

1 **Nuclear Weapons Fallout ^{137}Cs in Temperate and Tropical**
2 **Pine Forest Soils, 50 Years Post-Deposition**

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12 **Abstract**

13 Following nuclear releases to the environment, ^{137}Cs (half-life 30 years) is a long-term contaminant
14 of many ecosystems, including forests. We recently sampled soils under pine forests in temperate
15 and tropical climates to test the hypothesis that migration of ^{137}Cs , 50 years after nuclear weapons
16 fallout, is coupled with organic matter (OM) accumulation in these soils. Depth profiles of ^{137}Cs ,
17 naturally-occurring ^{210}Pb and weapons-derived ^{241}Am were measured. After 50 years, migration of
18 ^{137}Cs into the temperate and tropical soils is limited to half-depths of 7-8 cm and 2-3 cm,
19 respectively. At both locations, most ^{137}Cs is associated with OM that accumulated from the early to
20 mid-1960s. Illite, which immobilises radiocaesium, was undetectable by X-ray diffraction in the layer
21 of peak ^{137}Cs accumulation in the temperate forest soil, but apparent in the zone of peak
22 concentration in the tropical soil. The data indicate that long-term (50 year) fate of ^{137}Cs in organic-
23 rich, temperate forest soil is coupled with OM accumulation; fixation of ^{137}Cs by illite is more
24 important in the tropical forest soil where OM is rapidly decomposed. Models of long-term
25 radiocaesium migration in forest soils should explicitly account for the role of OM, especially when
26 considering forests under contrasting climatic regimes.

27 Introduction

28 Caesium-137 is one of the most important radionuclides released to the environment by both
29 reactor accidents and nuclear weapons; it often dominates the doses to humans and other
30 organisms during the medium- and long-term after initial contamination (Smith and Beresford,
31 2005). The strong affinity of clay minerals, especially illite, for caesium means that soils with even a
32 small clay content can be highly efficient in retarding the downwards migration of radiocaesium
33 after deposition to the soil surface (Kirchner et al., 2009). Thus, in undisturbed mineral soils (eg.
34 under pasture) radiocaesium may remain close to the soil surface many years after deposition (Bunzl
35 et al., 1994). In mineral soils with a significant clay content, mixing by ploughing and bioturbation
36 may be the dominant mechanism of radiocaesium migration through the upper soil profile. In
37 organic soils which are deficient in clay minerals it is expected that radiocaesium migration will be
38 faster than in mineral soils, since sorption and retention of caesium on organic matter is
39 considerably lower than fixation by clays (Gil Garcia et al., 2009a). Furthermore, organic matter may
40 actively reduce the efficiency with which clays can sequester radiocaesium (Dumat and Staunton,
41 1999). However, after the Chernobyl accident it was widely observed that radiocaesium that
42 deposited on forest soils remained largely within the surface organic horizons at least up to 10 years
43 after deposition (Ivanov et al., 1997) suggesting a significant potential for the retention of
44 radiocaesium by organic matter in the upper portions of forest soils.

45 Numerous studies have examined radiocaesium migration in different soil types over varying time
46 scales. In undisturbed organic-rich soil in Sweden in 1994-1998, Isaksson et al. (2001) found
47 relaxation depths¹ for ¹³⁷Cs of 0.7 to 1.6 cm, indicating superficial distribution even of weapons
48 fallout ¹³⁷Cs that peaked in the mid-1960s. Almgren and Isaksson (2006) measured median activity
49 concentrations ('half-depths') at 8.9 cm for weapons-derived ¹³⁷Cs and 4.4 cm depth for Chernobyl
50 ¹³⁷Cs in grassland in 2003. These distributions were quantified using a convection-diffusion model
51 which assumes the vertical distribution of radiocaesium is determined purely by physical processes.
52 Schimmack and Marquez (2006) used a convection-diffusion model to analyse radiocaesium
53 migration in a grassland soil during a period of 15 years after the Chernobyl accident. They found
54 that the fitted migration parameters (convective velocity and dispersion coefficient) were so time-
55 dependent that long-term predictions of caesium migration using this type of model were not
56 realistic. In a meta-analysis of 99 soil profiles Jagercikova et al. (2015) concluded that the evolution
57 of depth profiles of ¹³⁷Cs is "a complex result of the variations in soil processes affecting the diffusion
58 and convection transport and resulting in contrasted temporal evolutions".

¹ Defined as the depth at which the surface activity concentration is reduced to 1/e (approximately 37%) assuming an exponentially declining distribution of activity concentration with depth.

59 Interestingly, Jagercikova et al. (2015) omitted from their analysis four soil profiles in which more
60 than 30 % of the ^{137}Cs inventory within the soil was held in organic horizons, presumably because
61 these distributions were not straightforwardly explained by convection-diffusion theory. In highly
62 organic soils, mechanisms other than classical solute transport of radiocaesium, modified by
63 sorption to clays, may operate. Rosen et al. (2009) found median depths of 10.7 and 15 cm for
64 Chernobyl-derived ^{137}Cs in open and pine-covered bog ecosystems in Sweden from 2004 – 2007 in
65 which the clay content was “extremely low or non-existent”. They observed that upwards migration
66 of ^{137}Cs had occurred in the open bog due to uptake and upward transport in *Sphagnum* plants, thus
67 emphasising that biological as well as physical processes can contribute to the observed migration of
68 radiocaesium. Dorr and Munnich (1989) established a link between organic matter and
69 radiocaesium migration in forest soils in southern Germany. They determined that naturally-
70 occurring ‘unsupported’ ^{210}Pb deposited from the atmosphere migrated with an identical velocity as
71 the accumulating organic matter; they also noted that migration rates of both ^{210}Pb and ^{137}Cs were
72 unaffected by the soil mineral texture that, in their study, included sandy, loamy and clayey soils.
73 This implies that, in forest soils with high annual organic matter inputs, the influence of organic
74 matter on ^{210}Pb and ^{137}Cs migration can override the tendency for these radionuclides to be sorbed
75 to mineral components of the soil.

76 The temporal evolution of radiocaesium in an individual soil profile is key to the radiation dose
77 received by organisms (including man) above the surface of the soil and also to its availability for
78 root uptake by vegetation. In the case of forests, the long-term dynamics of contamination of trees
79 and all associated products (edible and non-edible) are thus strongly dependent on the migration of
80 radiocaesium through the soil profile. After major nuclear releases such as the Chernobyl and
81 Fukushima accidents, management of contaminated forests requires accurate forecasting of the long
82 term fate of radiocaesium, as well as careful consideration of remediation options such as removal
83 and processing of contaminated litter from the forest floor (Hashimoto et al., 2012). Modelling of
84 the fate of radiocaesium in Fukushima’s forests has suggested that contamination of the mineral soil
85 beneath the litter layer would peak within one to two years of deposition and that, after 5 to 10
86 years, the mineral soil would hold the major portion of the deposited ^{137}Cs (Hashimoto et al., 2013).
87 If correct, this implies that the window of time available to intervene in the natural cycle of
88 radiocaesium in forests is limited to 2 to 5 years; penetration of ^{137}Cs into the deeper mineral soil will
89 reduce the surface dose, but this material is much more difficult to remove than contaminated
90 surface litter. However, as described above, observations of ^{137}Cs migration in a range of soils
91 suggest a rather slow migration rate, possibly controlled by the accumulation of organic matter.

92 In this study we investigated the downwards migration of ^{137}Cs in soils developed under two pine
93 forests in contrasting climatic zones (temperate and tropical) in which organic matter (OM)
94 accumulation is markedly different. By including ^{210}Pb analysis in our study we aimed to test the
95 hypothesis that the long-term migration of ^{137}Cs is coupled with OM accumulation in these soils. As
96 well as providing contrasting climates and OM dynamics, our two study sites were selected because
97 they received much lower deposition following the Chernobyl and Fukushima accidents than during
98 atmospheric nuclear weapons tests in the 1950s and 1960s. We focussed on the fate of ^{137}Cs from
99 nuclear weapons fallout since this has been present in soils worldwide for more than 50 years and
100 provides the best source of information on the long-term fate of radiocaesium in forest ecosystems.

101 **Methods**

102 *Sampling Sites*

103 Soil samples were collected from two pine forests – one in the British Isles and one in Thailand
104 (geographical coordinates are given in Table 1). The British site (Boundary Plantation) is a plantation
105 of Corsican pine (*Pinus nigra*) in central England, established circa 1960 (estimated standing biomass
106 was 26 kg m⁻², dry mass, at the time of sampling). It occupies a level site on a geological substrate of
107 Sherwood sandstone (Ambrose et al., 2014); annual average temperature from 1961 – 2015 was
108 9.8°C and annual precipitation over this period was 655 mm (Met Office, 2017). The Thai site (Wat
109 Ban Chan) is a plantation of Khasi pine (*Pinus kesiya*) established circa 1925 (estimated standing
110 biomass was 21 kg m⁻², dry mass, at the time of sampling). It is situated close to the border between
111 Mae Hong Son and Chiang Mai provinces and occupies a slightly sloping site on a geological
112 substrate of granite and granodiorite (Department of Mineral Resources, Thailand). The annual
113 average temperatures for Mae Hong Son and Chiang Mai provinces, respectively, were 25.2°C and
114 25.4°C from 1961 – 1990 and annual precipitation was 1261 mm and 1185 mm over the same period
115 (World Meteorological Office, 2017).

116 *Soil Sampling and Treatment*

117 The soil at Boundary Plantation was sampled on four occasions from June 2014 to March 2015. Six
118 randomly located points were sampled on each occasion, giving a total of 24 soil cores across an
119 area of approximately 25 hectares of forest. Wat Ban Chan was visited in February 2016 when six
120 randomly located points were sampled across an area of approximately 1 hectare of forest.

121 At each site, soil samples were taken as cylindrical cores (6.2 cm diameter and 20 cm depth at
122 Boundary Plantation; 6.8 cm and 15 cm depth at Wat Ban Chan). The cores were extruded and cut
123 into 1 cm layers with respect to soil depth from the forest floor; this was the minimum thickness
124 which would provide sufficient sample mass for analyses. After a short period of storage at 4°C, field
125 moist samples were used to determine soil pH (in deionized water) and water content. Sub-samples
126 of each layer were oven dried overnight at 105°C then ground sufficiently to pass through a 2 mm
127 soil sieve. Dried samples were used to determine bulk density, carbon content, stable element
128 concentrations and radionuclide activity concentrations. Total and organic carbon contents were
129 determined in small sub-samples of soil using an elemental analyser (Flash 2000, Thermo Scientific)
130 and a total organic carbon analyser (TOC-V, Shimadzu). The instruments were calibrated with in-
131 house standards and quality controlled using certified reference materials (chalky soil and peaty soil)
132 obtained from Elemental Microanalysis, Okehampton, UK. NH₄-exchangeable and HNO₃-extractable

133 stable element concentrations were determined by ICP-MS (iCAP-Q ICP-MS, Thermo Fisher
134 Scientific). The instrument was calibrated using Certiprep multi-element standards (Fisher Scientific)
135 in 2% trace analysis grade HNO₃. Internal standards comprised Sc (100 µg L⁻¹), Rh (20 µg L⁻¹) and Ir
136 (10 µg L⁻¹) in 2% trace analysis grade HNO₃; procedural blanks were prepared using appropriately
137 diluted HNO₃ and NH₄NO₃. Details of radionuclide measurements are given below. Three soil layers
138 were selected from the region of each soil profile containing the majority of ¹³⁷Cs (5-6, 7-8 and 9-10
139 cm in Boundary Plantation soil; 1-2, 2-3 and 3-4 cm in Wat Ban Chan soil). Clay-sized (≤2 µm)
140 fractions were separated from these dried and homogenised samples by low speed centrifugation,
141 following the method developed by USGS (Poppe et al., 2001). After separation, the mineralogy of
142 the clay-sized fractions was determined using powder X-ray diffraction (XRD). Diffraction patterns
143 were collected for each sample using a Bruker D8 powder diffractometer operating with
144 monochromated CuKα1 radiation in reflection mode over the 2-θ range 5-50° using a 0.014° 2-θ
145 step over a period of 3h in a flat plate sample holder.

146 *Measurement of Radionuclides*

147 Activity concentrations of ¹³⁷Cs, ²⁴¹Am and ²¹⁰Pb were determined in seven cores from Boundary
148 Plantation; ¹³⁷Cs and ²¹⁰Pb were determined in six cores from Wat Ban Chan (²⁴¹Am, used as a marker
149 for global nuclear weapons fallout, was below detection limit in all samples from Wat Ban Chan).
150 Sub-samples of soil were dried and homogenised, then packed into small (5.4 cm Ø) polystyrene
151 Petri dishes. These were sealed and left to stand for at least three weeks prior to counting to allow
152 ingrowth of ²¹⁴Pb and ²¹⁴Bi daughters in the ²³⁸U decay chain. Samples were counted for 24 hours on
153 a high purity germanium detector (Canberra/Mirion Technologies) shielded from ambient radiation
154 in 10 cm thick, copper-lined lead 'castles'. Data were processed using Genie 2000 gamma
155 acquisition and analysis software (Canberra Industries, 2013). Counting efficiencies for all
156 photopeaks of interest were determined using standards with identical geometries and densities as
157 the soil samples being counted. Standards were prepared using mixed gamma standard R08-01,
158 supplied and certified by the National Physical Laboratory (Teddington, UK) and IAEA Certified
159 Reference Material IAEA-447 ('Radionuclides in Moss Soil'), supplied and certified by the
160 International Atomic Energy Agency (Vienna, Austria). Caesium-137 activity was quantified using the
161 661.7 keV (Ba-137^m) photopeak, ²⁴¹Am was quantified using the 59.5 keV photopeak and total ²¹⁰Pb
162 was quantified using the 46.5 keV photopeak. The activities of radionuclides are presented for the
163 time of sampling (ie. not decay corrected). Supported ²¹⁰Pb was quantified indirectly using the 351.9
164 keV and 609.3 keV photopeaks of ²¹⁴Pb and ²¹⁴Bi, respectively, assuming that the activities of these
165 two radionuclides are equal to the activity of ²¹⁰Pb when the ²²⁶Ra → ²¹⁰Pb decay chain is in
166 equilibrium. The accuracy of this method was checked by comparing the measured activity of ²²⁶Ra

167 with the certified value for IAEA Certified Reference Material IAEA-447. Unsupported (ie.
168 atmospherically-derived) ^{210}Pb ($^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$) was calculated by subtracting supported ^{210}Pb from total
169 ^{210}Pb .

170 *Estimating Ages of Accumulating Organic Matter*

171 Measured vertical $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ distributions in the soil profiles were used to estimate the ages of organic
172 matter at different depths within each soil. The Constant Rate of Supply (CRS) model was used, as
173 described by Appleby (1998). As leaf litter falls onto the forest floor it is subsequently covered and
174 buried by the continuous accumulation of newer litter; the rate of burial is determined by the annual
175 production of new litter and the rate at which the litter decomposes. Application of the CRS model
176 to quantify this burial rate assumes a constant flux of $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ deposition from the atmosphere to the
177 forest floor and that ^{210}Pb binds strongly and irreversibly to soil organic matter on contact with the
178 litter layer. This has been confirmed by numerous studies (eg. Vile et al., 1999) and is confirmed by
179 the very strong relationships between $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ activities and soil organic carbon in both the soils
180 studied (Figure 1). According to the CRS model, the time t (years) since ^{210}Pb was deposited to a
181 specific soil layer is given by:

$$t = \frac{1}{\lambda} \ln \frac{A_{\text{tot}}}{A}$$

182 where λ is the physical decay constant of ^{210}Pb (0.0311 y^{-1}), A_{tot} is the total inventory of $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ in the
183 soil profile (Bq m^{-2}) and A is the inventory of $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ (Bq m^{-2}) below the soil layer being dated. The
184 deposition rate of $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$, I , is calculated from A_{tot} and λ (Appleby, 1998):

$$I = \lambda A_{\text{tot}}$$

185 Deposition rates ranging from $78 - 118 \text{ Bq m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ were calculated for Boundary Plantation,
186 consistent with a mean deposition rate of $113 \text{ Bq m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ measured in UK woodland by Likuku and
187 Branford (2011). No measurements for $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ deposition rates in NW Thailand are available in the
188 literature but, from our measurements, we calculated a range of fluxes from $65 - 97 \text{ Bq m}^{-2} \text{ y}^{-1}$ at
189 Wat Ban Chan.

190 **Results**

191 Vertical distributions of soil organic carbon and bulk density are shown in Figure 2; other selected
192 soil characteristics are summarised in Table 1. The soil at Boundary Plantation is characterised by a
193 well-developed surface organic layer (mor humus) with a strongly acidic pH. Organic carbon (OC)
194 content ranged from 32% at the surface to 2% at 17 cm. Based on the USDA (1999) definition of
195 >20% OC for freely-draining soils, the uppermost 5-6 cm of the Boundary Plantation soil is a 'litter' or
196 O horizon (Figure 2a). In contrast, OC in the upper 3 cm of the Wat Ban Chan soil ranged between 3
197 – 5 % (Figure 2b). The differences in OC contents throughout each of the soils are reflected in the
198 average dry bulk density profiles for each site (Figure 2c). Bulk density at Boundary plantation
199 varied from 146 kg m⁻³ at the surface to 470 kg m⁻³ at the base of the organic layer (5-6 cm). Bulk
200 density in the upper 1 cm layer of the Wat Ban Chan soil was 789 kg m⁻³; this is comparable to the
201 bulk density at a depth of 8 cm in the Boundary Plantation soil. At Wat Ban Chan there was a large
202 increase in bulk density to a maximum value of 1780 kg m⁻³ at 2 cm depth, then a reduction to a
203 mean value of 1460 kg m⁻³ from 3 to 13 cm depth. The ranges of soil pH at both sites did not
204 overlap, with Boundary Plantation having a much lower pH range than Wat Ban Chan (Table 1). The
205 minimum pH at Boundary Plantation (3.69) occurred at 7 cm, where well-humified organic matter
206 was mixed with sand grains, while minimum pH at Wat Ban Chan (5.44) was at 9 – 10 cm depth.

207 The ranges of NH₄-exchangeable and HNO₃-extractable potassium concentrations overlapped at
208 both sites, but maximum potassium concentrations were higher at Boundary Plantation than at Wat
209 Ban Chan. Conversely, the Wat Ban Chan soil had much higher HNO₃-extractable aluminium and
210 iron concentrations than the Boundary Plantation soil.

211 Vertical distributions of ¹³⁷Cs in the soils at Boundary Plantation and Wat Ban Chan are shown in
212 Figures 3 and 4, respectively. At Boundary Plantation, ¹³⁷Cs activity concentration (Bq kg⁻¹) was
213 maximal at 5-6 cm depth (Figure 3a), characterised by moderately humified organic matter and an
214 OC content of 20% (Figure 2a). The peak inventory of ¹³⁷Cs (Bq m⁻² – the product of the ¹³⁷Cs activity
215 concentration and the soil bulk density) was located 2 cm deeper, at 7-8 cm (Figure 3b) where
216 organic matter was more humified and OC was 6.3%. The cumulative inventory of ¹³⁷Cs, measured
217 from the surface downwards, reached 50 % at approximately 7 cm depth (Figure 3c); this represents
218 the 'half-depth' of ¹³⁷Cs migration in the Boundary Plantation soil in 2015.

219 The half-depth of ¹³⁷Cs at Wat Ban Chan was much shallower than at Boundary Plantation.
220 Caesium-137 activity concentration (Bq kg⁻¹) at Wat Ban Chan was maximal at 2 – 3 cm depth (Figure
221 4a); this soil layer contained 3.0 % OC. The peak inventory of ¹³⁷Cs was also located at 2 – 3 cm

222 depth (Figure 4b) and the 'half-depth' of ^{137}Cs migration in the Wat Ban Chan soil in 2016 was 2 cm
223 (Figure 4c).

224 Americium was detectable in some samples at Boundary Plantation but the activity concentrations
225 and inventories of ^{241}Am were much lower than those of ^{137}Cs (Figure 5). Peak activity concentration
226 (Bq kg^{-1} ; Figure 5a) and peak activity inventory (Bq m^{-2} ; Figure 5b) of ^{241}Am were both located at a
227 depth of 7-8 cm. Cumulative percentage distribution of ^{241}Am reached 50 % at 7 cm depth; thus the
228 observed 'half-depths' for ^{241}Am and ^{137}Cs migration in 2015 were the same. Americium-241 was
229 entirely undetectable in the Wat Ban Chan soil samples; nuclear weapons tests produced much less
230 ^{241}Am than ^{137}Cs and global fallout was considerably lower at this latitude.

231 The powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of clay-sized fractions from selected depth samples are
232 shown in Supplementary Material (Figure S1 for Boundary Plantation and Figure S2 for Wat Ban
233 Chan). These data were phase-matched against the International Centre for Diffraction Database
234 (ICDD) to determine the crystalline material present and these pattern numbers are given in
235 parentheses after each phase. Quartz (46-1045), kaolinite (06-221) and illite (26-0911) were
236 identified in the Boundary Plantation samples while gibbsite (33-0018) was found in addition to
237 quartz and the same clay minerals in the Wat Ban Chan samples. The XRD results suggest that the
238 clay-sized fraction at the base of the litter layer (5-6 cm) at Boundary Plantation contained only
239 amorphous, non-crystalline material (probably colloidal organic matter) although very small
240 reflections at 24.85° ($d = 3.58 \text{ \AA}$) and 26.64° ($d = 3.34 \text{ \AA}$) suggest the presence of trace quantities of
241 kaolinite and quartz, respectively, at this depth. At depths of 7-8 cm and 9-10 cm there are strong
242 reflections indicating the presence of both kaolinite (12.32° , $d=7.18\text{\AA}$ and 24.85° , $d=3.58\text{\AA}$) and
243 quartz (20.86° , $d=4.25\text{\AA}$ and 26.64° , $d=3.34\text{\AA}$) in the clay-sized fraction of the soil. The only clear
244 indication of the presence of illite (17.65° , $d= 5.02\text{\AA}$) can be seen at a depth of 9-10 cm, which is
245 below the depths of maximum ^{137}Cs activity concentration (5-6 cm) and activity inventory (7-8 cm),
246 where illite is evidently absent.

247 At Wat Ban Chan (Figure S2) there were strong and consistent reflections for kaolinite (12.32° ,
248 $d=7.18\text{\AA}$; 24.85° , $d=3.58\text{\AA}$; 37.67° , $d=2.39\text{\AA}$ and 45.57° , 1.99\AA) and illite (8.84° , $d=10.00\text{\AA}$; 17.65° ,
249 $d=5.02\text{\AA}$ and 26.67° , $d=3.34\text{\AA}$) in clay-sized fractions from each soil depth analysed. In addition,
250 gibbsite reflections (18.28° , $d=4.85\text{\AA}$ and 20.30° , $d=4.37\text{\AA}$) were clearly evident in each sample,
251 consistent with the high HNO_3 -extractable Al in the Wat Ban Chan soil and indicating the highly
252 weathered nature of this soil.

253 Vertical distributions of (unsupported) $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ activity concentrations (Bg kg^{-1}) in the soils at
254 Boundary Plantation and Wat Ban Chan are shown in Figures 6(a) and 7(a), respectively. At both
255 sites, peak $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ activity concentrations occurred at the soil surface (forest floor) and declined in
256 each successive depth increment, as would be expected for a radionuclide derived from continuous
257 atmospheric deposition. The CRS model (see methods) was used to construct the age-depth
258 relationships for soil organic carbon shown in Figures 6(b) and 7(b) for Boundary Plantation and Wat
259 Ban Chan, respectively. For Boundary Plantation, the age-depth curve indicates that OC in the 7-8
260 cm layer, in which the highest ^{137}Cs activity inventory and 'half-depth' of ^{137}Cs migration were
261 observed (Figure 3), accumulated in 1961, within a range from 1953 – 1969.

262 The $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ activity concentration (Bg kg^{-1}) at Wat Ban Chan decreased approximately exponentially
263 downwards from the soil surface (Figure 7a). The year of accumulation of OC in the 2 – 3 cm layer
264 was estimated to be 1967, within a range from 1965 – 1969 (Figure 9b). This layer contains the
265 highest activity concentration and activity inventory of ^{137}Cs at Wat Ban Chan (Figure 4).

266 Discussion

267 Atmospheric weapons tests peaked in 1962 (UNSCEAR, 2000) and cumulative deposition from these
268 tests in the northern hemisphere peaked around 1966 (Cambray et al., 1989). From interpolated
269 deposition data for ^{137}Cs across the British Isles from 1955 – 1985, the average inventory in 1985 at
270 Boundary Plantation was $2090 \text{ Bq m}^{-2} \text{ }^{137}\text{Cs}$ (Wright, 2016). A survey by Horrill et al. (1988)
271 measured an average deposition inventory from Chernobyl of $830 \text{ Bq m}^{-2} \text{ }^{137}\text{Cs}$ close to Boundary
272 Plantation (Chaplow et al., 2015). The summed weapons fallout and Chernobyl ^{137}Cs would have
273 decayed to 1485 Bq m^{-2} in 2015, which agrees closely with our measured inventory in 2014 – 2015 of
274 1489 Bq m^{-2} .

275 Few data exist on ^{137}Cs deposition to Thailand and these are generally expressed in activity
276 concentrations (Bq kg^{-1}) rather than deposition inventories (Bq m^{-2}). At Wat Ban Chan in 2016 we
277 measured a total soil ^{137}Cs inventory of 200 Bq m^{-2} . According to UNSCEAR (1969) the cumulative
278 deposition up to 1968 of ^{137}Cs between latitudes 10° and 20° N was 790 Bq m^{-2} ; this would have
279 decayed to 260 Bq m^{-2} by 2016. Measurements of radioactive fallout in east Asia after the Chernobyl
280 accident showed mostly undetectable deposition of radiocaesium across the region (Cambray et al.,
281 1987a; 1987b). Finer scale measurements of ^{137}Cs throughout Vietnam showed ‘insignificant’
282 deposition from Chernobyl from 1986 to 1990 (Hien et al., 1994) and ‘latitude mean deposition
283 density’ ranging from 237 Bq m^{-2} south of 16° latitude to 1097 Bq m^{-2} north of 16° (Hien et al.,
284 2002). Contribution of ^{137}Cs from Fukushima was negligible in the region: Long et al. (2012) reported
285 a transient peak air concentration of $37 \mu\text{Bq m}^{-3}$ in Ho Chi Minh City, though no deposition
286 inventories were reported. We conclude that the ^{137}Cs inventory we measured at Wat Ban Chan was
287 derived mainly from atmospheric nuclear weapons testing, with peak deposition in the mid-1960s.

288 Even though both sites supported mature pine trees at similar tree densities, the difference between
289 their respective soil organic carbon (OC) contents was striking (Figure 2a, b). Production and
290 decomposition of tree litter is strongly dependent on latitude (Berg et al., 1999; Zhang et al., 2008)
291 and the relative accumulation of litter and partially-humified organic matter on the forest floor
292 represents a balance between these processes. Litter production is significantly higher in more
293 southerly latitudes, but the rate of decomposition in tropical forests such as Wat Ban Chan is high
294 enough to prevent any appreciable accumulation of non- or partially-humified material on the forest
295 floor. Conversely, significant accumulation of litter and forest floor materials is typical of temperate
296 and boreal forests due to comparatively low rates of decomposition (Berg, 2014). Given the greatly
297 contrasting organic matter accumulation rates at our two study sites, the accumulation of
298 atmospherically-derived radionuclides recorded in the upper regions of the soil at Wat Ban Chan is

299 substantially compressed compared with the Boundary Plantation soil. Hence, the period of time
300 represented by 1 cm depth in the upper part of the Wat Ban Chan soil (Figure 7b) is considerably
301 greater than 1 cm depth in the Boundary Plantation soil's organic layer (Figure 6b).

302 Distributions of atmospherically derived radionuclides such as $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ and ^{241}Am are invaluable
303 diagnostic tools when interpreting ^{137}Cs distributions. In analysing our data we made the
304 assumption that, after deposition, $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ is inextricably bound to the organic matter (OM) it first
305 comes into contact with on the forest floor (ie. litter). There is strong evidence to support this
306 assumption. Vile et al. (1999) conducted experiments which showed that the binding of soluble
307 (Pb^{2+}) and particulate lead to peat is strong and stable under varying moisture content regimes. Dorr
308 and Munnich (1989) demonstrated that the rates of downwards transfer of OM and ^{210}Pb in forest
309 soils are identical, concluding that ^{210}Pb is carried by OM and is thus a good indicator of the
310 movement of the OM. More recently, Teramage et al. (2015) have proposed the use of ^{210}Pb as a
311 reliable tracer for the cycling of OM in forests, based on the strong correlations they observed in
312 ^{210}Pb and OM distributions vertically (in soil profiles) and horizontally in a Japanese cypress
313 (*Cryptomeria japonica*) forest. Our data confirm that $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ and OC are significantly correlated at
314 both of our sampling sites (Figure 1a, b). Am-241 should also be strongly bound to OM since it exists
315 in the 3+ oxidation state and forms strong complexes with the dominant functional groups on OM.
316 Gil-Garcia et al. (2009b) presented a geometric mean solid-liquid K_d value of 2500 L kg^{-1} for ^{241}Am in
317 organic soils, with a maximum value of $110,000 \text{ L kg}^{-1}$. Thus, ^{241}Am should provide a marker for the
318 fate of OM as it is progressively decomposed and transported down the soil profile. However, ^{241}Am
319 in soils is partly derived from direct deposition and partly from in-growth resulting from physical
320 decay of ^{241}Pu , which makes it difficult to determine its exact residence time in specific soil layers.
321 Furthermore, an analysis of literature by Coughtrey et al. (1984) concluded that ^{241}Am is potentially
322 more mobile than Pu in acidic soils, suggesting that it may not be fully retained by solid-phase OM in
323 acid forest soils.

324 Given the deposition history described above, ^{137}Cs derived from nuclear weapons fallout is the most
325 appropriate tracer to study the long-term fate of radiocaesium in natural ecosystems, since it has
326 been present in the environment for at least 50 years. Due to the large differences in vertical
327 gradients of bulk densities in the soils at Boundary Plantation and Wat Ban Chan (Figure 2c) the peak
328 activity inventories (Bq m^{-2}) and half-depths provide the most reliable measures of the vertical
329 migration of ^{137}Cs since deposition. Peak ^{137}Cs inventory and half-depth of ^{137}Cs at Boundary
330 Plantation were both located at 7-8 cm, measured from the surface of the litter layer (ie. the forest
331 floor). This was 2 cm below the 'litter' or O horizon (according to the USDA, 1999, definition – see
332 Figure 2a) but the OC content was still relatively high (6.3 %) at this depth. Some sand grains were

333 visible in these samples and there were small reflections attributable to quartz in the X-ray
334 diffractograms of sub-2 μm material from this depth (Figure S1). Kaolinite reflections were also
335 evident but there was no indication of illite as a component of the clay-sized fraction at this depth.
336 A weak illite reflection at 17.65° was evident at a depth of 9-10 cm, accompanied by much stronger
337 quartz and kaolinite reflections illustrating the increasing mineral content of the soil 2 cm below the
338 depth of peak ^{137}Cs accumulation (4.6 % OC). Co-located with the peak inventory and half-depth of
339 ^{137}Cs were the peak inventory and half-depth of ^{241}Am (Figure 5b, c). The source of ^{241}Am is global
340 nuclear weapons fallout since no ^{241}Am (or plutonium, including ^{241}Pu which decays to ^{241}Am) from
341 Chernobyl was measured at this site; on this basis the depth of peak ^{137}Cs accumulation can be dated
342 to the global weapons fallout era. More precise evidence for the age of this depth of the forest soil
343 is provided by the $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ profile in Figure 6(a) and the accompanying age-depth profile in Figure
344 6(b). This provides a date of 1961 (within a range of 1953 – 1969) for the depth of peak ^{137}Cs
345 accumulation at Boundary Plantation, which is clearly within the global nuclear weapons fallout era.
346 Based on our assumption that $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ is a reliable marker of OM accumulation, this evidence
347 suggests that ^{137}Cs deposited at Boundary Plantation in the 1960s has migrated at the same rate as
348 the OM which accumulated on the forest floor at the time of peak global weapons fallout. It is
349 striking that this migration has not been more pronounced given the absence of illite in the layer of
350 peak ^{137}Cs accumulation; fixation by illite has evidently not been the key mechanism of retention of
351 ^{137}Cs in the soil at this site.

352 In contrast, the soil at Wat Ban Chan showed clear X-ray reflections for illite in the sub-2 μm
353 fractions extracted from the layer of peak ^{137}Cs accumulation and the layers immediately above and
354 below. Peak accumulation and half-depth of ^{137}Cs (2-3 cm) were both much shallower than at
355 Boundary Plantation; this probably reflects the strong retention of ^{137}Cs by illite in the denser, more
356 mineral soil at Wat Ban Chan. As described above, the uppermost 3 cm at the surface of the Wat
357 Ban Chan soil represents a compressed chronology of OC accumulation when compared with
358 Boundary Plantation, which can be seen by comparing Figures 6b and 7b, respectively. No ^{241}Am
359 was detectable at Wat Ban Chan, but an exponential depth profile of $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ (Figure 7a) provided an
360 age-depth relationship (Figure 7b) that firmly dated the peak accumulation of ^{137}Cs to the era of
361 maximum global nuclear weapons fallout (1967, within the range 1965-1969). The precision of this
362 date illustrates the applicability of $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ as a means of dating OC accumulation in forest topsoil and
363 also the strong sorptive capacity for radiocaesium of the topsoil at Wat Ban Chan.

364 Dorr and Munnich (1989) quantified the downwards migration of ^{137}Cs from global weapons fallout
365 in German forest soils in 1987 (correcting for the contribution of ^{137}Cs from Chernobyl) and
366 concluded that ^{137}Cs had migrated slightly faster than solid-phase OM because caesium partitions

367 between solid and liquid phases within the soil. They also concluded that, in forest soils rich in
368 organic matter, “ion exchange (of ^{137}Cs) on mineral soil particles is of minor influence” and that
369 mobilisation of ^{137}Cs in such soils is largely due to soluble OC; this is supported by evidence from
370 Agapkina et al. (1995). Our $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ date of 1961 for the soil layer in which peak ^{137}Cs accumulation
371 was observed at Boundary Plantation generally supports these conclusions: in other words, ^{137}Cs
372 deposited in the mid-1960s has migrated to a layer of solid organic material which accumulated in
373 the early 1960s. Similarly, peak ^{241}Am activity in the same soil layer at Boundary Plantation suggests
374 that this radionuclide has also migrated (to a small extent) with soluble OC rather than being
375 retained entirely by solid-phase OM. It is clear, however, that both ^{137}Cs and ^{241}Am deposited in the
376 mid-1960s have remained predominantly associated with OM that was introduced to the soil as
377 litter fall in the same period.

378 Immobilisation of radiocaesium in soils is known to be controlled primarily by highly specific
379 interaction with 2:1 clay minerals, especially illite. Our observations and conclusions from the Wat
380 Ban Chan site agree with this precept: however, the results from Boundary Plantation are less easily
381 explained. Caesium is known to sorb weakly and non-specifically to organic matter in soils. Gil-
382 Garcia et al. (2009a) proposed a geometric mean solid-liquid K_d value of 270 L kg^{-1} for caesium in
383 organic soils; however, they also proposed a maximum K_d value of 95000 L kg^{-1} that indicates that
384 sorption of caesium can be very strong in some organic soils. Rigol et al. (1998) investigated four
385 soils ranging from 46% to 99% OM and concluded that radiocaesium sorption could be attributed to
386 small quantities of illite in three of them; the exception was a soil with 99 % OM. It is possible that,
387 even though XRD analyses of Boundary Plantation soil showed an absence of illite in the layer of
388 peak ^{137}Cs accumulation, very small (undetectable) quantities of illite may have been present and
389 could have been sufficient to retain the bulk of ^{137}Cs in the layer of OM in which it was originally
390 deposited. This is unlikely, however; powder X-ray diffraction is extremely sensitive for
391 phyllosilicates when carried out in reflection mode because powder diffraction patterns of the clay
392 minerals are prone to preferred orientation effects. The flat plate sample holder facilitates the
393 alignment of the platy crystals with one another and the sample holder in a non-random
394 arrangement. As only polycrystalline materials with individual crystals randomly oriented to the
395 incident beam attain the expected intensity ratios calculated from the crystal structure, this
396 arrangement of ordering of the platy crystals causes reflections originating from the well-ordered
397 and aligned layers to be significantly enhanced compared with those that originate from the
398 ordering between the layers and/or other materials not showing this effect. This means that very
399 small quantities below the detection limit of $\sim 3\%$ can be observed from materials which contain
400 these phases. However, even if such small quantities of illite were present, it has been shown that

401 clays in combination with OM may not experience the lattice collapse which is necessary to fix Cs as
402 strongly as in mineral soils (Hird et al., 1996). Kruyts and Delvaux (2002) have described how
403 accumulating OM in forest soils acts to 'dilute' the specific sorption of radiocaesium by frayed edge
404 sites on micaceous clay minerals.

405 Some authors have suggested that there is a significant biological role in the retention of ^{137}Cs in
406 organic soils (Sanchez et al., 2000). Tegen et al. (1991) observed that migration of caesium in forest
407 soil columns was altered by increasing the incubation temperature which resulted in an increase in
408 microbial decomposition rate. Rafferty et al. (2000) observed that, 10 years after Chernobyl,
409 downwards physical migration of ^{137}Cs in pine forest soils was 'countered' by uptake and
410 translocation in plant roots and fungal mycelia. This seems to be a longer-term characteristic of
411 radiocaesium behaviour; one year after the Fukushima accident Koarashi et al. (2012) found no
412 evidence that the extractability of ^{137}Cs in forest soils was affected by chloroform fumigation which
413 would have released any biologically-held radiocaesium. The same lead author, however, found that
414 ^{137}Cs from the Fukushima accident was retained in the surface organic layer of a Japanese Cypress
415 (*Cryptomeria japonica*) forest much more effectively than in the organic layer in a deciduous forest
416 soil (Koarashi et al., 2016). Prior to the Fukushima accident, Takenaka et al. (1998) found strong
417 correlations between OM and weapons fallout ^{137}Cs in forest soils under hinoki (*Chamaecyparis*
418 *obtusa*) and red pine (*Pinus densiflora*). Koarashi et al. (2016) concluded that the forest type plays
419 an important role in controlling the downwards migration of ^{137}Cs through the soil. Since different
420 forest types are characterised by different soil OM dynamics it is probable that this is the key
421 variable that results in the observed differences in ^{137}Cs behaviour between different forest soils.

422 **Conclusions**

423 Our results provide evidence that, even under strikingly different climatic regimes, the long-term (50
424 year) downwards migration of ^{137}Cs in coniferous (pine) forest soil is limited to a few cm and linked
425 to OM accumulation and migration. Migration was particularly limited in a tropical pine forest soil
426 (Wat Ban Chan, Thailand) in which fixation by illite is the most likely retention mechanism, though a
427 high bulk density may also have helped to limit vertical migration of ^{137}Cs here. Even at this site, the
428 majority of ^{137}Cs remains associated with the OM present when it was deposited; $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ associated
429 with OM allows the precise dating of the ^{137}Cs here to the global nuclear weapons fallout era. In the
430 more highly organic soil underlying the temperate pine forest (Boundary Plantation, UK) some
431 limited vertical movement of weapons fallout ^{137}Cs has occurred, but the layer of peak ^{137}Cs
432 accumulation is still relatively shallow (7-8 cm) and clearly co-located with OM originating at the
433 time of global weapons testing. The absence of measurable illite in this layer suggests that retention

434 is due to the effects of non-specific sorption to OM, possibly coupled with biological uptake and
435 recycling. Furthermore, while the penetration of the temperate pine forest soil profile by ¹³⁷Cs to a
436 depth of 7-8 cm can be interpreted as downwards 'transport' following deposition, it is in large part
437 due to the accumulation of organic matter above the deposited radiocaesium. The lack of significant
438 migration over a 50 year period at both sites has important consequences for long-term forest
439 management and radiation doses to humans and other organisms in forests. Models of long-term
440 radiocaesium migration in forest soils should explicitly account for the role of OM in this process,
441 especially when considering forests under contrasting climatic regimes.

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450 **Author Contributions**

451 TI and GS carried out all field work and TI carried out laboratory work, including radiometric analysis.
452 SD carried out XRD analysis and interpretation and NC contributed to interpretation of Pb-210 ages.
453 GS and TI wrote the main text and all authors reviewed the manuscript.

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457 **Competing Financial Interests Statement**

458 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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Table 1: Soil properties at the two study sites (to 3 significant figures).

Sampling Site	Location (decimal degrees)	pH	Total (acid- extractable) potassium (mg kg ⁻¹ DW)	Exchangeable potassium (mg kg ⁻¹ DW)	Acid- extractable Al (mg kg ⁻¹ DW)	Acid- extractable Fe (mg kg ⁻¹ DW)
Boundary Plantation	53.2135° N 1.0999° W	3.69 – 4.12	234 – 793	33.0 - 536	896 - 1820	1840 - 6290
Wat Ban Chan	19.0650° N 98.3155° E	5.44 – 6.22	214 - 389	90.4 - 331	16400 - 27500	11700 - 16100

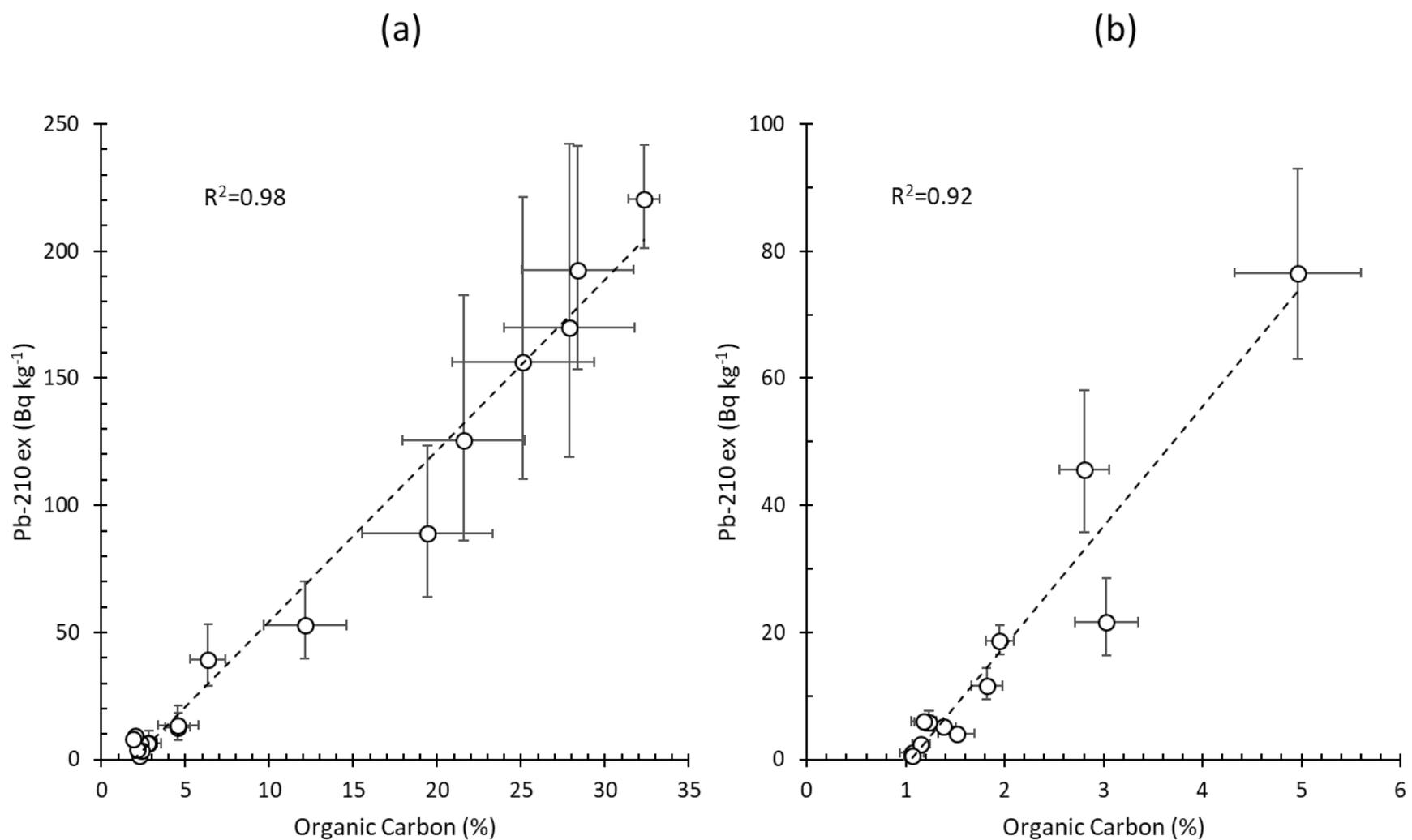
Figure[Click here to download Figure: Figure 1.docx](#)

Figure 1: Relationships between organic carbon (% by weight) and $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ activity concentrations (Bq/kg) in (a) Boundary Plantation and (b) Wat Ban Chan. Points are means, vertical and horizontal bars are SEM (n=7 for Boundary Plantation, n= 6 for Wat Ban Chan).

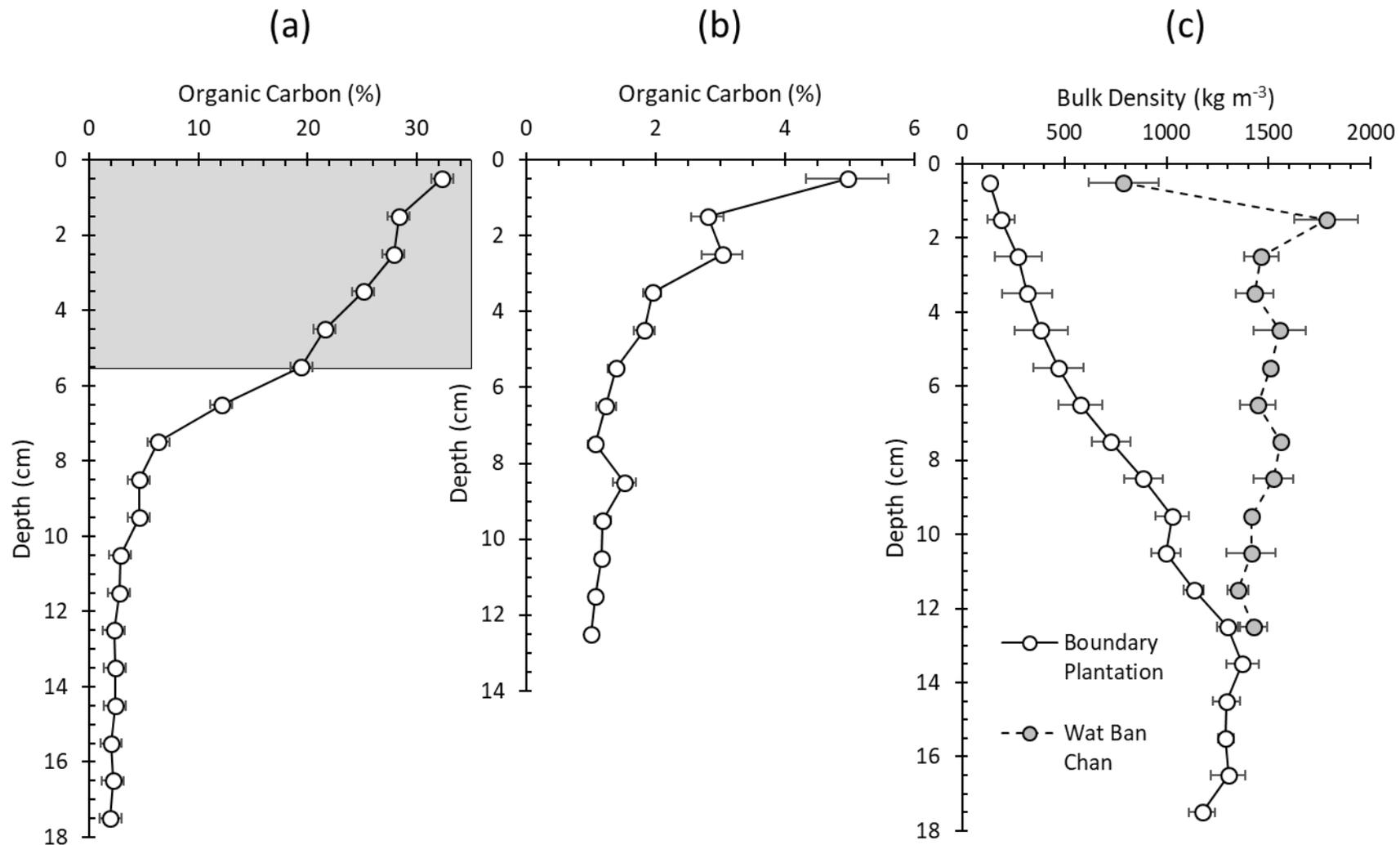
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Figure 2: Depth profiles of organic carbon (% by weight) at (a) Boundary Plantation and (b) Wat Ban Chan. (c) shows depth profiles of bulk densities for both sites. Points are means; horizontal bars are SEM based on inter-sample variation (n=24 for BP, n=6 for WBC). The grey shaded area in (a) represents the litter or O horizon, based on the USDA definition of >20% organic carbon (USDA, 1999). Each point represents the mid-point of a 1 cm soil layer.

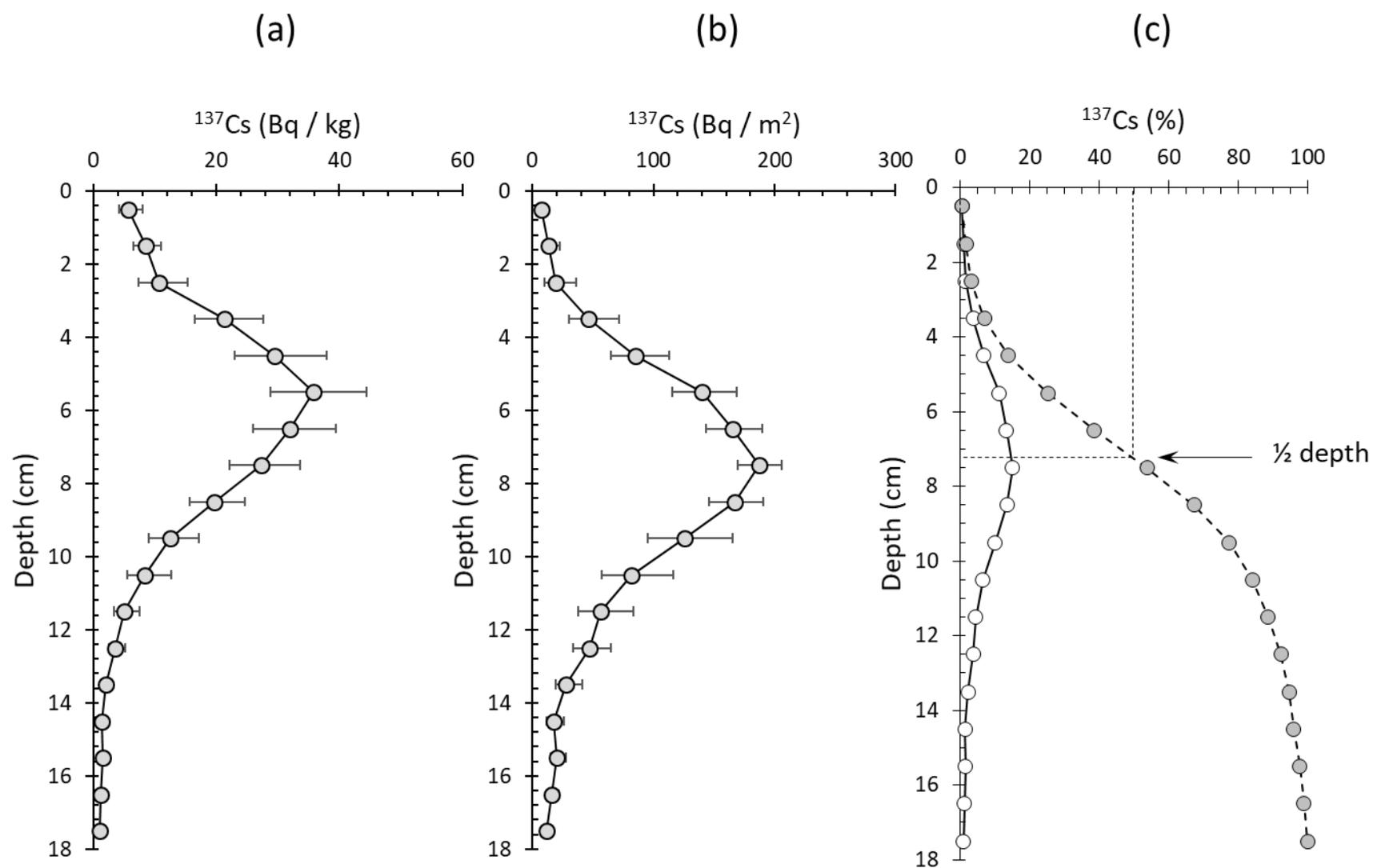
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Figure 3: Depth profiles of (a) activity concentration (Bq kg^{-1}), (b) activity inventory (Bq m^{-2}) and (c) percentage and cumulative percentage inventory for ^{137}Cs at Boundary Plantation in 2014/15. Points are geometric means; horizontal bars in (a) and (b) are SEM based on inter-sample variation (n=7). Each point represents the mid-point of a 1 cm soil layer.

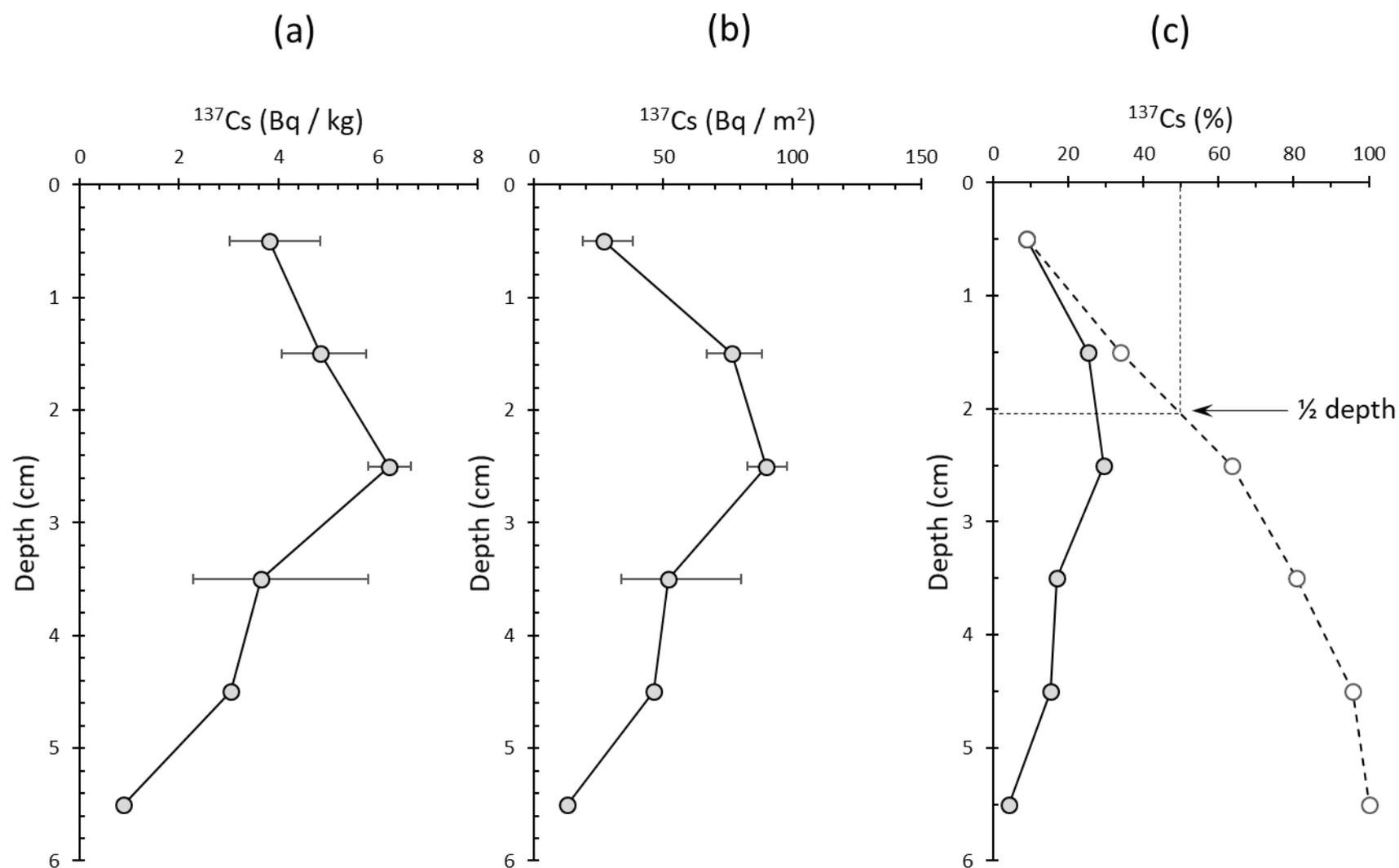
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Figure 4: Depth profiles of (a) activity concentration (Bq kg^{-1}), (b) activity inventory (Bq m^{-2}) and (c) percentage and cumulative percentage inventory for ^{137}Cs at Wat Ban Chan in 2016. Points are geometric means; horizontal bars in (a) and (b) are SEM based on inter-sample variation ($n=6$). Each point represents the mid-point of a 1 cm soil layer.

Figure

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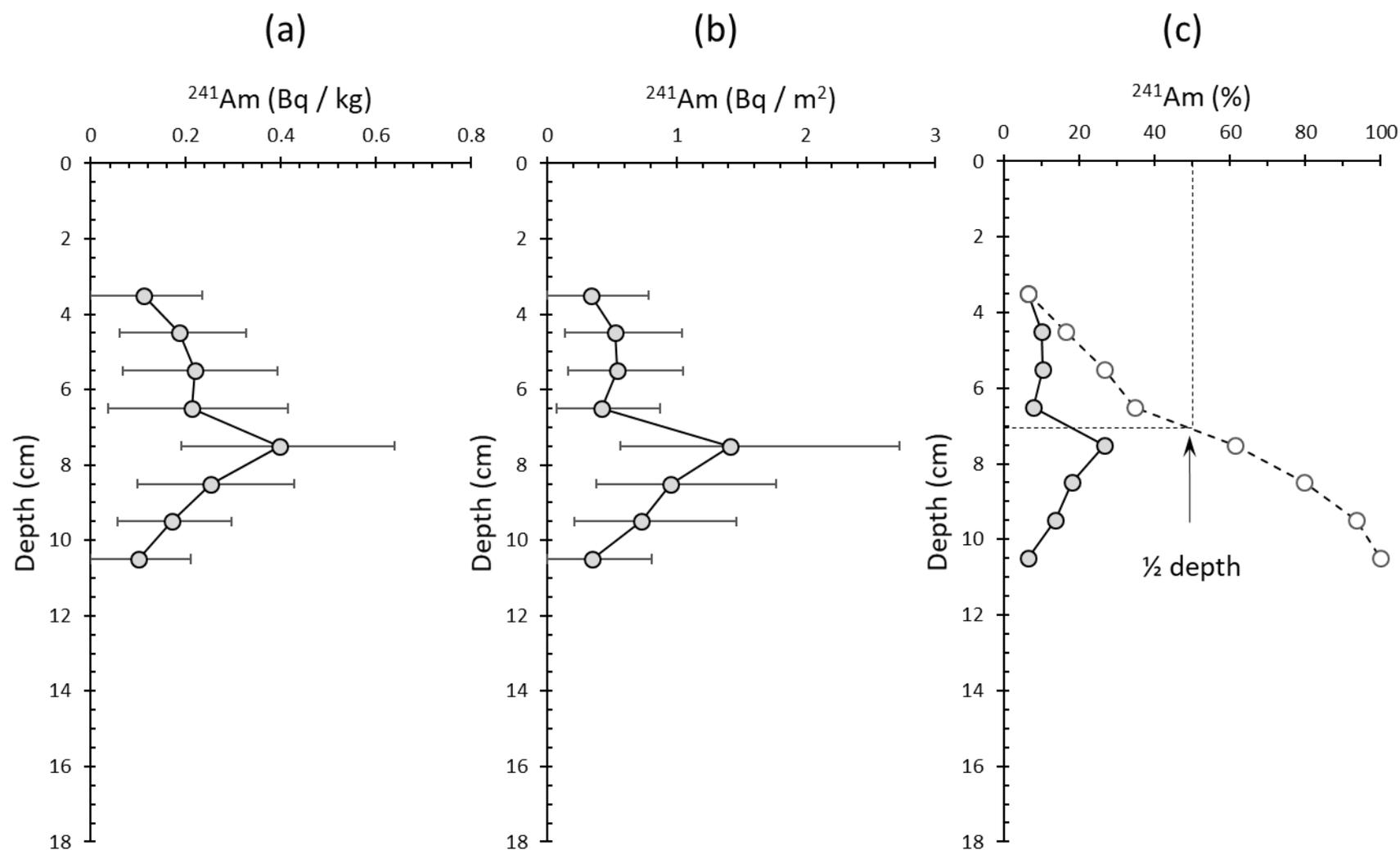


Figure 5: Depth profiles of (a) activity concentration (Bq kg^{-1}), (b) activity inventory (Bq m^{-2}) and (c) percentage and cumulative percentage inventory for ^{241}Am at Boundary Plantation in 2014/15. Points are geometric means; horizontal bars in (a) and (b) are SEM based on inter-sample variation ($n=7$). Each point represents the mid-point of a 1 cm soil layer.

Figure

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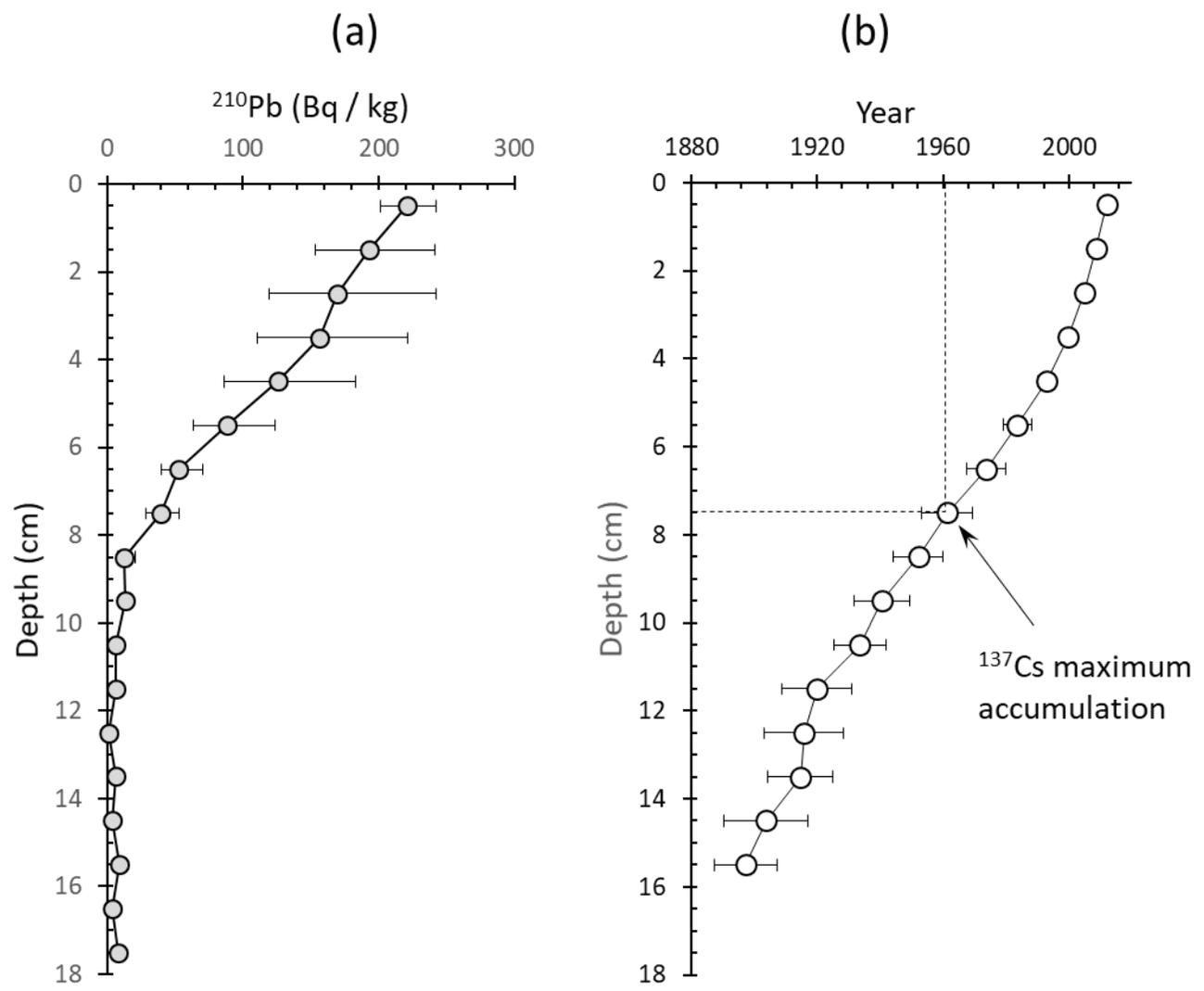


Figure 6: (a) Depth profile of $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ activity concentrations at Boundary Plantation and (b) estimates of the year versus soil depth based on the $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ activity concentrations. Points are geometric means; horizontal bars are SEM based on inter-sample variation (n=7). Each point represents the mid-point of a 1 cm soil layer.

Figure

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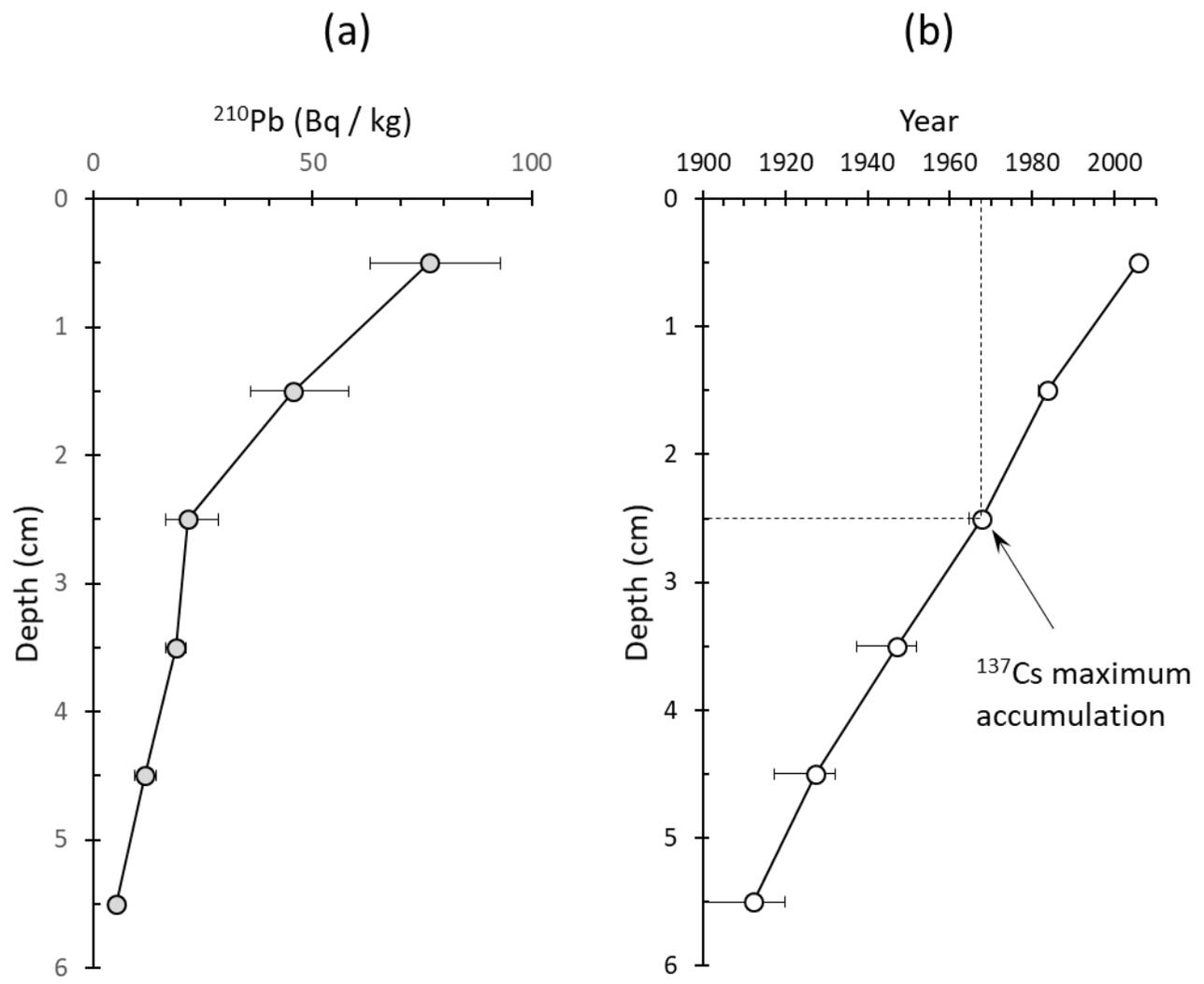


Figure 7: (a) Depth profile of $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ activity concentrations at Wat Ban Chan and (b) estimates of the year versus soil depth based on the $^{210}\text{Pb}_{\text{ex}}$ activity concentrations. Points are geometric means; horizontal bars are SEM based on inter-sample variation ($n=6$). Each point represents the mid-point of a 1 cm soil layer.

Supplementary material for on-line publication only

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