the diffusion and convection  
519 velocity coefficients were constant in time and depth. However, some authors predicted a  
520 decrease in migration velocities with time (Alexakhin and Krouglov 2001). Nevertheless, as  
521 outlined by Kirchner (1998), this apparent decrease simulated by compartment models may  
522 be explained by the occurrence of the diffusive process itself. The heterogeneous distribution

523 of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  can also be a cause of this decrease:  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  was likely initially located on the surface  
524 of macropores and aggregates and it was then progressively incorporated within the soil  
525 matrix and become therefore less mobile. Nevertheless, it has been shown that preferential  
526 flow paths (and thus the soil structure) may remain stable for more than 40 years in soils  
527 (Bundt et al. 2000). Moreover, pedogenic processes affecting the vertical solid matter  
528 transfers such as bioturbation were recognized to be depth-depend (Müller-Lemans and Van  
529 Dorp 1996). Similarly, integrating non-local feeders modelling as in Jarvis et al. (2010) has a  
530 direct influence on the soil displacement rate (corresponding to  $v_s$  in our study), which  
531 decreased linearly with depth in the feeding zone. Therefore, we expect that the inclusion of  
532 depth-variable coefficients in the model may improve simulations of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  distributions at  
533 depths < 13 cm. However, including spatially variable coefficients in the model would require  
534 the inclusion of new parameters (at least 2 additional factors to account for exponentially  
535 decreasing  $D_s$  and  $v_s$ ), the improvement of the database or the collection of additional samples  
536 and measurements in the field.

537

#### 538 **4 Conclusions**

539 The modelling approach proposed in this study provides an original basis for comparing  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
540 depth migration in different soil groups. However, no difference of global  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  penetration  
541 velocities was observed among soil groups. It ranged from 0.05 to 0.76  $\text{cm yr}^{-1}$  (median of  
542 0.28  $\text{cm yr}^{-1}$ ), with a significantly lower velocity for soil groups poorly evolved (Regosol),  
543 and a significantly higher for soils rich in organic matter (Histosols). The model  
544 underestimated this velocity under a 13-cm depth. In the future, the model could be improved  
545 by introducing a non-local feeder term or by allowing  $D_s$  and  $v_s$  values to vary with soil depth  
546 in the diffusion-convection equation.

547  $D_s$  and  $v_s$  values explained the depth profile of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in soils and were shown to partly reflect

548 the occurrence ofurbation including bioturbation for  $D_s$  and clay translocation for  $v_s$ , except  
549 in Histosols where the transfer of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in dissolved form was very likely.  $D_s$  values ranged  
550 from 0.02 to 4.44  $\text{cm}^2 \text{yr}^{-1}$  (median of 0.64  $\text{cm}^2 \text{yr}^{-1}$ ) and  $v_s$  varied from 0 to 0.74  $\text{cm yr}^{-1}$   
551 (median of 0.1  $\text{cm yr}^{-1}$ ).

552 Due to the limited number of documented profiles per soil group and other potential sources  
553 of variability that could not be documented (climate, land use or cover, pH), it was not  
554 possible to attribute precisely  $D_s$  and  $v_s$  variations to the occurrence of different soil processes.  
555 However, clear trends were observed for certain soil groups. Lower  $D_s$  values were simulated  
556 in acidic soils or under cold climate conditions, and they likely reflected the lower-intensity  
557 bioturbation prevailing under those pedoclimatic conditions. In addition, high  $v_s$  values were  
558 simulated in soils submitted to clay translocation (notably Luvisols). A relationship was also  
559 derived between  $v_s$  and certain land uses or covers. In this context, our results showed that  
560 modelling  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  depth-profile with a diffusion-convection equation allowed estimating the  
561 bioturbation and clay translocation velocity in a certain number of soil groups. Although the  
562 occurrence of these soil processes is well known in most soils, they have been rarely  
563 quantified. Still, this quantification is crucial as these processes partially control the  
564 development of soil surface characteristics and several soil services such as plant nutrition,  
565 organic carbon storage or pollutant fixation. In the future, to overcome the limitations  
566 associated with the modelling of diffusion-convection parameters based on  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
567 measurements, we suggest to conduct a multi-isotopic characterisation of different types of  
568 soil profiles in order to quantify the relative contribution of the different processes responsible  
569 for vertical solid matter transfer.

570

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578

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**Table 1** Studies and soil profiles contained in the database and their main characteristics

WRB soil groups	Landuse or cover	Country	Sampling year	Nb of profiles	Inventory range Bq m <sup>-2</sup>	Profil-class	Climate Köppen-Geiger classification	OM <sup>a</sup> range %	pH range	Paper
Acrisol	Grassland	China	2004	1	1300	2	Cwa	NA	NA	Zhang et al. (2008)
Arenosol	Forest	Germany	1999	1	36123	4	Cfb	6.3	7.7	Kruse-Irmer and Giani (2003)
	Grassland	Serbia	2001	1	11523	5	Cfb	3.3	5.2	Krstic et al. (2004)
Cambisol	Forest	Germany	1998-99	3	1465-28452	1	Cfb	6.2-19.6	4.1-4.4	Kruse-Irmer and Giani (2003)
	Grassland	Syria	2000	2	2814-6420	1; 5	Csa	NA	NA	Al-Masri (2006)
		Sweden	1998	1	1927	3	Cfb	NA	NA	Isaksson et al. (2001)
		Sweden	2007	1	55950	6	Dfb	22.0	5.2	Jarvis et al. (2010)
		Serbia	2001	4	9947-17842	3; 4; 6	Cfb	5.8-8.8	5.2-5.9	Krstic et al. (2004)
		Germany	1999	1	26302	4	Cfb	9.1	6.3	Kruse-Irmer and Giani (2003)
		Spain	2006	1	2771	6	Csb	NA	NA	Legarda et al. (2011)
		Sweden	1994	1	75147	3	Dfb	22.0	5.2	Rosen et al. (1999)
		Hungary	1995-97	7	2200-13500	1; 3; 4	Cfb	1.1-8.2	5.6-7.5	Szerbin et al. (1999)
Chernozem	Grassland	Hungary	1995	2	4200-6100	3; 6	Cfb	3.4-4.4	7.2-8.1	Szerbin et al. (1999)
Fluvisol	Grassland	Serbia	2001	2	4595-20632	3; 5	Cfb	1.0-7.3	4.8-7.0	Krstic et al. (2004)
		Hungary	1995	5	1300-7800	3; 4	Cfb	0.9-5.0	6.2-7.9	Szerbin et al. (1999)
Histosol	Forest	Germany	1998	1	5040	3	Cfb	93.0	4.0	Kruse-Irmer and Giani (2003)
	Grassland	Germany	1999	1	53712	1	Cfb	78.9	4.4	Kruse-Irmer and Giani (2003)
		Sweden	2007	1	111400	6	Dfb	46.3	5.9	Matisoff et al. (2011) <sup>b</sup>
		Sweden	1994	2	53463-165913	3	Dfb	64.6	5.5	Rosen et al. (1999)
	Peat	Ireland	NA <sup>a</sup>	2	3900-4800	5	Cfb	NA	NA	Gallagher et al. (2001)
Leptosol	Grassland	Hungary	1995-97	2	6000-21500	1; 4	Cfb	2.0-4.6	7.7-7.8	Szerbin et al. (1999)

Luvisol	Forest	Canada	NA	1	1610	6	Dfb	NA	7.7	Milton et al. (2001)
	Grassland	Syria	2000	2	2218-9647	1; 3	Csa	NA	NA	Al-Masri (2006)
		Germany	2001	5	18161-23640	3; 5	Cfb	12.4	NA	Schimmack and Schultz (2006)
Phaeozem	Grassland	Sweden	1992	1	159923	3	Dfb	1.1	6.2	Rosen et al. (1999)
Podzol	Forest	Canada	NA	1	3030	3	Dfb	NA	4.9	Milton et al. (2001)
	Grassland	Sweden	1994	1	2921	6	Dfc	3.0	4.9	Rosen et al. (1999)
Regosol	Cultivated	China	2002	3	898-1840	7	Cwa	NA	NA	Zhang et al. (2006)
	Forest	Turkey	2002	16	2974-21201	1; 2; 5; 6	Csa	3.8-11.0	5.1-7.5	Karadeniz and Yaprak (2008)
		Germany	1999	1	23486	2	Cfb	3.8	7.7	Kruse-Irmer and Giani (2003)
	Grassland	Germany	1999	1	50642	2	Cfb	8.4	7.4	Kruse-Irmer and Giani (2003)
		Sweden	1994-95	3	11214-47230	1; 3; 5	Dfc	7.2-7.5	5.4-6.3	Rosen et al. (1999)
			China	2002	1	1984	2	Cwa	NA	NA
		China	2004	1	2244	6	Cwa	NA	NA	Zheng et al. (2007)
Solonetz	Grassland	Hungary	1995-97	3	1300-4400	1; 4	Cfb	2.1-4.6	6.3-7.4	Szerbin et al. (1999)
Vertisol	Cultivated	Morocco	NA	1	952	7	Csa	NA	NA	Mabit et al. (2008)
		Grassland	Syria	2000	1	5646	4	Csa	NA	NA
		Serbia	2001	3	12104-19975	2; 4	Cfb	3.9-6.0	5.7-7.5	Krstic et al. (2004)
		Morocco	NA	1	1445	3	Csa	NA	NA	Mabit et al. (2008)
Yermosol	Grassland	Syria	2000	7	2000-6477	1; 3; 4; 6	BSh; BSk; BWk	NA	NA	Al-Masri (2006)

<sup>a</sup> OM stands for organic matter and NA for not analysed (or probived)

<sup>b</sup> Four other profiles from this study were excluded as we were not able to determine the soil bulk density with the soil bulk density model and the inventories reported in the paper (negative values)

**Table 2** Values of global  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fallout estimated by UNSCEAR (1982) for different ranges of latitude and simulated in this study for the different modelled sites (grouped according to their latitude)

Latitude band (degrees)	Estimation UNSCEAR <sup>a</sup> Bq m <sup>-2</sup>	<i>r<sub>th</sub></i>	Global fallout values simulated: mean [range] Bq m <sup>-2</sup>
60-70	2425	0.80	3999 [3954 - 4044] (n=2)
50-60	4028	1.34	3205 [815 - 4044] (n=9)
40-50	4502	1.50	3561 [0 - 4527] (n=44)
30-40	3261	1.09	1358 [0 - 3289] (n=13)
20-30	2467	0.82	2806 [1931 - 3531] <sup>b</sup> (n=3)

<sup>a</sup>: calculated as  $^{90}\text{Sr}$  deposition published in (UNSCEAR, 1982) times 1.6 (ratio  $^{137}\text{Cs}/^{90}\text{Sr}$  in global fallout) and decay-corrected for 1986

<sup>b</sup>: sites located in China (~29°N) hypothesized to be free of Chernobyl contamination

**Table 3** Types of profile depth distributions attributed to the different soil groups

Profile depth distribution	Type 1	Type 2	Type 3	Type 4	Type 5	Type 6	Type 7
Acrisols	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Arenosols	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
Cambisols	5	0	7	5	1	3	0
Chernozems	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Fluvisols	0	0	4	2	1	0	0
Histosols	1	0	3	0	2	1	0
Leptosols	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
Luvisols	0	0	4	0	2	1	0
Phaeozems	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
Podzols	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
Regosols	2	6	1	0	5	9	3
Solonetz	2	0	0	1	0	0	0
Vertisols	0	2	1	2	0	0	1
Yermosols	3	0	1	1	0	3	0

**Table 4** Types of profile depth distributions collected under different climates

Climate type	Class <sup>a</sup>	Type 1	Type 2	Type 3	Type 4	Type 5	Type 6	Type 7
Cold desert climate	BWk	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Warm steppe climate	BSh	1	0	0	1	0	2	0
Cold steppe climate	BSk	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
Temperate climate	Cfb	8	4	15	11	6	2	0
	Csa	2	3	2	1	5	8	1
	Csb	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
	Cwa	0	2	0	0	0	1	3
Continental climate	Dfb	0	0	5	0	0	3	0
	Dfc	1	0	1	0	1	1	0

<sup>a</sup> Köppen-Geiger climate classes determined according to Kottek et al. (2006).

Main climate: B- Arid, C- Warm Temperate, D- Snow

Precipitation: W- desert, S- steppe, f- fully humid, s-summer dry, w- winter dry

Temperature: h- hot arid, k-cold arid, a- hot summer, b- warm summer, c- cool summer

**Table 5** Average and associated standard deviation of the diffusion coefficient ( $D_s$ ), the convection velocity ( $v_s$ ) and the mean migration depth of a Dirac distribution after 25 years for the different soil groups compiled in the database

Soil type	n	$D_s$ cm <sup>2</sup> yr <sup>-1</sup>	$v_s$ cm yr <sup>-1</sup>	Migration depth cm
Acrisols	1	1.52	0.00	6.96
Arenosols	2	1.98±0.67	0.13±0.12	7.33±0.02
Cambisols	19	0.96±0.85	0.11±0.13 <sup>ab</sup>	6.81±3.06
Chernozems	2	1.06±0.95	0.46±0.29	13.42±8.05
Fluvisols	7	1.16±1.50	0.18±0.14 <sup>ab</sup>	8.34±2.73
Histosols	7	1.33±1.51	0.22±0.26 <sup>ab</sup>	9.86±4.16
Leptosols	2	1.37±1.61	0.22±0.30	9.18±9.16
Luvisols	7	0.41±0.18	0.22±0.06 <sup>a</sup>	7.31±0.88
Phaeozems	1	0.08	0.16	4.53
Podzols	1	0.09	0.06	2.60
Regosols	6	0.60±0.40	0.10±0.12 <sup>ab</sup>	5.76±1.73
Solonetz	3	0.89±0.69	0.03±0.05	5.36±2.69
Vertisols	5	1.18±0.67	0.05±0.04 <sup>b</sup>	6.56±1.59
Yermosols	8	0.84±0.86	0.19±0.19 <sup>ab</sup>	7.43±5.67

a, ab, b: ANOVA analysis performed for soil groups with more than 3 individuals with a Fisher test at 5 % of

confidence level. The ANOVA could not discriminate groups with the Fisher test for  $D_s$  and *migration depth*.

## Figure captions

**Fig. 1:** Modelling of soil bulk densities: (a) Linear regression of mean bulk densities (open circles) and bulk density profiles (lines) documented in the database (n=13); error bars represent standard deviation in the data, (b) Comparison of simulated bulk densities with the bulk densities documented in the database

**Fig. 2:** The different depth-distribution profile types for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  compiled in the database. Typical examples are provided. The distributions were normalized by their maximum concentrations. Type 1: example of profile CMg of Kruse-Irmer and Giani (2003); type 2: example of the reference profile of Zhang et al. (2008); type 3: example of Möjsjövik from Rosen et al. (1999); type 4: example of Somogy from Szerbin et al. (1999); type 5: example of profile E from Schimmack and Schultz (2006)); type 6: example of Veszprém from Szerbin et al. (1999).

**Fig. 3:** Simulated versus observed  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  values in the entire set of modeled profiles

**Fig. 4:** Scaled residuals (n=809) of all simulations and its moving average as a function of soil depth. Note that the moving average of the scaled residuals shifted towards positive values below 13 cm and that the scaled residuals remained systematically positive below 30 cm

**Fig. 5:** Relationship between fitted diffusion and convection velocity coefficients for selected soils groups: a, Yermosols; b, Cambisols; c, Luvisols; d, Regosols

**Fig. 6:** Relationship between fitted convection velocity and time after the main  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  input (i.e., global fallout and Chernobyl accident)

Figure 1

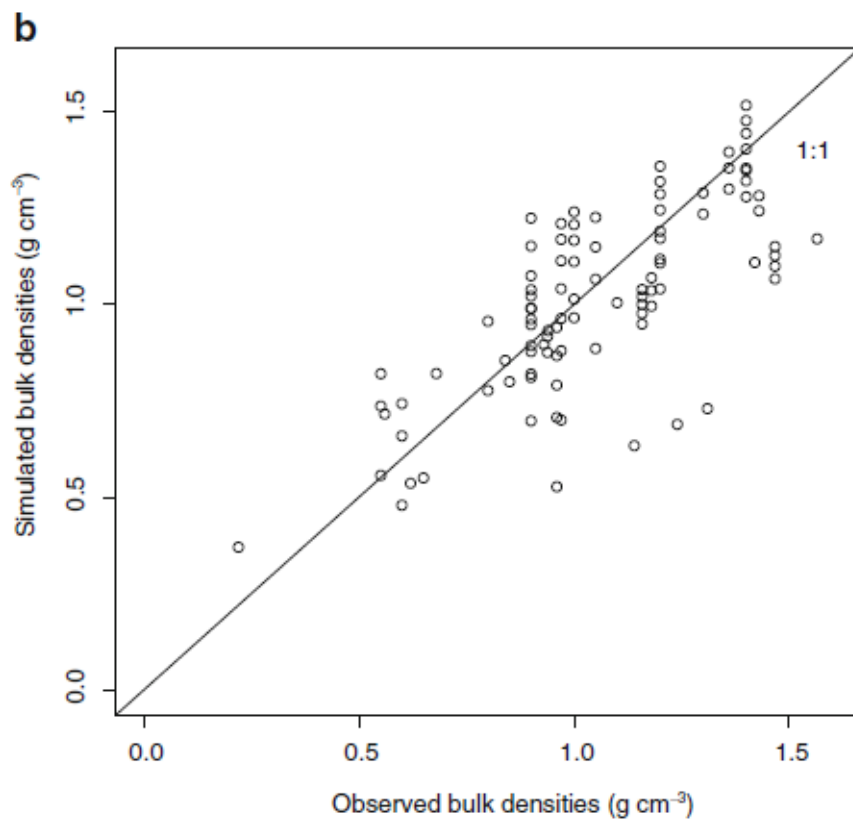
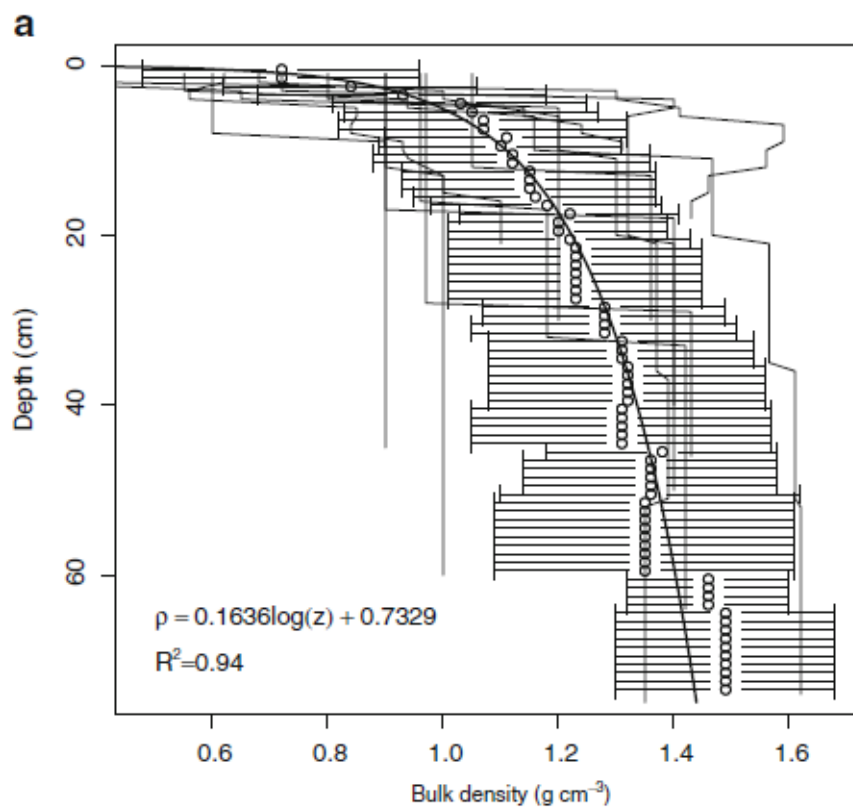


Figure 2.

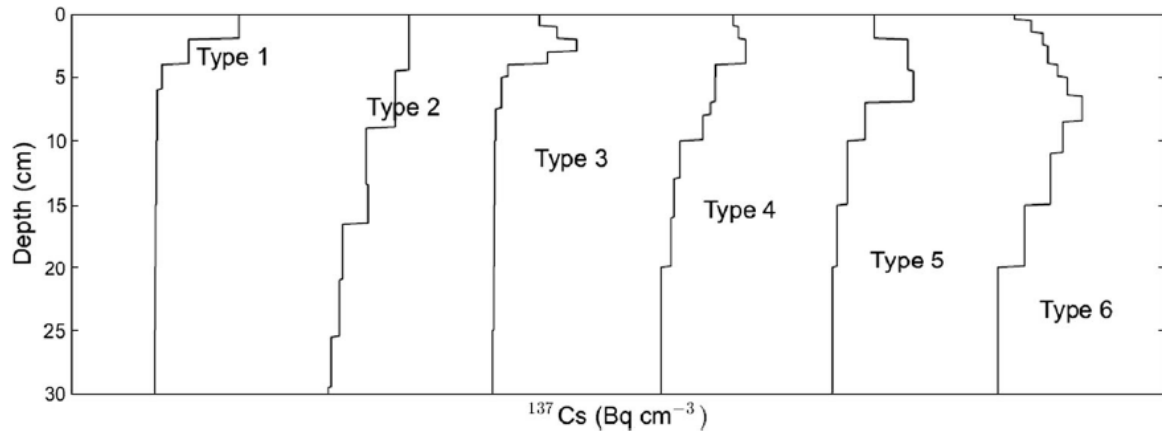


Figure 3.

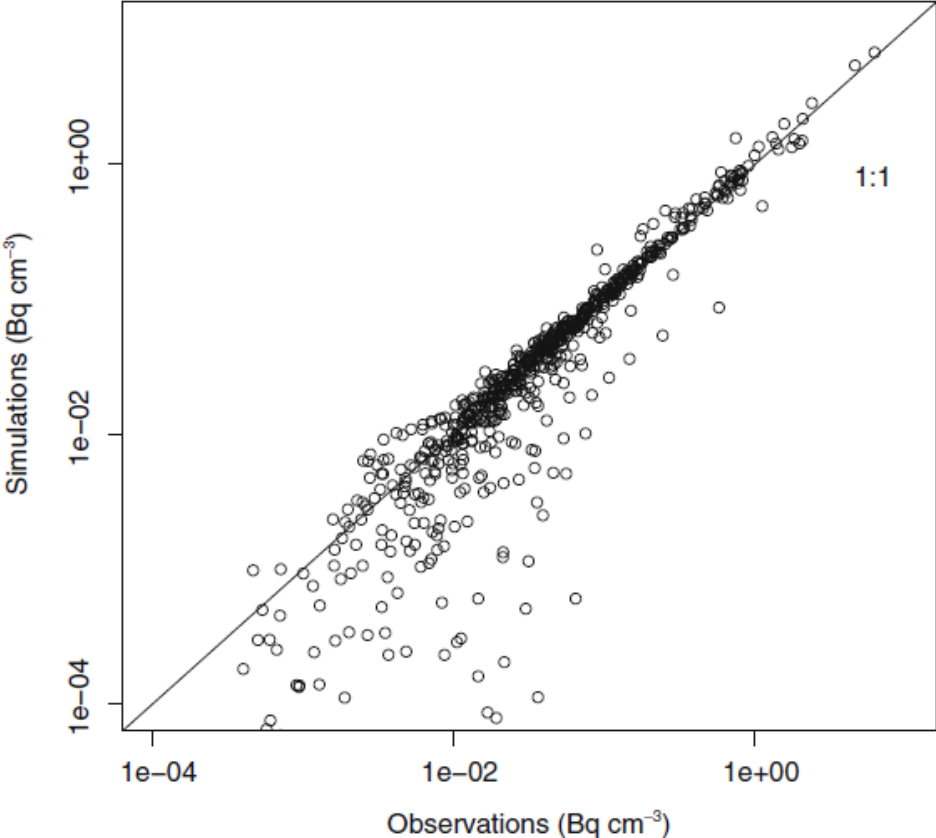


Figure 4.

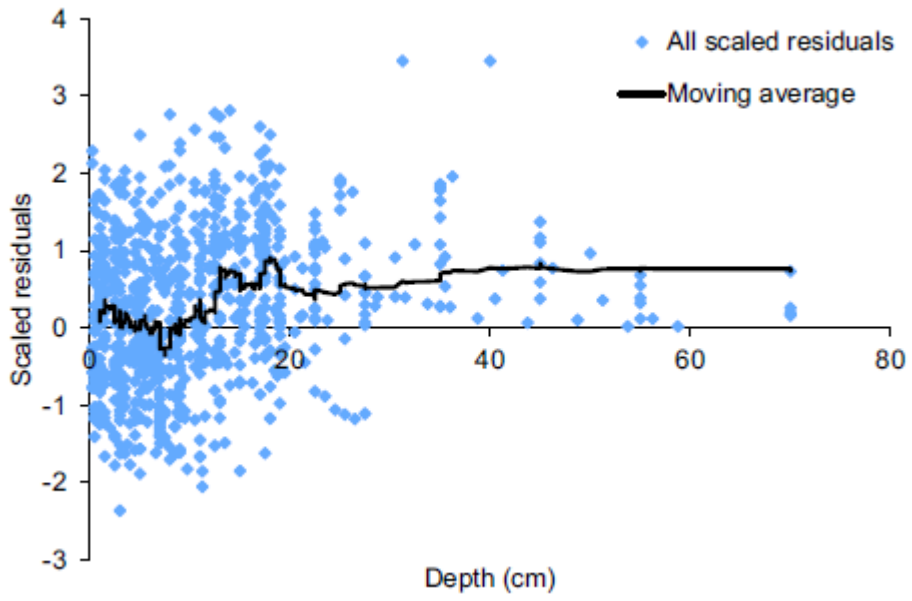


Figure 5.

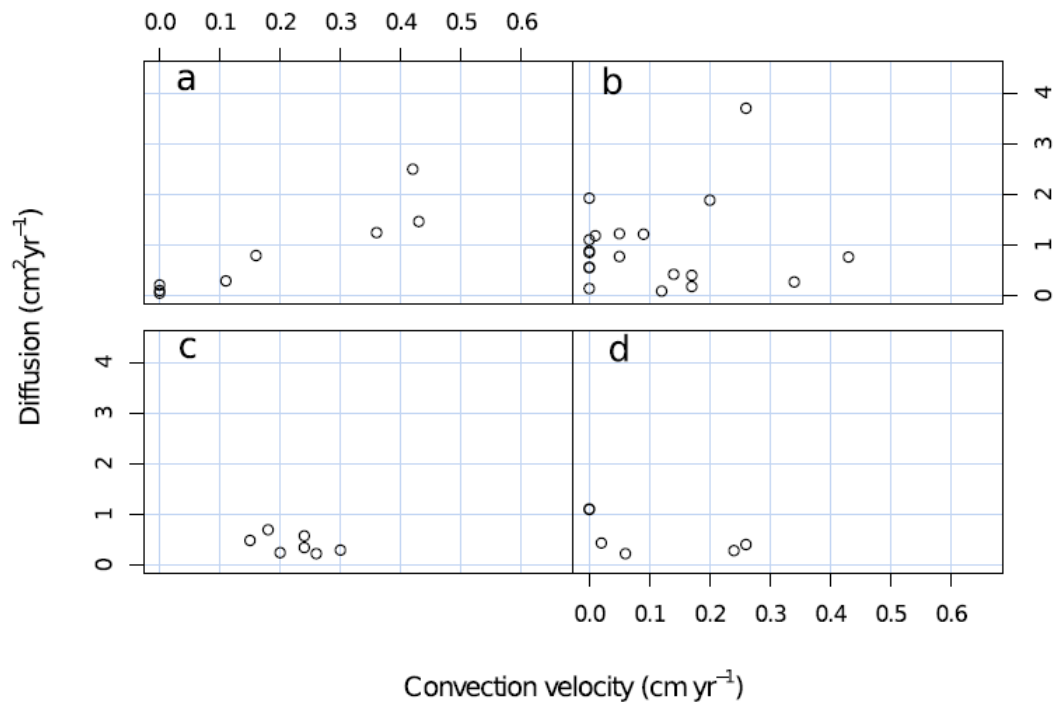


Figure 6.

