

Modelling of solid / liquid fractionation of trace metals for suspended sediments according to the hydro-sedimentary conditions of rivers - Application to 137Cs in the Rhône River (France)

Wirginia Tomczak, Patrick Boyer, Frederique Eyrolle, Olivier Radakovitch, Mohamed Krimissa, Hugo Lepage, Muriel Amielh, Fabien Anselmet

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1	Modelling of solid / liquid fractionation of trace metals for suspended sediments
2	according to the hydro-sedimentary conditions of rivers
3	- Application to ¹³⁷ Cs in the Rhône River (France) -
4	
5	Wirginia Tomczak ¹ , Patrick Boyer ¹ , Frederique Eyrolle ¹ , Olivier Radakovitch ¹ , Mohamed
6	Krimissa ² , Hugo Lepage ¹ , Muriel Amielh ³ , Fabien Anselmet ³
/ 8	1 - Institut de Radioprotection et de Sûreté Nucléaire (IRSN), PSE-SRTE-LRTA, Cadarache,
9	France
10	2 - Electricité de France (EDF), Recherches & Développements, Chatou, France.
11	3 - Aix Marseille Université, CNRS, Centrale Marseille, IRPHE U.M.R.7342, Marseille,
12	France.
13	
14	*Corresponding author:
15	E-mail address: patrick.boyer@irsn.fr (Patrick Boyer)
16 17	Highlights:
18	• Modelling of K_d according to hydro-sedimentary conditions
19	• Particle size effect on K_d
20	• Geochemical background effect on K_d
21	• Colloidal pumping effect on $K_{d.}$
22	
23	Abstract
24	The behavior and impact of trace metals discharged into rivers depend on their solid/liquid
25	fractionation and the fate of these two phases according to hydro-sedimentary processes. The
26	solid/liquid fractionation depends on many environmental factors which imply uncertainties of
27	several orders of magnitude in the evaluation of the partition coefficients, whether by
28	geochemical modelling, in situ measurements or sorption-desorption experiments. In this
29	context, this paper presents a model of solid/liquid fractionation of trace metals with suspended
30	sediments in rivers which integrates the hydro-sedimentary conditions and the properties of the
31	watershed. Its comparison with the ¹³⁷ Cs concentrations measured in the Rhône River (France)
32	shows that the solid/liquid fractionation of ¹³⁷ Cs with suspended sediments in rivers depends
33	on chemical processes but also and above all on variations in water flow rate, size and load of
34	suspended sediments and the balance between anthropogenic discharges and the average trace

35 metal content of soils in the watershed.

Keywords: K_d modelling; river systems; suspended sediments; particle size; trace metal;
 colloidal pumping.

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40 **1** Introduction

Within the framework of environmental and human health risk assessment; transport and bioavailability of trace metals (TMs) in aquatic environments were thoroughly investigated. Most TMs from anthropogenic origins such as industrial/urban wastewaters or agricultural uses are delivered to aquatic systems as inorganic complexes or hydrated ions, which are more or less adsorbed onto sediment particles (Vuković *et al.*, 2011). Consequently, their behavior in aquatic systems strongly depends on their solid/liquid fractionation which governs their mobility, bioavailability, transport and residence time.

In rivers, suspended sediments (SS) play a major role on such distribution because they constitute important TMs carriers due to their high capacity of adsorption (Xia et al., 2004). SS behavior and fate are governed by various hydro-sedimentary processes including particle transport/dispersion, sedimentation, early diagenesis and erosion (Walling and Moorehead, 1989).

Among the various SS properties, the particle size is widely known as an important parameter involved in the sorption of TMs because it directly defines the solid surface exchange availability. Most generally, exchange surface availability increases with the decreasing size of particles and the coarser particles adsorb less TMs than the smaller ones (Town and Filella, 2002; Payne et al., 2011). This has been thoroughly demonstrated for various TMs such as Cd (Fan et al., 2017), Hg (Boszke et al., 2004), ^{110m}Ag, ^{58,60}Co and ⁵⁴Mn (Ciffroy *et al.*, 1995) and ¹³⁷Cs and ²¹⁰Pb (He and Walling, 1996).

Furthermore, it is well established that the transport modes of SS (Crosby and Whipple, 2004)
and the processes of sedimentation (Gibbs *et al.*, 1971; Abarca *et al.*, 2017) and erosion (Xia *et al.*, 2004) are particle size dependent. Particles smaller than 200 μm are generally suspended
and easily transferred by water flows unlike coarser particles (Palmateer *et al.*, 1993; Fan *et al.*, 2017).

Due to these mechanisms, the particle size of SS explains most of TMs contents and fluxes
within the water column (Sigg *et al.*, 2000; Turner *et al.*, 2002; Reynolds *et al.*, 2010; Boyer *et*

67 *al.*, 2018). It is therefore a fundamental parameter for the modelling of the solid/liquid 68 partitioning of TMs in rivers. In addition, this fractionation is also time dependent so that 69 equilibrium is not instantaneous but reached after several hours or days depending on the metal 70 and the environmental conditions. Although kinetic models exist (Cameron and Klute, 1977; 71 Garcia-Sanchez *et al.*, 2014), their parameters are poorly documented and the K_d approach 72 remains the most common operational means to assess solid / liquid fractionation of TMs 73 assuming instantaneous equilibrium and reversibility:

74
$$K_d = \frac{c_s}{c_l} [m^3.kg^{-1}]$$
 (Eq. 1)

75

78

76 Where $C_s [xx \cdot kg_{dry}^{-1}]$ and $C_l [xx \cdot m^{-3}]$ are the TMs contents of the solid and liquid phases, with 77 xx = kg, mol or Bq.

79 Due to the kinetic effects, a K_d is nothing more than the ratio of the sorption and desorption 80 kinetics and it must be kept in mind that the equilibrium assumption limits its application 81 domain to contact times sufficiently long to reach these conditions. Because sorption kinetics 82 are generally faster than desorption kinetics (Pèrez et al., 2015), two types of K_d have been introduced for operational applications (Ciffroy et al., 2009; Boyer et al., 2018): a K_d sorption 83 84 to represent the rapid equilibrium reached when sorption processes are dominant, as in a 85 sorption experiments and downstream of a point of discharge, and a K_d desorption to represent situations dominated by desorption processes such as in a desorption experiments and the long-86 87 term behaviour of watersheds and bottom sediments contamination. Anyway, the K_d approach 88 remains a black box that aggregates physicochemical processes such as hydrogen bonding, 89 electrostatic and van der Waals forces, surface precipitation and surface co-precipitation 90 (Heling et al., 1999; Durrieu et al., 2006), as well as biochemical processes such as microbial 91 alkylation and volatilization that can change, independently of solid-liquid exchanges, the 92 solution concentrations of elements such as selenium, arsenic and mercury (Peitzsch et al., 93 2010). At the same time, these processes are dependent on the chemical speciation of TMs and 94 numerous environmental factors: pH (Lu and Allen, 2001; Wang et al., 2017), nature and load 95 of SS (Apte et al., 1995; Dominik et al., 2007; Jweda et al., 2008; Boyer et al., 2018), dissolved 96 organic carbon content (Barreto et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2013), temperature (Warren and 97 Zimmerman, 1994), ionic strength (Duc et al., 2013). As a consequence of this complexity, the 98 K_d values vary over several orders of magnitude even for a single TM and a single river as has been shown by different K_d values compilations (Allison and Allison, 2005; Durrieu *et al.*,

100 2006; Ciffroy et al., 2009; Boyer et al., 2018; Tomczak et al., 2019).

101

102 In practice, K_d values are determined by in situ measurements, sorption-desorption experiments

in laboratories and different modelling approaches such as parametric models (Sheppard *et al.*,
2009; Sheppard, 2011), dynamic models (Garcia-Sanchez *et al.*, 2014) and mass-action based

105 on thermodynamic models (Tipping, 1994; Goldberg *et al.*, 2007).

106

107 However, these different approaches are mainly based on geochemical concepts and remain 108 difficult to apply at the temporal and spatial scales of a river for those they require to be coupled 109 to hydro-sedimentary models (Garneau et al., 2017) and to measure or assess a number of 110 environmental variables (Ilina et al., 2020). Moreover, and despite the central role of particle 111 sizes in the solid/liquid fractionation of TMs with SS, this parameter is poorly considered by 112 these models while, at the same time, it is little documented by the scientific literature related 113 to K_d values for river systems. Thus, the effect of particle size in the models of transfer of TMs 114 in rivers is generally overlooked and, to our knowledge, the only K_d models including 115 specifically the particle sizes are those proposed by He and Walling (1996) and Abril and Fraga 116 (1996).

117

He and Walling (1996) performed sorption experiments on various size fractionated samples of soils and sediments and showed that K_d values for ¹³⁷Cs and ²¹⁰Pb are closely correlated to the specific surface area, SSA [m²· kg⁻¹], through an empirical power function:

121 $K_d = a \cdot SSA^b$ (Eq. 2)

122 Abril and Fraga (1996) and Abril (1998a) proposed a more mechanistic approach that 123 reproduces this empirical relation by considering spherical particles and assuming that only a 124 fine external layer of thickness δ participates to the ionic exchanges within the surrounding 125 water medium, instead of the whole solid particle. Compared to the approach of He and Walling 126 (1996), based only on the raw SSA, the thickness δ can be considered as a correction factor 127 which completes the exchange surface with the porous surface layer of the particles at the inside 128 in which TMs can diffuse according to their properties. Thus, they considered that only the TMs 129 associated with this reactive external layer are exchangeable with the solution while those in 130 the non-reactive internal part are not exchangeable (Figure 1).



132 Figure 1: Abril and Fraga (1996) theoretical modelling concepts for spherical particles.

C₁: liquid concentration; C_{NE}: non-exchangeable concentration; C_E: exchangeable concentration; r_p: radius; δ:
 thickness of the exchange layer

Additionally, they assumed equilibrium between the TMs contents in the reactive layer and inthe solution such as:

137
$$K_{d\delta} = \frac{C_E}{C_l}$$
(Eq. 3)

138 Where $K_{d\delta}$ is the K_d for the TMs in the reactive layer of thickness δ [µm] and C_l [xx.l⁻¹] and C_E 139 [xx.kg_{dry}⁻¹] are the concentrations in the liquid phase and in the exchangeable part of particles, 140 respectively.

141 Based on these theoretical concepts, the K_d of a particle can be expressed as a function of its 142 radius r_p [µm]:

143 • if
$$r_p > \delta \Rightarrow K_d = K_{d\delta} \cdot \left(1 - \left(1 - \frac{\delta}{r_p}\right)^3\right) + K_{d\delta} \cdot \frac{C_{NE}}{C_E} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\delta}{r_p}\right)^3$$
 (Eq. 4)

144 • if
$$r_p \le \delta \Rightarrow K_d = K_{d\delta}$$
 (Eq. 5)

145

146 In these relationships, r_p is specific to particles, δ and $K_{d\delta}$ are specific to geochemical 147 conditions and $C_{NE} [xx \cdot kg_{dry}^{-1}]$ is specific to the environmental context.

Figure 2 presents the evolution of $K_d/K_{d\delta}$ as a function of C_{NE}/C_E and δ/r_p according to this model.



151Figure 2: $K_d/K_{d\delta}$ ratios as a function of C_{NE}/C_E and δ/r_p ratios according to the Abril and152Fraga Model

150

According to the Abril and Fraga Model (labelled AFM), K_d is equal to $K_{d\delta}$ when particle sizes are smaller than the reactive layer thickness δ and when the ratio C_{NE}/C_E is close to one (Figure 2). For particle sizes greater than δ , K_d decreases with r_p rising and C_{NE}/C_E decreasing, which corresponds to situations where the concentrations of anthropogenic TMs onto the surface of particles are clearly above those within the mineral. In contrast, K_d increases when r_p is high and C_{NE}/C_E is high, corresponding to situations dominated by the geochemical background of TMs.

161 This modelling approach highlights that changes in C_E, C_{NE} and r_p are sufficient to induce a 162 variation of the K_d over several orders of magnitude, as is the case in most rivers (Tomczak et 163 al., 2019). In this context, we propose an adaptation of the AFM in order to determine the K_d 164 of the TMs for SS in rivers according to the particle sizes, the hydro-sedimentary properties of the river and the geochemical context of the watershed. This adaptation was tested on a ¹³⁷Cs 165 dataset acquired in the Rhône River (France) from long term monitoring. The results highlight 166 its relevance to explain the variations of the K_d values which were observed over several years 167 168 according to the water flow rate.

169

171 **2 Method**

For situations dominated by anthropogenic TMs ($C_{NE}/C_E < 1$), several field studies (Honeyman and Santschi, 1988; Benoit and Rozan, 1999; Eyrolle *et al.*, 2006) and data compilations (Boyer *et al.*, 2018; Tomczak *et al.*, 2019) show that K_d tends to decrease when the load of suspended sediments, labelled [SS], increases. This trend is explained by three major mechanisms which are: 1) particle size effect, 2) mass/volume ratio effect and 3) colloidal pumping.

- 1) The effect of particle size reflects that [SS] and the mean radius of suspended particles both
 tend to increase with increasing water flow rate. Observed in most cases (Müller and Förstener,
 1968; Metha, 2014) but not all (Walling *et al.*, 2000), this tendency leads to a decrease in the
 mean specific surface area of SS when [SS] increases and therefore to lower K_d values.
- 182 2) The mass/volume effect (Abril, 1998b) concerns particle sizes larger than δ and depends on 183 the balance between the total concentrations added to the rivers by the anthropogenic discharges $(C_D [xx.m^{-3}])$ and the background of the TMs contents in the watershed $(C_{soil} [xx.kg^{-1}])$ which 184 185 can be assimilated to C_{NE}. This background is related to the presence of natural TMs and/or 186 non-reversible solid fractions of anthropogenic TMs due to industrial and agricultural uses or past atmospheric fallouts and which have "migrated" within the non-reactive crystalline 187 188 structure of the minerals. In the case where C_D is negligible, an increase of [SS] changes the 189 solid concentrations little at the same time that it increases the liquid concentrations, resulting in a decrease of K_d . The AFM indicates that this trend is reversed when C_D is sufficiently strong 190 compared to C_{soil} with a theoretical limit given by $C_D > C_{soil}/K_{d\delta}$. 191

3) Finally, colloidal pumping also explains the decrease of K_d together with the rise in [SS] because the concentration of colloidal compounds increases mechanically at the same time as [SS] when the water flow rate increases. These sub-micro particles are poorly retained by filtration and it has been widely demonstrated that they are the most efficient particles to adsorb TMs (Li et al., 1984). Consequently, an increase in their concentrations enriches the TMs contents of the filtered water (Honeyman and Santschi, 1988; Benoit and Rozan, 1999) and reduces the K_d values.

199 The AFM integrates the effects of points 1 and 2 by the first and second terms in equation 4, 200 respectively. In order to integrate the colloidal pumping effect, let us consider that the liquid 201 phase is composed of the dissolved and colloidal fractions:

$$202 C_l = C_d + C_c \cdot [SC] (Eq. 6)$$

203 Where $C_c [xx \cdot kg^{-1}]$ is the TM concentration within the colloidal phase, [SC] $[kg \cdot m^{-3}]$ is the 204 concentration of colloids, $C_d [xx \cdot m^{-3}]$ is the dissolved TM concentration and $C_l [xx \cdot m^{-3}]$ is the 205 TM concentration in the total liquid phase.

206 In this case,
$$K_{d\delta}$$
 is replaced by $K_{d\delta}^*$ which is given by:

208
$$K_{d\delta}^{*} = \frac{C_{SS,E}}{C_{l}} = \frac{C_{SS,E}}{C_{d} \cdot (1 + K_{dc} \cdot [SC])} = \frac{K_{d\delta}}{1 + K_{dc} \cdot [SC]}$$
 (Eq. 7)

210 Where $C_{SS,E}$ [xx.kg⁻¹] is the exchangeable concentration of TMs inside the reactive fraction of 211 SS and K_{dc} [l.kg⁻¹] is the K_d of colloids.

212

The δ values obtained by Abril et Fraga (1996) for Pu, Cs and Zn are 0.78, 1.96 and 5.17 μm respectively. These values are all greater than the size of colloidal particles (< 0.45 μm) which allows us, according to the AFM theory, to assume $K_{dc} \approx K_{d\delta}$.

216

217 With these considerations, the adaptation of the AFM to SS in rivers leads to:

218 • if
$$r_p > \delta \Rightarrow K_d = \frac{K_{d\delta}}{1 + K_{dc} \cdot [SC]} \cdot \left(1 - \left(1 - \frac{C_{SS,NE}}{C_{SS,E}}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\delta}{r_p}\right)^3\right)$$
 (Eq. 8)

219 • if
$$r_p \le \delta \Rightarrow K_d = \frac{K_{d\delta}}{1 + K_{dc} \cdot [SC]}$$
 (Eq. 9)

Where:

• $C_{SS,NE}$ [xx.kg⁻¹] is the non-exchangeable concentration of TMs inside the non-reactive fraction of SS. It is a specific property of the catchment which depends on the geochemical background for naturally occurring TMs and/or on the anthropogenic background produced by non-reversible fractions generated in the long term by industrial and agricultural uses and atmospheric fallouts. Thus, this concentration can be assimilated to C_{soil} [xx.kg⁻¹], the mean TMs concentrations in the soils of the catchment : $C_{SS,NE} = C_{soil}$

227

C_{SS,E} [xx.kg⁻¹], the exchangeable concentration of TMs inside the reactive fraction of SS, depends on the solid/liquid fractionation of C_E [xx.l⁻¹] which is the total exchangeable concentration of TMs in the water volume. This concentration is constituted of C_{EB} [xx.l⁻¹], the total exchangeable concentrations originated from the background concentration of TMs

in the watershed and C_D [xx.l⁻¹], the total concentration of TMs added by industrial liquid 232 233 discharges: 234 $C_{\rm F} = C_{\rm FB} + C_{\rm D}$ 235 (Eq. 10) 236 237 The total exchangeable concentrations originated from the background concentration of TMs 238 in the watershed is: 239 $C_{EB} = C_{soil} \cdot [SS]_R$ 240 (Eq. 11) 241 Where $[SS]_R$ [kg·m⁻³] is the suspended load of reactive SS given by: 242 • If $(r_p > \delta) \Rightarrow [SS]_R = [SS] \cdot \left(1 - \left(1 - \frac{\delta}{r_p}\right)^3\right)$ 243 (Eq. 12) • If $(r_n \le \delta) \Rightarrow [SS]_R = [SS]$ 244 (Eq. 13) 245 In complement, we deduce the concentration of non-reactive SS by: 246 247 $[SS]_{NR} = [SS] - [SS]_{R}$ 248 (Eq. 14) 249 250 The total concentration of TMs added by industrial liquid discharges can be easily assessed in case of complete mixing conditions: 251 $C_D = \frac{q_D}{Q_{river}}$ 252 (Eq. 15) Where $q_D [xx \cdot s^{-1}]$ is the flux of the anthropogenic discharges within the river and 253 $Q_{river}[m^3 \cdot s^{-1}]$ is the river water flow rate. 254 255 With this relationship, the model should be applied in a zone of complete mixing and by 256 assuming that the TMs fractions removed from the water column by solid phase 257 sedimentation are negligible, which is generally the case in rivers where the MTs are mainly 258 fixed on the finest particles which have the lowest sedimentation rates. 259 Finally, the total (T), dissolved (d), colloidal (c), liquid (l) and particulate (SS) concentrations 260 of TMs are given by: 261 $C_T = C_d + C_c \cdot [SC] + C_{SSE} \cdot [SS]_R + C_{Soil} \cdot [SS]_{NR}$ 262 (Eq. 16)

$$263 \quad C_{d} = \frac{C_{T} - C_{Soil} \cdot [SS]_{NR}}{1 + K_{dc} \cdot [SC] + K_{d\delta} \cdot [SS]_{R}} = \frac{C_{E}}{1 + K_{dc} \cdot [SC] + K_{d\delta} \cdot [SS]_{R}}$$
(Eq. 17)

$$264 \quad C_{c} = K_{dc} \cdot C_{d} \cdot [SC]$$
(Eq. 18)

$$265 \quad C_{l} = C_{d} + C_{c}$$
(Eq. 19)

$$266 \quad C_{SS,E} = K_{d\delta} \cdot C_{d}$$
(Eq. 20)

267
$$C_{SS} = \frac{C_{SS,E} \cdot [SS]_R + C_{Soil} \cdot [SS]_{NR}}{[SS]}$$
(Eq. 21)

Furthermore, these concentrations can be decomposed according to the contributions of the anthropogenic discharges (D) and the catchment background (B) with $f_D = \frac{C_D}{C_F}$:

271 •
$$C_{d,D} = f_D \cdot C_d$$
 and $C_{d,B} = (1 - f_D) \cdot C_d$ (Eq. 22)

272 •
$$C_{c,D} = f_D \cdot C_c$$
 and $C_{c,B} = (1 - f_D) \cdot C_c$ (Eq. 23)

273 •
$$C_{l,D} = f_D \cdot C_l$$
 and $C_{l,B} = (1 - f_D) \cdot C_l$ (Eq. 24)

274 •
$$C_{SS,D} = \frac{K_{d\delta} \cdot C_{d,D} \cdot [SS]_R}{[SS]}$$
 and $C_{SS,B} = \frac{K_{d\delta} \cdot C_{d,B} \cdot [SS]_R + C_{Soil} \cdot [SS]_{NR}}{[SS]}$ (Eq. 25)

275

We can then define the K_d specifically to the anthropogenic discharges and to the catchment background by:

278
$$K_{d,D} = \frac{C_{SS,D}}{C_{l,D}}$$
 and $K_{d,B} = \frac{C_{SS,B}}{C_{l,B}}$ (Eq. 26)
279

280 These different calculation steps are summarized in Table 1.

- 281 282
- Table 1: Summary description of the model
- 283

(See text for the description of parameters)

Input parameters

$$\delta$$
, K_{d δ} , K_{dc} (~K_{d δ}), Q_{river}, [SS], [SC], r_p, C_{soil}, q_D (or C_D = $\frac{q_D}{Q_{river}}$)

1 - Calculation of the reactive and non-reactive loads of SS

• If
$$(r_{50} > \delta) \Rightarrow [SS]_R = [SS] \cdot \left(1 - \left(1 - \frac{\delta}{r_p}\right)^3\right)$$

• If
$$(r_{50} \le \delta) \Rightarrow [SS]_R = [SS]$$

•
$$[SS]_{NR} = [SS] - [SS]_{R}$$

2 - Calculation of the total exchangeable and non exchangeable TMs concentrations

•
$$C_{EB} = C_{soil} \cdot [SS]_R$$
 • $C_E = C_D + C_{EB}$

• $C_D = \frac{q_D}{Q_{river}}$	• $f_D = \frac{C_D}{C_E}$			
4 - Calculation of the dissolved, colloidal and liquid TMs concentrations				
• $C_d = \frac{C_E}{1 + K_{dc} \cdot [SC] + K_{d\delta} \cdot [SS]_R}$	• $C_{d,D} = f_D \cdot C_d$; $C_{d,B} = C_d - C_{d,D}$			
• $C_c = K_{dc} \cdot [SC] \cdot C_d$	• $C_{c,D} = f_D \cdot C_c$; $C_{c,B} = C_c - C_{c,D}$			
• $C_l = C_d + C_c$	• $C_{l,D} = f_D \cdot C_l$; $C_{l,B} = C_l - C_{l,D}$			
3 - Calculation of the particulate TMs concentrations				
• $C_{SS,E} = K_{d\delta} \cdot C_d$	• $C_{SS,D} = \frac{K_{d\delta} \cdot C_{d,D} \cdot [SS]_R}{[SS]}$			
• $C_{SS} = \frac{C_{SS,E} \cdot [SS]_R + C_{soil} \cdot [SS]_{NR}}{[SS]}$	• $C_{SS,B} = \frac{K_{d\delta} \cdot C_{d,G} \cdot [SS]_R + C_{Soil} \cdot [SS]_{NR}}{[SS]}$			
5 - Calculation of the K _d				
$K_{d} = \frac{C_{SS}}{C_{l}}; K_{d,D} = \frac{C_{SS,D}}{C_{l,D}}; K_{d,B} = \frac{C_{SS,B}}{C_{l,B}}$				

285 **3 Material**

The model was applied to determine the variability depending on the river discharge of the K_d of 137 Cs in the SS of the downstream part of the Rhône River (south of France). Its results were compared to time-series of liquid and particulate 137 Cs concentrations and their corresponding ratio measured between 2005 and 2018 at the IRSN monitoring station, SORA, which is located on the Rhône downstream of all the nuclear facilities (Figure 3).







Figure 3: Rhône River and IRSN monitoring station SORA

The IRSN monitoring station SORA and its sampling protocol for SS and filtered water are detailed in Antonelli *et al.* (2008), Eyrolle *et al.* (2012) and Eyrolle *et al.* (2020). Outside flood periods, a composite sample resulting from samples taken every 80 minutes is collected over a period of about one month. During flood periods (> 3 000 m³.s⁻¹), the composite sample is produced using samples taken every 60 minutes over 8 hours. Radionuclide analyses are performed on the particulate fraction (suspended sediments, SS) and on the dissolved fraction (fraction less than 0.5 µm, filtered waters, FW).

301

The representativeness of these data in terms of K_d depends on the validity or otherwise of the equilibrium of the solid / liquid fractionation of the ¹³⁷Cs contained in these samples according to its origin, its transit time in the river and the delay between the sampling and the filtration.

At the SORA station, the main sources of 137 Cs are the contamination of the soils of the watershed (cf. 3.4) and the discharges of the Marcoule Center (cf. 3.5). While the contamination of the watershed is old enough to assume a complete equilibrium and consequently a real K_d, the interpretation is less obvious for the discharges of the Marcoule Center which is located 65 km upstream from the SORA station for a transit time close to one day. During this transit time, it can be considered that the processes of solid/liquid fractionation is dominated by the sorption 311 processes, for which equilibrium conditions are reached after one or two hours (Pérez, 2015). Consequently, it can be assumed that the solid/liquid ratios of ¹³⁷Cs in the Rhône at the level of 312 the SORA station are a combination between the sorption K_d (cf. 1) of the Marcoule discharges 313 314 and the real K_d of the watershed. However, it must also be considered that these conditions are 315 not exactly those measured by the SORA station in reason of the sampling procedure which 316 increases the contact time over a period of one month allowing to reach a quasi-equilibrium for the solid/liquid ¹³⁷Cs concentrations in the samples. This is partially demonstrated by the good 317 318 agreement between the solid/liquid ratio measured at the SORA station and the distribution of 319 the desorption K_d compiled in the framework of the AMORAD program of the International 320 Agency of Energy Atomic (IAEA) (Boyer et al., 2018; Tomczak et al., 2019).



Figure 4: ¹³⁷Cs solid/liquid ratio measured at the SORA station *vs* IAEA distribution of SS
 desorption Kd.

324 (Dataset (points), IAEA conditional geometric mean (full line) and IAEA 5th and 95th 325 percentiles (dotted lines)

326 327

321

- 328 Consequently, it can be assumed that the solid / liquid ratios determined from the data of the 329 SORA station are probably representative of the K_d of ¹³⁷Cs in the Rhône at this station but not 330 necessarily of the state of the solid / liquid fractionation which crosses the section of sampling.
- 331

In complement, the distance and the transfer time between the Marcoule Center and the SORA
station permit also to assume as correct the assumption of complete mixing and the use of
Equation 12 (cf. Section 2).

336 **3.1 Calculation procedure**

337 As the ¹³⁷Cs concentrations and the model input parameters (Table 1) were not all available at the same time, the variabilities of the solid and liquid concentrations and K_d were modeled by 338 339 considering the conditional statistical distribution of [SS] and r according to the river discharge 340 and the statistical distributions, over the period 2005-2018, of C_{soil} and C_D. The range of river 341 discharges was scanned between Q_{MIN} (400 m³.s⁻¹) and Q_{MAX} (6000 m³.s⁻¹). For each water 342 flow rate, several sets of input parameters were determined with a weighted Latin hypercube method which consisted of four imbricated loops scanning between their 2nd and 98th percentiles 343 the conditional distributions of [SS] and r according to Q and the distributions of C_{soil} and C_{D.} 344 345 The result associated to each set of input parameters was weighted by the product of the 346 probability densities of the different parameters. Finally, the geometric means and the minimal 347 and maximal values of the modelled solid and liquid concentrations and K_d obtained at the 348 different water flow rates were compared with the conditional statistical distributions of the 349 dataset.

The calculation procedure was developed as an Excel macro written in Visual Basic Application language. For information, the calculation times on a laptop computer and with the parameters specified in Table 2 are approximately 15 seconds.

353 It was not possible to determine statistical distributions for the specific parameters of ¹³⁷Cs, δ 354 and K_{d\delta}, because only the values published by Abril and Fraga (1996) were available:

355
$$\delta = 1.96 \,\mu\text{m} \text{ and } \text{K}_{d\delta} = 68 \cdot 10^3 \, \text{l.kg}^{-1}$$

356 Therefore, these two values were directly applied and used in the discussion. In the meantime,

357 the statistical distributions of the other input parameters are detailed below.

358

359 **3.2** Conditional statistical distribution of [SS] as a function of the river discharge

The conditional log-normal distribution of [SS] as a function of the river discharge was determined from data acquired between March 2001 and April 2008 at the SORA monitoring station (Eyrolle *et al.*, 2012). The conditional geometric means (GM([SS]|Q)), geometric standard deviations (GSD([SS]|Q)) and second and ninety-eighth percentiles ($2^{th}([SS]|Q)$) and 98th([SS]|Q)) were determined using a sliding window method (Tomszak et al., 2018) applied to this dataset classified according to the increasing water flow rates (Figure 5).



366

Figure 5: Suspended sediment concentrations versus Rhône River discharge at SORA station
 (Q, [SS]) dataset (points), conditional geometric mean (full line) and 2th and 98th
 percentiles (dotted lines)

371 The mean relationships obtained for GM([SS]|Q) and GSD([SS]|Q) are:

372
$$GM([SS]|Q) = 2.13 \cdot e^{0.0015 \cdot Q} [mg.l^{-1}]$$
 with $R^2 = 0.98$ (Eq. 27)

373
$$GSD([SS]|Q) = 1.56 \cdot e^{0.0002 \cdot Q}$$
 with $R^2 = 0.54$ (Eq. 28)

374

375 **3.3** Conditional log-normal distribution of r as a function of the river discharge

376 The distributions of the radius r of SS as a function of the river discharge were 377 determined from data of suspended sediments sizes distributions acquired with an hourly time 378 step between December 2011 and August 2012 at the SORA station (Adell, 2013). In practice, 379 one of the operational parameters to represent these distributions as a function of the water flow 380 is r₅₀, i.e. the fiftieth percentile of the particle volume distribution. For the AFM, the 381 consequences consecutive to the use of this parameter in place of the particle size distribution depend on the difference between $\left(1 - \frac{\delta}{r_{50}}\right)^3$ and $\sum_{r_i > \delta} f_i \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\delta}{r_i}\right)^3$ (see Eq. 8 and 9) where 382 383 f_i is the frequency of the radius r_i.

384 Over the range of water flow rates covered by our particle size data, these two expressions differ 385 by less than 20% at the same time that the variability of r_{50} is extended over a range greater than 386 a factor 2 (ten times more) for each water flow condition (Figure 6). Therefore, and for this 387 application case, using the variability of r_{50} instead of the particle size distributions enhances the operational capabilities of the model without affecting the accuracy of the results. However, if this simplification is without consequences here, it is less suitable when applying the model to a specific suspension or in view to assess the transfers of TMs to deposited sediments for which the sedimentation / erosion processes increase the sorting of the particles according to their size and the hydraulic conditions

393

For water flow rates between 400 and 3000 m³.s⁻¹, the data show that r_{50} vary between 3 and 10 394 395 μm (Figure 6) which is consistent with other results obtained on the Rhône River (Slomberg et 396 al., 2016) and rivers from the Humber and Tweed catchments (Walling et al., 2000). For this 397 range of water flow, the conditional log-normal distributions of r_{50} as a function of the river 398 discharge were determined in the same way as for [SS]. Thus, the variability of r_{50} for water 399 flow rates between 400 and 3000 m³.s⁻¹ is covered by a conditional geometric mean 400 $(GM(r_{50}|Q))$ represented by an equation of the second order (Eq. 29) and a constant conditional 401 standard deviation (GSD($r_{50}|Q$)) equal to 1.2 (Figure 6).

402 • If
$$(Q \le 3000 \text{ m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}) \Rightarrow$$

403
$$GM(r_{50}|Q) = 2.12 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot Q^2 - 7.96 \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot Q + 13 \, [\mu m] \, (R^2 = 0.65)$$
 (Eq. 29)

404
$$GSD(r_{50}|Q) = 1.2$$
 (Eq. 30)

405 • If
$$(Q > 3000 \text{ m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}) \Rightarrow$$

Beyond water flow rates of 3000 m³.s⁻¹, the lack of data does not allow a detailed assessment of the variability of r_{50} . As a first approximation, this variability is extrapolated by considering Eq. 29 for GM($r_{50}|Q$) and by increasing GSD($r_{50}|Q$) from 1.2 for Q = 3000 m³.s⁻¹ to 2 for Q = 6000 m³.s⁻¹ (Figure 6):

410
$$GSD(r_{50}|Q) = (Q - 3000) \cdot \frac{2 - 1.2}{6000 - 3000}$$
 (Eq. 31)

411 To assess the sensitivity of the model, the results obtained with this assumption are compared 412 in the discussion (cf. Section 5) with those given by a reduced variability defined by a 413 $GSD(r_{50}|Q)$ which decreases from 1.2 for $Q = 3000 \text{ m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}$ to 1 for $Q = 6000 \text{ m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}$.



415

416 Figure 6: Mean radius r_{50} of suspended sediments vs Rhône River discharge at station SORA 417 (Q, r_{50}) dataset (points) and conditional geometric mean (full line) and 2^{th} and 98^{th} 418 percentiles (dotted lines) – Black for $GSD(r_{50}|6000) = 2$ and Grey for $GSD(r_{50}|6000) = 1$ 419

Statistical distribution of the mean ¹³⁷Cs concentrations in the soils of the catchment 420 3.4 The background of the ¹³⁷Cs concentrations in the soils of the Rhône watershed is related 421 422 to the atmospheric fallout from past nuclear tests and the Chernobyl accident (Perkins and 423 Thomas, 1980; Duffa, 2001; Zebracki et al., 2013a,b). This background was estimated between 11 and 19 Bq.kg⁻¹ for the year 2003 (Antonelli et al., 2008; Eyrolle et al., 2012) and between 3 424 and 11 Bq.kg⁻¹ for the year 2018 (Thollet et al., 2018). Consequently, the variations of the 425 426 minimal and maximal values of C_{soil} for the period 2003 to 2018 can be described by two 427 exponential relations with an effective decay period of 7 years for the minimal values $(C_{\text{soil},\text{MIN}}(y) = 11 \cdot e^{-0.1 \cdot (y - 2003)})$ and of 16 years for the maximal values $(C_{\text{soil},\text{MAX}}(y) = 19 \cdot (y - 2003))$ 428 $e^{-0.042 \cdot (y-2003)}$) with y the considered year. These values are within the range of the values 429 430 published in the scientific literature (Garcia-Sanchez, 2008). They are faster than the radioactive 431 decay period of ¹³⁷Cs (30.2 years) because they aggregate the radioactive decay with several 432 transfer processes such as wash-off, erosion, infiltration, etc...

The statistical distribution of C_{soil} between 2015 and 2018 was determined by discretizing these two curves with a yearly time step. For each year, the interval between the minimal and maximal values was discretized into 20 intervals with the assumption of uniform distribution. These steps provided a dataset of 260 soil activities which was statistically described by a log-normal distribution with $GM(C_{soil}) = 9.8 \text{ Bq.kg}^{-1}$ and $GSD(C_{soil}) = 1.46 (R^2 = 0.99)$. 438 For each water flow rate, the distribution of C_{soil} was scanned between its 2th and 98th percentiles 439 which were 4.5 and 21.3 Bq.kg⁻¹.

440

441 **3.5** Statistical distribution of the industrial liquid discharges of ¹³⁷Cs

The main anthropogenic source of ¹³⁷Cs liquid discharges into the Rhône is the Marcoule 442 spent nuclear fuel reprocessing plant which discharges one order of magnitude more than the 443 444 other nuclear facilities along the Rhône River (Charmasson, 1998; Rolland, 2006). For the period 2005 to 2018, the fluxes of ¹³⁷Cs monthly discharged by the Marcoule center ranged 445 from 10² to 10⁴ MBq.month⁻¹. Considering the average monthly water flow rates and noting 446 447 that the Marcoule center is not authorized to discharge when the water flow rate of the Rhône exceeds 4000 m³.s⁻¹ at its lower part (Zebracki et al., 2015), these releases lead to added 448 monthly activities ranging between $2 \cdot 10^{-4}$ and $2 \cdot 10^{-3}$ Bq.l⁻¹ over the period 2005-2019 (Figure 449 450 7).



451

452 Figure 7 : Theoretical average monthly concentrations of ¹³⁷Cs added by the liquid discharges
453 of the Marcoule Center

Figure 7 shows that the variability of the added concentrations from industries does not depend on the month that is suggested to consider the entire variability whatever the river discharge. This variability is represented by a log-normal law defined by $GM(C_D) = 3.9 \cdot 10^{-4}$ Bq.l⁻¹ and $GSD(C_D) = 2.43$ (R2 = 0.99). 458 For each water flow rate, the distribution of C_D was scanned between the 2th and the 98th 459 percentiles which are $6.23 \cdot 10^{-5}$ and $2.40 \cdot 10^{-3}$ Bq.1⁻¹.

460

461 **4 Results**

462

Table 2: Summary of the input parameters

Parameter	Law	Range	N ^(*)
δ	n.r	1.96 µm	n.r
$K_{d\delta}$	n.r	$68 \cdot 10^4 l.kg^{-1}$	n.r
Q	n.r	$0 - 6000 \text{ m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}$	40
[SS]	Conditional log-normal as a function of Q $GM([SS] Q) = 2.13 \cdot e^{1.5 \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot Q}$ $GSD([SS] Q) = 1.56 \cdot e^{0.0002 \cdot Q}$	2 th ([SS] Q) - 98 th ([SS] Q)	10
fc	Discussed in results section	See results section	n.r
r 50	Conditional log-normal as a function of Q $GM(r_{50} Q) = 2.12 \cdot 10^{-6} \cdot Q^2 - 7.96 \cdot 10^{-3} \cdot Q + 13$ $If (Q \le 3000) \Rightarrow GSD(r_{50} Q) = 1.2$ $If (Q > 3000) \Rightarrow GSD(r_{50} Q) = (Q - 3000) \cdot \frac{0.8}{3000}$	$2^{\text{th}}(r_{50} \mathbf{Q})$ - $98^{\text{th}}(r_{50} \mathbf{Q})$	10
Csoil	Log-normal $GM(C_{soil}) = 9.8 \text{ Bq.kg}^{-1}$ $GSD(C_{soil}) = 1.46$	4.5 – 21.3 Bq.kg ⁻¹	10
Ca	$\label{eq:GM} \begin{array}{l} \mbox{Log-normal if } Q < 4000 \ m^3.s^{-1} \\ \mbox{GM}(Ca) = 3.9 \cdot 10^{-4} \ Bq.l^{-1} \\ \mbox{GSD}(Ca) = 2.43 \\ \mbox{if } Q > 4000 \ m^3.s^{-1} \ then \ C_a = 0 \ Bq.l^{-1} \end{array}$	$6.2 \cdot 10^{-5} - 2.4 \cdot 10^{-3}$ Bq.1 ⁻¹	10

^(*)N is the number of intervals for scanning the statistical distributions between their 2th and 98th
 percentiles. For each distribution, N was determined incrementally until no significant change was
 observed.

466 n.r: non relevant

467

Table 2 summarizes the input parameters applied for the calculations and Figure 8 compares, as a function of the river discharge, the raw values (points) and sliding geometric means (black lines) of the particulate and dissolved concentrations and K_d of ¹³⁷Cs to their modelled conditional geometric means (red lines) and modelled conditional minimum and maximum values (dashed red lines).











Figure 8: C_{SS}, C₁ and K_d of ¹³⁷Cs: raw values (open circles) and sliding geometric means
(black full lines) measured at the SORA station from 2005 to 2018 vs conditional geometric
means (red full lines) and conditional minimum and maximum values (red dashed lines)
modelled with the parameters of Table 2

485 Figure 8 (a) and (b) show that, without any calibration, the variabilities and the mean values 486 given by the model for the particulate and liquid concentrations are very close to those measured: less than a factor of 2 on average. The modelled variability of K_d (Figure 8c) is in 487 488 the same range as those measured when the water flow rates are less than 2000 m³.s⁻¹. Beyond that, the model underestimates the variability and overestimates the mean values of K_d and the 489 490 first idea that comes to mind to improve the modelling is to reduce $K_{d\delta}$ which seems closer to $20-30\cdot10^3$ l.kg⁻¹ than to $68\cdot10^3$ l.kg⁻¹. If this change effectively improves the modelling of K_d 491 for water flow rates greater than 2000 m³.s⁻¹, it induces also an underestimation of the 492 493 particulate activities and K_d at lower water flow rates.

Therefore, reducing $K_{d\delta}$ is not the right way to improve the modelling of K_d over the entire range of water flow rates because this improvement requires increasing the dissolved activities without modifying the particulate ones. In practice, the only way to obtain this result is to introduce a colloidal pumping. Indeed, the modelling of the mean and the variability of K_d becomes correct over the entire range of water flows by applying [SC] = $\frac{f_c}{100} \cdot$ [SS] with $f_c \approx 3\%$ (Figure 9).







505 506

Figure 9 : C_{SS} , C_{I} and K_{d} of ¹³⁷Cs: raw values (open circles) and sliding geometric means (black full lines) measured at the SORA station from 2005 to 2018 vs conditional geometric means (red full lines) and conditional minimum and maximum values (red dashed lines) modelled with the parameters of Table 2 and [SC] = $0.03 \cdot$ [SS]

512

The small amount of data available on the Rhône colloids contents are consistent with $f_c \approx 3\%$ and support the hypothesis of a colloidal pumping effect. Slomberg *et al.* (2016) measured a colloidal content of 1% for a suspended load of 50 mg.l⁻¹ and the modelled ¹³⁷Cs concentrations in colloids (C_c, Eq. 18) are in agreement with measurements performed at the SORA station by Eyrolle and Charmassson (2004) (Figure 10).



520Figure 10 : Cc/C_1 and Cc: data measured at the SORA station by Eyrolle and Charmassson521(2004) (open circles) vs conditional geometric means (red full lines) and conditional522minimum and maximum values (dashed red lines) modelled with the parameters of Table 2523and $[SC] = 0.03 \cdot [SS]$ 524

519

Figure 10 shows that the contribution of the colloidal fraction to the liquid ¹³⁷Cs concentration 525 becomes significant (C_c/C_1 mean > 10 %) when the river discharge exceeds 2000 m³.s⁻¹ and 526 suggests it can become dominant above 4000 m³.s⁻¹. The threshold of 2000 m³.s⁻¹ corresponds 527 to a change in the hydro-sedimentary regime of the Rhône River which is illustrated by the 528 529 dynamic of the r₅₀ according to the water flow which increases faster above 2000 m³.s⁻¹ (Figure 530 6). The aim of this paper is not to discuss the origin of this change, also observed on the dynamic of [SS] by Sadaoui et al. (2016), but it may correspond to a change in the erosion regime of the 531 river with an erosion of the stocks of deposited sediments. In this case, two hypotheses could 532 533 explain the colloidal pumping of ¹³⁷Cs in the Rhône River: 1) colloids mainly originate from the erosion of bottom sediments and/or river banks and they adsorb ¹³⁷Cs from industrial 534 releases once they are in the water column, 2) colloidal forms of ¹³⁷Cs are directly produced by 535 the erosion of ¹³⁷Cs sedimentary stocks accumulated since the previous erosive event. This last 536 537 hypothesis is however not confirmed by the data and the model. Indeed, the remobilisation of colloidal forms of ¹³⁷Cs from sedimentary stocks would lead theoretically to an increase of the 538 activities of ¹³⁷Cs within the filtered waters which is not supported by the measured 539 540 concentrations which remain almost constant within their variability range, whatever the water 541 flow rate (Figure 9b). Besides, this hypothesis would require introducing into the model a 542 secondary source term which does not seem necessary here.

543 On another hand, the importance to consider the catchment background is well demonstrated 544 by comparing the variabilities of the solid and liquid ¹³⁷Cs concentrations and of the K_d 545 specifically to the background of the watershed and the industrial discharges (Eq. 26) 546 respectively represented on Figure 11 by the blue and red lines.



549 550

Figure 11 : C_{SS} , C_1 and K_d of ¹³⁷Cs: raw values (open circles) and sliding geometric means (black full lines) measured at the SORA station from 2005 to 2018 vs conditional geometric means (full lines) and conditional minimum and maximum values (dashed lines) modelled with the parameters of Table 2 and [SC] = $0.03 \cdot$ [SS] for the contributions of the background of the watershed (blue lines) and the industrial discharges (red lines)

For C_{SS}, (Figure 11a) the industrial discharges and background contributions are close below 558 559 2000 m³.s⁻¹. Above this water flow rate, the background contribution becomes more and more 560 dominant because of the increase in [SS] and r₅₀. Figure 11b shows that C₁ is essentially linked 561 to the anthropogenic discharges at low water flow rates and to the catchment background after 2000 m³.s⁻¹. Figure 11c shows that the K_d of the anthropogenic releases is lower than the K_d of 562 563 the geochemical background regardless of the river discharge. Above 4000 m³.s⁻¹, where there 564 are no anthropogenic discharges (see 3.4), the model reproduces correctly the mean K_d that translates the strong dependence of this variable to the catchment background. 565

566

567 5 Discussion

At this stage, one must remember that the model very faithfully reproduces the average trends and variabilities of C_{SS}, C₁ and K_d of ¹³⁷Cs as a function of the water flow rate of the Rhône and without requiring an additional calibration than that of the colloidal fraction in the suspension. This result is all the most surprising since no variabilities were considered for the chemical parameters of ¹³⁷Cs, δ and K_{d δ}, for which we directly considered the values obtained by Abril (1998b) from the laboratory experiments of He and Walling (1996) on soil and sediment particles totally independent from the Rhône.

575 To better appreciate the representativeness of these two parameters, Figure 12 presents the 576 changes in K_d depending on whether $K_{d\delta} = 30 \cdot 10^3$, $68 \cdot 10^3$ and $140 \cdot 10^3 1 \text{ kg}^{-1}$.



579Figure 12 : Variabilities of K_d as a function of the river discharge for $\delta = 1.96 \ \mu m$ and $K_{d\delta} =$ 580 $30 \cdot 10^3$ (a), $68 \cdot 10^3$ (b) and $140 \cdot 10^3$ (c) $1.kg^{-1}$.581(Open circles: data measured at the SORA station from 2005 to 2018; Black full line: sliding582geometric mean of raw data; Red full line: modelled geometric means; Red dashed lines: modelled583minimal and maximal values)584585585K_{dδ} moves the geometric means vertically without significantly affecting the amplitude of the



587 its strong representativeness, especially since a change less than a factor of two is enough to

reduce the accuracy of the modelled mean curve.



589 Figure 13 presents the changes in K_d depending on whether $\delta = 1$, 1.96 and 4 μ m.

592 Figure 13: Variabilities of K_d as a function of the river discharge for $\delta = 1$ (a), 1.96 (b) and 4 593 (c) μ m and $K_{d\delta} = 68 \cdot 10^3 \text{ l.kg}^{-1}$.

(Open circles: data measured at the SORA station from 2005 to 2018; Black full line: sliding
 geometric mean of raw data; Red full line: modelled geometric means; Red dashed lines: modelled
 minimal and maximal values)

598 Compared to $K_{d\delta}$, Figure 13 shows that the variations of δ affect the amplitude of the variability 599 of K_d without significantly modifying the geometric means. The lower δ is, the greater is the 600 variability of K_d because the contribution of the non-exchangeable fractions (representative of 601 the geochemical background of the watershed) decreases at the same time as δ .

602 Comparison between the modelled variability and the dataset shows that δ cannot be greater 603 than the value given by Abril (1998b) and suggests that the variability of the dataset is better 604 represented by $\delta = 1 \mu m$. Consequently, an uncertainty can be assumed for $\delta (1 < \delta < 2 \mu m)$ but 605 it remains limited to a factor of 2, which once again confirms the strong representativeness of 606 the value published by Abril (1998b).

For water flow rates greater than 3000 m³.s⁻¹ the main uncertainty is linked to the lack of data for r_{50} (cf. 3.5). If the right agreement between the modelled and measured geometric means allows to consider as acceptable the Equation 29 for the evolution of GM($r_{50}|Q$), it remains an uncertainty about the effect of the strong variability associated to r_{50} for this range of water flow rates (cf. 3.5). To assess this effect, Figure 14 compares the results obtained with this variability to those obtained with the reduced variability of r_{50} defined by a GSD($r_{50}|Q$) decreasing from 1.2 for Q = 3000 m³.s⁻¹ to 1 for Q = 6000 m³.s⁻¹ (Figure 6).



modelled minimal and maximal values)

619 620

This figure shows few effects of the variability of r₅₀ on the modelling of the K_d distributions 621 for water flow rates larger than 3000 $\text{m}^3.\text{s}^{-1}$. Just appears a light decreasing of the maximal K_d 622 623 values explained by the greater minimal particle sizes induced by the lower variability. 624 However, the effects are limited and quasi-invisible for the minimal K_d values. For water flow rates larger than 3000 m³.s⁻¹, this behaviour of the model is essentially explained by the 625 626 colloidal loads which increases at the same time that the suspended load. When the water flow 627 rate increases, the modelled K_d values are thus more and more controlled by the colloidal 628 pumping and less and less by the particle size as it is shown by comparison of Figure 8c (without 629 colloidal pumping) and Figure 9c (with colloidal pumping). From an operational point of view 630 this result suggests that the attention payed to the colloidal phases of TMs is all the more 631 important that the water flow rate is strong.

These results highlight both the correct behaviour of the model and its robustness. They 632 motivate to extend its application to other TMs than ¹³⁷Cs and to rivers other than the Rhône, 633 634 the input data being the average concentrations of TMs in the soils of the watershed, the 635 anthropogenic discharges and the load and the average size of the SS as well as the colloidal 636 load as a function of the water flow. Under the present form of the model, the main constraints 637 are the checking of the mixing conditions and the transit time since the anthropogenic 638 discharges and, probably the most important, the knowledge for each TM of δ , the thickness of 639 the exchange layer and $K_{d\delta}$, its specific K_d . The results obtained here suggest that these two 640 parameters could have a generic representativeness if they are determined independently of the hydro-sedimentary conditions, which would be possible from laboratory experiments, byadjustment with *in-situ* data and/or with geochemical models.

643

652

644 From a general point of view, this work demonstrated that the variability of the K_d of SS in 645 rivers does not only depend on the chemical conditions but also and rather on the hydro-646 sedimentary conditions as previously shown by Cho et al. (2016), the discharges and the context 647 of the watershed. These considerations suggest that this modelling approach could contribute 648 to the prediction of the impact of changes in erosion regimes of rivers and watersheds on the 649 TMs transfers in rivers, for example in a context of climate change. In this case, the model will 650 have to be coupled with hydro-sedimentary models capable of predicting the impact of these 651 changes on the hydro-sedimentary properties of the river.

653 6 Conclusions

654 This paper reports an adaptation of the model of Abril and Fraga (1996) to model the K_d of 655 trace metals in suspended sediments of rivers as a function of the river discharge, the load and 656 the mean particle size of suspended sediments, the colloidal pumping effect, the geochemical 657 and anthropogenic backgrounds of the watershed and the industrial discharges. The application to the case of 137 Cs in the Rhône River highlights the fact that the variability of the 137 Cs K_d is 658 659 essentially explained by the geochemical and anthropogenic backgrounds of the catchment, the 660 industrial discharges and the changes, as a function of the river discharge, of the load and mean size of suspended sediments. This illustrates how much the variability of K_d of suspended 661 662 sediments is not dependent only on chemical processes and must be considered from a larger 663 point of view, that include the hydro-sedimentary processes and the catchment context. This is 664 not very surprising considering that the non-exchangeable fractions of trace metals are poorly 665 reactive to changes in chemical conditions and that, at the temporal and spatial scales of a river, 666 the impact of these changes remains limited compared to the hydro-sedimentary forcing. These 667 results highlight also the strong representativeness of the specific chemical parameters such as 668 the parameters δ and K_{d δ} of the Abril and Fraga Model and lead us to suggest focalizing the 669 geochemical models of K_d on the determination of this kind of parameters or equivalent ones.

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