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2 A comparative study of riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  dynamics during high-flow events at three  
3 contaminated river catchments in Fukushima.  
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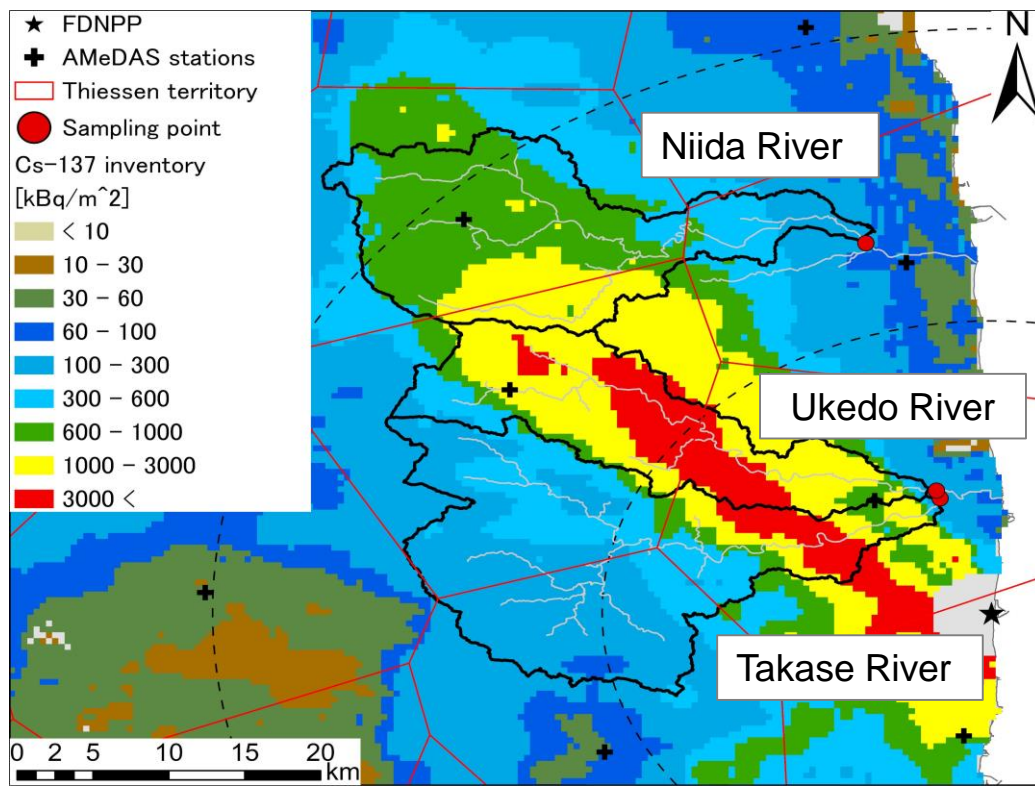
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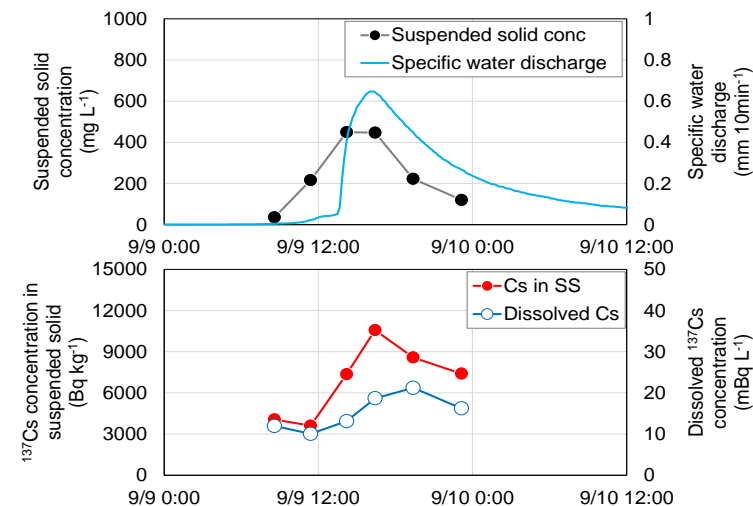
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# Riverine $^{137}\text{Cs}$ dynamics during high-flow events

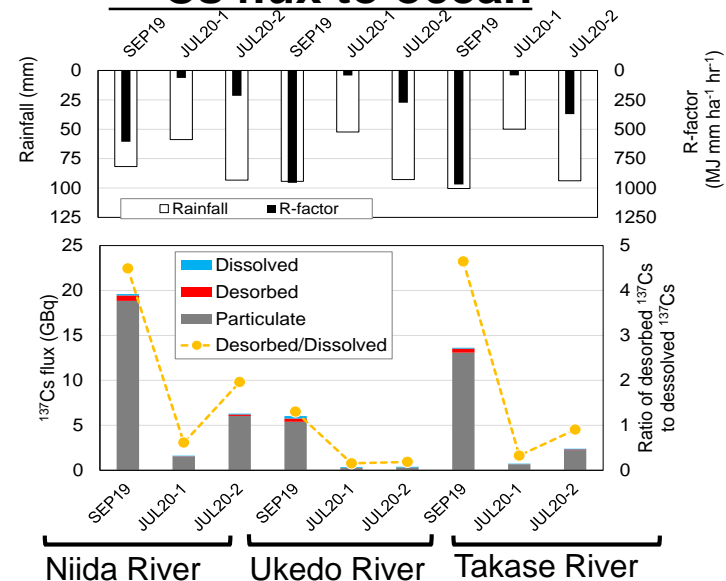
## Three events on three river catchments



## Variation in $^{137}\text{Cs}$ concentrations



## $^{137}\text{Cs}$ flux to ocean



## **Highlights**

Riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  was measured in three rivers during three high-flow events

Riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations reflect the spatial pattern of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in catchments

Catchments with greater forest cover export less particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$

$^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorbed from suspended solids exceeds dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux in erosive events

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## 1 **Abstract**

2 This study presents the temporal variations in riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations and fluxes to  
3 the ocean during high-flow events in three coastal river catchments contaminated by the  
4 Fukushima Daiichi Nuclear Power Plant accident. River water samples were collected at  
5 points downstream in the Niida, Ukedo, and Takase Rivers during three high-flow events  
6 that occurred in 2019–2020. Variations in both the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration and  
7  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in suspended solids appeared to reflect the spatial pattern of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
8 inventory in the catchments, rather than variations in physico-chemical properties.  
9 Negative relationships between the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in suspended sediment  
10 were found in all rivers during the intense rainfall events, suggesting an increased  
11 contribution of sediment from forested areas to the elevated  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration. The  
12  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux ranged from 0.33 to 18 GBq, depending on the rainfall erosivity. The particulate  
13  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fluxes from the Ukedo River were relatively low compared with the other two rivers  
14 and were attributed to the effect of the Ogaki Dam reservoir upstream. The ratio of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
15 desorbed in seawater to  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in suspended solids ranged from 2.8% to 6.6% and tended  
16 to be higher with a higher fraction of exchangeable  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ . The estimated potential release  
17 of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  from suspended solids to the ocean was 0.048–0.57 GBq, or 0.8–6.2 times higher  
18 than the direct flux of dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  from the river. Episodic sampling during high-flow  
19 events demonstrated that the particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux depends on catchment characteristics  
20 and controls  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  transfer to the ocean.

21 **Keywords:**  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ ,  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , desorption, land use, suspended solid

22

23 **1. Introduction**

24 The large amount of rainfall and steep topography in Fukushima, compared with other  
25 areas contaminated by nuclear disasters, results in frequent high-flow events that  
26 redistribute  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in the terrestrial environment (e.g., Evrard et al., 2015; Konoplev et al.,  
27 2016; 2018). During high-flow events triggered by huge rainstorms, most of this  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  is  
28 exported in particulate form (Yamashiki et al., 2014; Hayashi et al., 2016; Nakanishi et  
29 al., 2021). Yamashiki et al. (2014) show that 61% of the annual  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  wash-off in the  
30 Abukuma River basin between August 2011 and May 2012 occurred during a single  
31 rainstorm. Hayashi et al. (2016) estimated the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  wash-off in the Uda River basin  
32 during a rainstorm in 2015 as 0.30% of the total  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory in the entire basin, which  
33 exceeded the annual  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  wash-off in 2014. Efforts have been made to reproduce the  
34  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  wash-off during high-flow events at various spatiotemporal scales using numerical  
35 simulations (e.g., Kinouchi et al., 2015; Sakuma et al., 2017, 2019). Much effort has been  
36 made to quantify the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  redistribution in terrestrial areas.

37 Riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  dynamics during high-flow events are important for riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
38 dispersion to ocean environments. Studies have attempted to reproduce the long-term  
39 riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  discharge to the ocean (Tsumune et al. 2020) and event-based dispersion  
40 of particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in coastal areas (Kamidaira et al. 2021). These simulations evaluated  
41 the dissolved and particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  discharges separately. However, recent studies of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
42 in coastal seawater indicated that particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  exported via rivers during a huge  
43 rainstorm increased the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in seawater, which was attributed  
44 to  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorption resulting from ion exchange between suspended solids (SS) and

45 seawater (Takata et al., 2020, 2021). Takata et al. (2020) reported that the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
46 concentration in nearshore seawater increased immediately after Typhoon Hagibis in  
47 2019, and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorbed from SS accounted for approximately 30% of the dissolved  
48  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ . Understanding riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  dynamics may improve the predictability of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
49 dispersion in oceanic environments.

50         Studies of the temporal variation in the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in rivers  
51 under high-flow conditions have important implications for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  dynamics (e.g., Ueda et  
52 al., 2013; Shinomiya et al., 2014; Hashimoto et al., 2015; Murakami et al., 2016; Tsuji et  
53 al., 2016; Iwagami et al., 2017). A high dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration during rainstorms  
54 was observed in forested catchments and was attributed to  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  leaching from organic  
55 matter in the forest litter layer (e.g., Tsuji et al., 2016; Iwagami et al., 2017). However,  
56 those studies evaluated relatively small river catchments located in forested headwater  
57 catchments. Wakiyama et al. (in press) assessed the minimum dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
58 concentration at peak water discharge during two high-flow events midstream of the  
59 Abukuma River. Because of the dependencies of hydrological processes and sediment  
60 dynamics in river basins in Japan (e.g., Asano et al. 2018a, 2018b), it would be worth  
61 testing the applicability of the findings for small river catchments to large river  
62 catchments quantitatively.

63         Compared with dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ , factors controlling particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  have not been  
64 fully discussed. It is often stated that the particle size distribution controls the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
65 concentration in SS (He and Walling, 1996, Yoshimura et al. 2015a). However, several  
66 observations during high-flow events did not necessarily reveal proportionality between

67 the particle size distribution and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS (Hashimoto et al., 2015;  
68 Wakiyama et al., in press). Although the organic matter content is another potential cause  
69 of the variation in  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration (Naulier et al., 2017), there is no field evidence for  
70 the effect of organic matter in high-flow events. As majority of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  transported in  
71 particulate form, variations in  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS and its controlling factors should  
72 be high on agenda.

73         The land use of catchments might be important for determining riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
74 dynamics. Plot-scale observations found differences in  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  wash-off with different land  
75 use (e.g., Yoshimura et al., 2015b; Wakiyama et al., 2019). Wakiyama et al. (2019) found  
76 that the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in eroded sediment was three times higher from a forested  
77 area than from farmland. Based on observations of 29 river catchments in the Fukushima  
78 area, Taniguchi et al. (2019) observed an increased particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux from river  
79 catchments with predominant farmland, paddy fields, and urban areas. The change in the  
80 contribution of each land use component during high-flow events should cause variation  
81 in the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS. Several authors used carbon and nitrogen stable isotopes  
82 to estimate the contributions of sediment sources to riverbed (Lacey et al., 2016a) and  
83 reservoir bottom (Huon et al., 2018) sediment. The use of these stable isotopes may help  
84 the interpretation of riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  dynamics. Regarding the impact on oceanic  
85 environments, the contributions from different land uses may also influence the  
86 magnitude of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorption, which depends on the properties of SS (Takata et al., 2015).

87         From the above discussion, episodic sampling campaigns at downstream points in  
88 river catchments and comparative analyses may enable the discussion of riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$

89 dynamics and their influence on ocean environments. This study presents the results of a  
90 sampling campaign at downstream points in three radiologically contaminated  
91 catchments during three different high-flow events. Based on the temporal variation in  
92 the particulate and dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations in the river water and the magnitude of  
93 the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fluxes from the catchments, we discuss the factors controlling riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
94 concentrations by testing their correlations with the physico-chemical properties of water  
95 and SS and by investigating their relationship with stable nitrogen and carbon isotopes.  
96 Furthermore, we evaluated the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux, including the desorption of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  from  
97 suspended sediment in the ocean, by coupling hydrological datasets and laboratory  
98 experiments.

99

## 100 **2. Materials and Method**

### 101 **2.1. Study site**

102 The study sites were the Niida, Ukedo, and Takase River basins in the Hamadori  
103 area, Fukushima Prefecture; the sampling points in the three rivers were in Haramachi,  
104 Kiyobashi, and Takase districts, respectively (Figure 1). These river basins were highly  
105 contaminated by the Fukushima Daiichi Nuclear Power plant accident. Table S1 shows  
106 the characteristics of each river catchment. The areas of the Niida, Ukedo, and Takase  
107 River catchments were 206, 143, and 262 km<sup>2</sup>, respectively. The respective mean  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
108 inventories based on the fourth airborne survey in the Niida, Ukedo, and Takase River  
109 catchments were 853, 2359, and 701 kBq m<sup>-2</sup>. The forest covers in the respective  
110 catchments were 67.9%, 79.7%, and 83.3%. The upper Niida River catchment was subject



111 to decontamination during mainly in 2014–2016. The Ogaki Dam reservoir, midstream  
112 of the Ukedo River, has a catchment area of 110 km<sup>2</sup> and mean <sup>137</sup>Cs inventory of 2360  
113 kBq m<sup>-2</sup> (Funaki et al., 2020). The spatial land use patterns in the three river catchments  
114 are similar. The downstream portions are in coastal areas and dominated by residences  
115 and agricultural land. The upstream portions in the Abukuma Highlands have dispersed  
116 agricultural land. The midstream portions between the highlands and coastal plain are  
117 dominated by forested areas on steep slopes (Figure S1).

118

## 119 **2.2. River water sampling**

120 River water was sampled at the three sites during three high-flow events on 9–10  
121 September 2019 (SEP19), 14–21 July 2020 (JUL20-1), and 28–29 July 2020 (JUL20-2).  
122 SEP19 was triggered by Typhoon Faxai, JUL20-1 by prolonged rainfall during the East  
123 Asian rainy season, and JUL20-2 by intensive rainfall at the end of the East Asian rainy  
124 season. The R-factor in the Revised Universal Soil Loss Equation was calculated using  
125 the Rainfall Intensity Summarization Tool (United States Department of Agriculture,  
126 2013) following Laceby et al. (2016b). Table 1 shows the catchment mean rainfall and  
127 R-factor based on the Thiessen territory created by the locations of Japan Meteorological  
128 Agency weather stations. Although the mean catchment rainfall amount was similar in  
129 SEP19 and JUL20-2, the SEP19 event R-factor was about three times higher than that of  
130 JUL20-2. Water height (m) at 10-minute intervals was downloaded from the Fukushima  
131 Prefecture website (<http://kaseninf.pref.fukushima.jp/gis/>) and converted into water

132 discharge,  $Q$  ( $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ ), based on a water height and water discharge curve ( $H$ - $Q$  curve).

133 The  $Q$  was converted to specific water discharge, SWD ( $\text{mm } 10 \text{ min}^{-1}$ ).

134 In these events, 30–40 L river water was collected using a 10-L polyethylene  
135 bucket from bridges close to the hydrological observation points. Six to eight river water  
136 samples were collected per event per site (Figure 2). The sample ID and sampling time  
137 were found in Tables S2 and S3.

138

### 139 **2.3. Sample processing and analyses**

140 The sampled water was placed in a 50 L barrel and left for 1–2 days to allow most  
141 of the SS to settle to the bottom of the barrel. Then, the supernatant was filtered using a  
142 0.45- $\mu\text{m}$ -mesh membrane filter, and the captured solids were transferred to an  
143 evaporation dish. The SS on the filter and barrel bottom was combined in the evaporation  
144 dish. The integrated SS sample was dried at  $50^\circ\text{C}$  and then homogenized and  
145 disaggregated carefully in a mortar so as not to destroy the sediment particles. The SS  
146 concentration, SSC ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ ), was calculated by dividing the SS weight by the volume of  
147 sampled water. Filtered water was passed through an ANFEZH column, an absorbent  
148 consisting of Prussian blue absorbent, to immobilize the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ , as described  
149 previously (Konoplev et al., 2021).

150 The integrated SS were measured to obtain the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS,  $C_{\text{SS}}$  ( $\text{Bq}$   
151  $\text{kg}^{-1}$ ). The  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in the ANFEZH was measured to obtain the dissolved  
152  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration,  $C_{\text{dis}}$  ( $\text{mBq L}^{-1}$ ). All  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration measurements were  
153 performed using standard electrode coaxial Ge detectors (GC4020, Canberra, USA) with

154 a relative efficiency of 42.6% at the Institute of Environmental Radioactivity, Fukushima  
155 University. Measurements had a minimum statistical error of < 5% for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in SS and <  
156 10% for dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ . An apparent distribution coefficient,  $K_d$  ( $\text{L kg}^{-1}$ ) was calculated  
157 by dividing the  $C_{\text{SS}}$  by the  $C_{\text{dis}}$ .

158 The particulate and dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fluxes (Bq) were estimated based on the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
159 concentrations and hydrological data. Each event was separated into 6 or 8 time spans,  
160 depending on the number of samples in the event. The particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux was obtained  
161 by multiplying SS discharge, a product of total water discharge and SSC, in each time  
162 span by the corresponding  $C_{\text{SS}}$ . Similarly, the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux was obtained by  
163 multiplying the water discharge in each time span by the corresponding  $C_{\text{dis}}$ . Due to  
164 difference in sampling interval among the events, we compared the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fluxes in 48  
165 hours before and after time of water peak discharge, i.e., 24 hours before the peak and 24  
166 hours after the peak.

167 The SS samples were further analyzed to determine the carbon contents and  
168 particle size distribution. The total carbon content in SS was measured using the TOC-L  
169 CSH (Shimadzu, Japan). The particle size distribution was also measured using the  
170 Mastersizer 3000 (Malvern Panalytical, UK). The particles ranging from 0.05 to 3 mm  
171 were scanned and classified into 51 categories. The volumetric ratio of the scanned range  
172 was converted into a specific surface area, SSA ( $\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$ ) by assuming spherical sediment  
173 particles. Portions of the filtrates were used to measure the concentrations of major  
174 cations ( $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ) by ion chromatography (DIONEX 1100, Thermo Fisher  
175 Scientific, USA).

176 To evaluate the contributions of sediment sources, the stable isotope of carbon and  
177 nitrogen, i.e.,  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  (‰), in SS were measured. The SS samples were packed in  
178 tin foil and then placed in a desiccator with concentrated HCl to remove the carbonates.  
179 FLASH2000–ConFlo IV–DELTA V ADVANTAGE (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was  
180 used for the analyses. Reference standards of L-alanine, L-proline, and L-tyrosine  
181 provided by the Japan Chemical Analysis Center were measured to calibrate the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  
182  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in SS samples.

183

#### 184 **2.4. Desorption and speciation of $^{137}\text{Cs}$**

185 Five SS samples collected peak water discharge (ND-SEP19-3, ND-JUL20-2-3, UD-  
186 SEP19-3, TS-SEP19-3, and TS JUL20-2-4), were selected because the amounts of these  
187 SS were sufficient for both the desorption experiments and subsequent sequential  
188 extraction. Seawater filtered through a 0.45- $\mu\text{m}$  membrane filter was used for the  
189 extraction experiments; the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in the seawater was 2.7 mBq/L.  
190 The desorption experiment was performed following the methods of Takata et al. (2015,  
191 2021). Briefly, the SS samples were placed in 18 L containers with seawater to achieve a  
192 solid-to-liquid ratio of 1 g to 5 L in an 18-L container and shaken for 30 minutes or 1 day.  
193 Then, the SS samples were separated by filtration through a 0.45- $\mu\text{m}$  pore size membrane  
194 filter. The  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in the seawater after shaking was co-precipitated with ammonium  
195 molybdophosphate (AMP) to quantify the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration. The desorption  
196 ratio was calculated by dividing the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in the seawater by the  
197  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS.

198 To evaluate the mobility of SS-borne  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ , its speciation, i.e., the composition of  
199  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in the exchangeable, organic-bound, and particle-bound fractions, was evaluated in  
200 sequential SS extraction experiments performed following the procedure of Tsukada and  
201 Ohse (2016). Briefly,  $1 \text{ mol L}^{-1} \text{ CH}_3\text{COONH}_4$  was used to extract the exchangeable  
202 fraction, and 30%  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  with  $\text{HNO}_3$  was used to extract the organic fraction. Each leached  
203 solution was transferred to a plastic container, and the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration was measured  
204 using Ge gamma-ray spectrometry. The remaining fraction was assumed to be strongly  
205 bound to sediment particles, i.e., the particle-bound fraction.

206

### 207 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 208 **3.1. Temporal variation in the riverine $^{137}\text{Cs}$ concentrations**

209 Figure 3 shows the temporal variations in the  $C_{\text{S}_{\text{SS}}}$ , the  $C_{\text{S}_{\text{dis}}}$ , and SSC. Table 3 lists  
210 all data of the  $C_{\text{S}_{\text{SS}}}$ , the  $C_{\text{S}_{\text{dis}}}$ , and SSC. In the Niida River, the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS  
211 peaked during the peak discharge phase in SEP19, whereas increasing trends were found  
212 throughout JUL20-1 and JUL20-2. There was no common trend for the  $C_{\text{S}_{\text{dis}}}$ , which  
213 tended to be synchronized with the specific water discharge in SEP19 but was relatively  
214 stable during JUL20-1 and JUL20-2. The stable concentrations during these two events  
215 in 2020 might reflect the impact of Typhoon Hagibis in 2019. The Ukedo River had low  
216 SSCs throughout the three events, compared with the other two rivers. This low SSC  
217 might be influenced by the Ogaki Dam upstream. Its  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS peaked  
218 after a few hours of peak flow in SEP19, while the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in SS did not show much  
219 variation in JUL20-1 and JUL20-2. The  $C_{\text{S}_{\text{dis}}}$  tended to increase with the specific water

220 discharge in SEP19. The Takase River had the highest  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS before  
221 the peak water discharge in SEP19 and JUL20-2. The  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS obviously  
222 decreased during the peak discharge phase. The  $C_{\text{Sdis}}$  tended to decrease with time during  
223 all three events. However, the temporal patterns in the riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations  
224 differed according to the event, even within the same river catchment.

225 To evaluate the response of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations to sediment and water  
226 discharge, we plotted the normalized  $C_{\text{Sdis}}$  and normalized  $C_{\text{Sss}}$  against the logarithms of  
227 the specific discharge and SSC, following the analyses by Tsuji et al. (2016) (Figure 4).  
228 The Niida River showed significant positive correlations on all four relationships  
229 ( $p < 0.05$ ). The Ukedo River had a significant positive correlation between SSC and the  
230  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS. The Takase River had negative correlations of the  $C_{\text{Sdis}}$  with  
231 both the SWD and SSC but positive correlations of the  $K_d$  with both the SWD and SSC.

232 These results differed from those of Tsuji et al. (2016), who found a positive  
233 correlation for the  $C_{\text{Sdis}}$ , but no correlation for the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration. The negative  
234 correlation for the Takase River could be explained by the spatial pattern of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
235 inventory in the catchment. As shown in Figure 1, the Takase River catchment has a  
236 highly contaminated area downstream, whereas the other two river catchments have the  
237 most contaminated areas upstream. This situation might result in the dilution of dissolved  
238  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  by water upstream, with a relatively low  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory in the Takase River and  
239 the opposite for the Niida and Ukedo Rivers. The variation in the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration  
240 might be reflected in the spatial pattern of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory in these river catchments.  
241 In this context, the positive correlation between the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations in SS and  $C_{\text{Sdis}}$

242 in the Niida River could also be explained by increased contributions from upstream, with  
243 a high  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory. The difference in the range of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory in the  
244 catchments might explain the discrepancy with the results of Tsuji et al. (2016). The range  
245 in the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory in our study catchments was two orders of magnitude, as shown in  
246 Figure 1, whereas that in the catchments in Tsuji et al. (2016) was within 1000–3000 Bq  
247  $\text{m}^{-2}$ . These results suggest that the variation and spatial pattern of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory  
248 were reflected in the riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations in the catchments evaluated.

249         Interestingly, all three rivers showed positive relationships between SSC and  $K_d$ .  
250 Previous studies often found negative correlations between these parameters (e.g., Ueda  
251 et al., 2013; Murakami et al., 2016). IAEA (2020) also observed negative relationships  
252 upstream in the Mano, Niida, and Ohta Rivers, which have maximum catchment areas of  
253 21  $\text{km}^2$ . By contrast, Wakiyama et al. (in press) found a significant positive correlation  
254 during high-flow events midstream of the Abukuma River. These results suggest a  
255 dependency of the variation in  $K_d$  on the catchment scale.

256

### 257 **3.2. Factors controlling the $^{137}\text{Cs}$ concentration**

258         Previous studies found significant correlations of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations and the  
259 apparent distribution coefficient with the physico-chemical properties of water and SS,  
260 such as the positive correlation between  $K^+$  concentration and dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
261 concentration (Tsuji et al., 2019), positive correlation between SSA and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
262 concentration in SS (Yoshimura et al., 2015a), total organic carbon- $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration  
263 in SS (Naulier et al., 2017), and negative correlation between EC and  $K_d$  (IAEA, 2020),

264 dependencies of  $K_d$  on particle size distribution (Abrill and Fraga, 1996). Although the  
265 results of Figure 3 suggest that the spatial pattern of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory is reflected in the  
266 variation in the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration, the physico-chemical properties of water/sediment  
267 might have determined the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations; it is worth examining these relationships.  
268 Table 2 lists the correlation coefficients between the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations or apparent  $K_d$   
269 with representative physico-chemical parameters. We could not find any attributes that  
270 explained the variation in the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations and distribution coefficients in all  
271 rivers. Among the relationships, the correlation coefficients between the EC and  $C_{s_{\text{dis}}}$   
272 were positive for all three events in the Niida River but were negative for all events in the  
273 Takase River. Although SSA was believed to control the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS (e.g.,  
274 He and Walling, 1996), our results disagreed with those findings. Similar to the  $C_{s_{\text{dis}}}$ , the  
275  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS could not be explained by a single physico-chemical property,  
276 even one that was significant for low-flow conditions. It is reasonable to postulate that  
277 the temporal variation in these physico-chemical properties also varied with the  
278 catchment characteristics, and the complicated hydrological processes apparently  
279 hindered the synchronicity of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations with any single property. These  
280 results suggest importance of consideration of the site-specific hydrological processes  
281 and sediment dynamics of river catchments.

282 To discuss the role of catchment land use, we investigated the relationship  
283 between the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ , as an index of the contribution of  
284 sediment sources based on data in Laceby et al. (2016a) (Figure 5). Table S3 shows all  
285 data of the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ . Although both  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  were measured, we decided to



286 use  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  here because there was a negative shift in the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  of the sediment source sample,  
287 as described by Laceby et al. (2016a) (Figure S1). The  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration tended to be  
288 increase with decreasing  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  concentration, although this correlation was not statistically  
289 significant. This relationship suggests that the high contribution of forested area increases  
290 the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS based on a comparison of the mean values of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in the  
291 source area. This concurs with plot-scale  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  wash-off observations (e.g., Yoshimura et  
292 al., 2015b; Wakiyama et al., 2019), showing 1.4–3 times higher  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations in  
293 eroded sediment in forested areas compared with farmland. We speculate that the  
294 increased SS load from forested areas increased the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS.

295         The increased contribution from forested areas could be explained by a variable  
296 source area concept; i.e., intensive rainfall results in an expanded contribution area of  
297 runoff water (e.g., Hewlett and Hibbert, 1967). Previous studies of global fallout  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
298 showed that soils in upslope areas were barely eroded and were expected to maintain high  
299  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations (e.g., Fukuyama et al., 2001; Wakiyama et al., 2010). However, the  
300 expanded runoff area during a rainfall event washed surface soil downstream, resulting  
301 in an increased  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS. Future numerical studies of these hydrological  
302 processes will improve our understanding of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  dynamics.

303         By contrast, no such relationships were clear for the Niida and Takase Rivers for  
304 JUL20-1 and JUL20-2. For JUL20-1, a wide range of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and stable  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations  
305 were observed in the Niida and Takase Rivers. As the rainfall erosivity was low compared  
306 with the other two events, little severe soil erosion was expected. Plausibly, the riverbed  
307 or riverbank was the main sediment source during the events. The relationships in the

308 Niida and Takase Rivers in JUL20-2 were not straightforward. Both rivers had a low  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ ,  
309 close to 0‰, with a low  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration, unlike those during SEP19. These two values  
310 infer that forest in the midstream area with a low  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory, as shown in Figure 1,  
311 was the dominant sediment source during sampling. This is indeed the case for the Takase  
312 River; sharp decreases in  $C_{\text{SS}}$  of two samples after peak discharge were found in JUL20-  
313 2 as shown in Figure 3.

314 In contrast to the other two rivers, high stable values of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  were found in the  
315 Ukedo River in both JUL20-1 and JUL20-2, with little variation in  $C_{\text{SS}}$ . We postulate that  
316 the Ogaki Dam trapped SS from the highly contaminated upstream area, and that the main  
317 sediment source was cultivated, decontaminated land downstream, in these events. Our  
318 stable isotope signature analyses demonstrated that the spatial distribution of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and  
319 land use composition in the catchment control the variation in the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in  
320 SS during high-flow events.

321

### 322 **3.3. $^{137}\text{Cs}$ flux from rivers and desorption in the ocean**

323 Based on the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorption experiment, we estimated  
324 the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux, including  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorption, from the river catchments (Table 3). The total  
325  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux ranged from 0.325 to 19.0 GBq, or 0.00014 to 0.010% of the total  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
326 deposited in the catchments. The particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux ranged from 0.32 to 18.8 GBq,  
327 and the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux ranged from 0.061 to 0.273 GBq. The total  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux  
328 accounted for 0.001–0.034% of the total  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in the catchments. The Niida River  
329 exported the most  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ , followed by the Takase River and then Ukedo River. The

330 percentage of the total  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux to the total  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  deposited in the Ukedo River catchment  
331 was one order of magnitude lower than those in the other two rivers. The Ogaki Dam  
332 reservoir appeared to mitigate the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux by trapping discharged sediments. Nakanishi  
333 et al. (2021) found a 14 times higher sediment discharge from the Takase River than from  
334 the Ukedo River during Typhoons Hagibis and Bualoi in 2019. Hayashi and Tsuji (2020)  
335 reported  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  storage rates in the dam reservoir of 84–95% based on the difference in  
336 observed  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inflow and outflow for the Matsugabo Dam reservoir in the Uda River  
337 catchment. The particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux of one magnitude lower in the Ukedo River concurs  
338 with their results. In comparison, the magnitude of the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux was similar to  
339 those in the other two rivers. Funaki et al. (2020) estimated the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux from  
340 the Ogaki Dam reservoir to be  $1.0\text{--}2.2 \times 10^{10}$  Bq per year. In terms of the ratio of the  
341 rainfall amount during these events to the annual rainfall, values of 0.18 and 0.22 GBq  
342 are reasonable. The Ogaki Dam reservoir likely contained trapped SS at the bottom and  
343 mitigated sediment discharge and particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  during high-flow events.

344         The particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux clearly increased with the event R-factor, rather than  
345 with the rainfall amount, for all three catchments (Figure 6). Although statistical  
346 significance could not be evaluated because of insufficient observations, the both the  
347 particulate and dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fluxes were more proportional to the R-factor than to the  
348 catchment mean precipitation. When examining the sensitivity of the particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
349 flux to the R-factor using the slope of the regression, the Niida River showed a relatively  
350 sharp increase in the particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux, followed by the Takase River and then Ukedo  
351 River. The greater sensitivity of the Niida River could be attributed to the smaller ratio of

352 forest cover in the catchment. Based on soil erosion observations, Wakiyama et al. (2019)  
353 reported a 3–50 times higher  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  discharge from farmland than forest. Taniguchi et al.  
354 (2019) indicated that a high ratio of forested area in a catchment resulted in a smaller  
355  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux. As more than 95% of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  was transported in a particulate form, using the  
356 R-factor of other erosivity parameters yields more accurate estimates compared with  
357 using the rainfall amount. The low sensitivity of the Ukedo River is due to the effect of  
358 the Ogaki Dam, as discussed above.

359         The above datasets of the particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux enabled us to estimate the potential  
360 magnitude of the desorption of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  from SS, as demonstrated by Takata et al. (2021).  
361 Table 4 shows the results for sea water extraction for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorption and the sequential  
362 extraction for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  speciation. The desorption percentage was slightly higher in the 30-  
363 minute experiment than in the 1-day experiment, ranging from 2.8% to 6.6%. The  
364 magnitude of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorption also agreed with that reported by Takata et al. (2020, 2021).  
365 The values for the speciation of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  were higher than those reported by Tsukada and  
366 Ohse (2016): 0.9–1.5% for the exchangeable fraction and 1.8–4.1% for the organically  
367 bound  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fraction in SS under low-flow conditions. The difference might be because  
368 the SS samples were derived mainly from forest area, as discussed for Figure 5. The  
369 desorption ratio appeared to be high when the proportion of the ion-exchange fraction  
370 was high, although the correlation was not significant. The slope of the approximate linear  
371 equation between the results of the 1-day desorption experiment and the ion-exchange  
372 fraction was close to 1, suggesting that the ion-exchange fraction was desorbed in the 1-  
373 day desorption experiment. These results confirmed that  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in the exchangeable

374 fractions is desorbed in the ocean and revealed the magnitude of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorption from  
375 SS.

376 By multiplying the percentage of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorption by the particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux,  
377 the estimated potential range of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorbed from SS in the ocean was 0.022–0.57 GBq  
378 (Table 5). The ratio of desorbed  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  to dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  ranged from 0.12 to 6.2, and the  
379 ratios during SEP19 were the highest for all three rivers. The large particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux  
380 during this intensive rainfall event resulted in a relative increase in the amount of  
381 desorbed  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ . In the case of the Abukuma River after Typhoon Hagibis, the ratio of  
382 desorbed  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  to dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  reached 130 due to the considerable particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
383 flux (Takata et al., 2021). Intensive rainfall results in large amount of desorption of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
384 from SS, which may increase the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in near-shore seawater.  
385 These results underline the importance of particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  dynamics for both terrestrial  
386 and oceanic environments.

387

#### 388 **4. Conclusion**

389 We examined the riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  dynamics during high-flow events and their  
390 influence on ocean environments. The temporal variation in the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration  
391 differed according to the event, even in the same river catchment, and appeared to reflect  
392 the spatial distribution of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory in the catchments, rather than the influence  
393 of the dynamics of the physico-chemical properties of water and SS. The relationship  
394 between  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS suggested that SS discharged from  
395 forested areas during intensive rainfall events increased the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in SS.

396 From the results, we postulate that the spatial distribution of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory and land  
397 use composition in catchments control the variation in riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations  
398 during high-flow events in relatively large river catchments with different land uses.

399 The differences in the land use composition of the catchments were also reflected  
400 in the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fluxes. The sensitivity of the particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux to the rainfall erosivity was  
401 low in a highly forested catchment. Our results demonstrated that a dam reservoir  
402 mitigated  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  exportation via sediment trapping. The estimated percentage of desorbed  
403  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  relative to particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  was 2–6% based on desorption experiments. These  
404 values roughly agreed with the percentage of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in the exchange fraction in SS. The  
405 amount of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorbed in the ocean depended on the particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux and  
406 exceeded the dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux from terrestrials during intensive rainfall events. Hence,  
407 the particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  dynamics are important not only for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  redistribution in terrestrial  
408 areas but also for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  diffusion in the ocean. Further comparative studies of various  
409 high-flow events in different catchments, and numerical simulations based on such  
410 observations, will improve our understanding of riverine  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  dynamics.

411

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417

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578

### 579 **Captions**

580 Table 1. Catchment mean rainfall and event R-factor.

581 Table 2. Correlations of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in suspended solids ( $C_{\text{SS}}$ ), dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
582 concentration ( $C_{\text{dis}}$ ), and apparent distribution coefficient ( $K_d$ ) with  
583 representative physico-chemical properties.

584 Table 3. The suspended solid, particulate, dissolved, and total  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fluxes

585 Table 4. Results of desorption experiment and sequential extraction

586 Table 5. Estimated amount of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorbed from suspended solids in the ocean and the  
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598 during the events.

599 Figure 4. Scatterplots of the normalized  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in suspended sediment  
600 (normalized  $C_{\text{Sss}}$ ), normalized dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration (normalized  $C_{\text{Sdis}}$ ),  
601 and  $K_d$  versus the logarithms of the specific water discharge (SWD) and  
602 suspended solid concentration (SSC). The normalized  $C_{\text{Sss}}$  and normalized  $C_{\text{Sdis}}$   
603 were obtained by dividing  $C_{\text{Sss}}$  and  $C_{\text{Sdis}}$  by Catchment mean  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory,  
604 respectively. The specific water discharge (SWD) every 10 minutes during  
605 sampling was multiplied by 6 to determine the hourly specific water discharge  
606 following Tsuji et al. (2016). Broken lines indicate significant correlations.

607 Figure 5. Relationship between the  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentrations in suspended solids  
608 ( $C_{\text{Sss}}$ ). Broken lines represent the mean concentration of  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in soil (< 2 mm),  
609 subsoil, cultivated land, and forest, according to Laceby et al. (2016a)

610 Figure 6. Scatterplots of the percentages of particulate and dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fluxes relative  
611 to the total  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  in catchments, and the ratio of the particulate  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux to the  
612 total  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  flux versus the catchment mean rainfall and event R-factor.

613

#### 614 **Supplementary materials**

615 Table S1. Characteristics of the river catchments

616 Table S2. Data of suspended solid concentration (SSC),  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in suspended  
617 solids ( $C_{\text{SS}}$ ), dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration ( $C_{\text{dis}}$ ), apparent distribution  
618 coefficient ( $K_d$ ).

619 Table S3. Data of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ .

620 Figure S1. Relationship between  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  in suspended solids and soils in the  
621 sediment source area. The values for soils were derived from Lacyby et al. (2016a)

622



Table 1. Catchment mean rainfall and event R-factor

		Weather station							Catchment		
		Soma	Iitate	Haramachi	Tsushima	Namie	Kawauchi	Funehiki	Niida River	Ukedo River	Takase River
Ratio to entire catchment (%)	Niida River	1	68	17	14	0	0	0			
	Ukedo River	0	0	0	68	32	0	0			
	Takase River	0	0	0	41	26	1	32			
Total rainfall (mm)	SEP19	27.5	90	34	104.5	73	118	83	81.8	94.3	100.4
	JUL20-1	134	81	102.5	62	67.5	49.5	63.5	58.9	52.4	49.9
	JUL20-2	141	94.5	83.5	97.5	83	97.5	112	93.4	92.8	93.9
Total R-factor (MJ mm ha <sup>-1</sup> hr <sup>-1</sup> )	SEP19	57	628	90	1190	466	1109	517	607	956	970
	JUL20-1	114	51	136	33	61	34	34	64	42	41
	JUL20-2	385	211	148	316	187	594	350	216	274	371

Table 2. Correlations of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration in suspended solids ( $C_{\text{Sss}}$ ), dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  concentration ( $C_{\text{Sdis}}$ ), and apparent distribution coefficient ( $K_d$ ) with representative physico-chemical properties

		$^{137}\text{Cs}$ concentration in suspended solid ( $C_{\text{Sss}}$ ) (Bq kg $^{-1}$ )				Dissolved $^{137}\text{Cs}$ concentration ( $C_{\text{Sdis}}$ ) (mBq L $^{-1}$ )						Apparent distribution coefficient $K_d$ (L kg $^{-1}$ )					
		SSA (m $^2$ g $^{-1}$ )		TOC (%)		K $^+$ (mg L $^{-1}$ )		DOC (mg L $^{-1}$ )		EC ( $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$ )		EC ( $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$ )		TOC (%)		SSA (m $^2$ g $^{-1}$ )	
		<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>r</i>
Niida River	SEP19	6	0.28	6	0.51	6	-0.14	6	<b>0.85*</b>	6	<b>-0.91*</b>	6	-0.46	6	0.49	6	-0.27
	JUL20-1	6	-0.74	6	-0.46	6	0.41	6	0.37	6	-0.27	6	-0.40	5	-0.63	6	-0.79
	JUL20-2	7	-0.39	7	<b>0.77*</b>	8	-0.15	8	0.17	8	<b>-0.75*</b>	8	0.32	7	0.34	8	0.45
	Total	19	0.25	19	<b>0.60**</b>	20	0.41	20	<b>0.69**</b>	20	<b>-0.74**</b>	20	-0.11	18	<b>0.47*</b>	19	-0.04
Ukedo River	SEP19	6	0.25	5	<b>0.99**</b>	6	-0.51	6	0.72	6	-0.27	6	-0.68	5	0.78	6	-0.39
	JUL20-1	6	0.54	6	<b>-0.87*</b>	6	0.23	6	0.37	6	-0.08	6	-0.62	5	-0.78	6	-0.09
	JUL20-2	6	0.71	6	<b>-0.88*</b>	7	0.54	7	0.17	7	-0.30	7	0.12	6	-0.29	6	-0.12
	Total	18	-0.01	17	<b>0.64*</b>	19	<b>0.66**</b>	19	<b>0.70**</b>	19	0.19	19	-0.27	16	0.31	18	-0.14
Takase River	SEP19	6	-0.10	6	-0.05	6	-0.80	6	-0.81	6	<b>0.92**</b>	6	-0.49	6	-0.49	6	0.22
	JUL20-1	6	-0.79	6	0.50	6	0.08	6	-0.39	6	0.72	6	-0.19	6	-0.54	6	0.04
	JUL20-2	7	-0.04	7	0.27	7	-0.52	7	<b>0.76*</b>	7	<b>0.77*</b>	7	-0.32	6	-0.51	7	-0.16
	Total	19	0.15	19	0.29	19	-0.21	19	-0.18	19	<b>0.62**</b>	19	-0.46	18	0.08	19	0.36

\*  $p < 0.05$

\*\*  $p < 0.01$

Table 3. The suspended solid, particulate, dissolved, and total  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  fluxes

River	Event	Suspended solid flux (Gg)	Particulate $^{137}\text{Cs}$ flux (GBq)	Dissolved $^{137}\text{Cs}$ flux (GBq)	Total $^{137}\text{Cs}$ flux (GBq)
Niida River	SEP19	2.12	18.8	0.137	19.0
	JUL20-1	0.135	1.50	0.074	1.57
	JUL20-2	1.69	6.04	0.086	6.13
Ukedo River	SEP19	0.113	5.39	0.273	5.67
	JUL20-1	0.017	0.227	0.098	0.325
	JUL20-2	0.019	0.269	0.096	0.365
Takase River	SEP19	2.17	13.1	0.096	13.2
	JUL20-1	0.193	0.655	0.061	0.717
	JUL20-2	0.558	2.24	0.079	2.32

Table 4. Results of desorption experiment and sequential extraction

Sample ID	Sea water extraction (%)		Sequential extraction (%)		
	30-min shaking	1-day shaking	Exchangeable fraction	Organic-bound fraction	Particle-bound fraction
ND-SEP19-4	2.8	3.3	2.5	2.5	95.1
UD-SEP19-3	5.1	6.6	5.0	5.5	89.6
TS-SEP19-4	2.6	3.4	2.9	3.0	94.2
ND-JUL20-2-5	2.1	2.8	2.6	3.2	94.3
TS-JUL20-2-4	2.8	3.2	4.1	5.9	90.0

Table 5. Estimated amount of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  desorbed from suspended solids in the ocean and the ratio of desorbed  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  to dissolved  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ .

Event	Desorbed $^{137}\text{Cs}$ in ocean (GBq)			Ratio of desorbed $^{137}\text{Cs}$ to dissolved $^{137}\text{Cs}$		
	Niida River	Ukedo River	Takase River	Niida River	Ukedo River	Takase River
SEP19	0.57	0.33	0.42	5.2	1.5	6.2
JUL20-1	0.033	0.022	0.048	0.24	0.12	0.45
JUL20-2	0.25	0.030	0.19	0.90	0.15	1.2

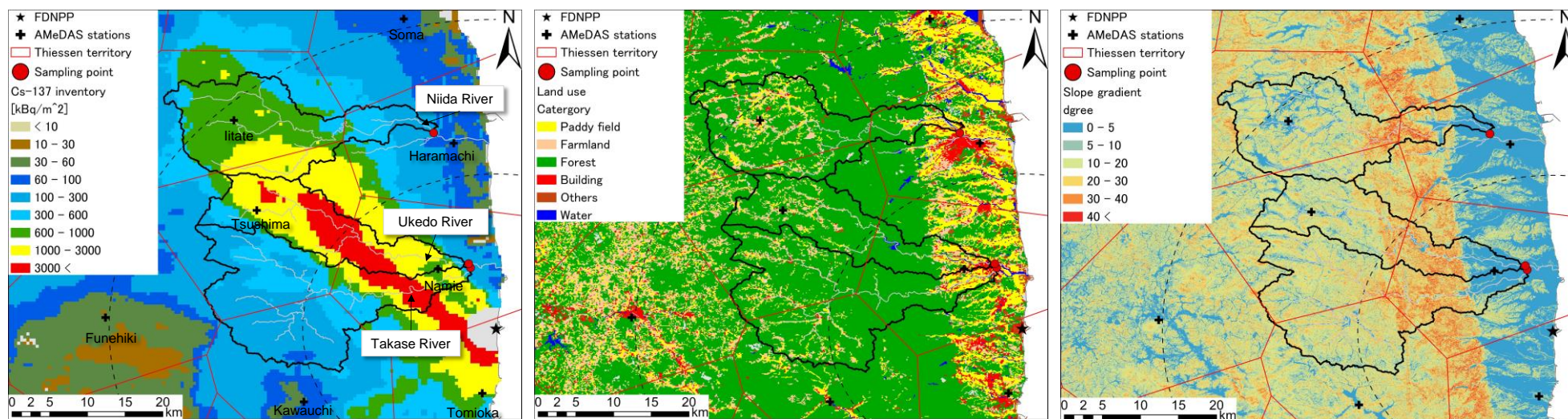


Figure 1. Spatial distribution of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory, land use, and slope gradient in the study catchments. The spatial distribution of the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventory is based on the fourth airborne survey by MEXT (2011). The Thiessen territory was created based on the coordination of Japan Meteorological Agency weather stations.

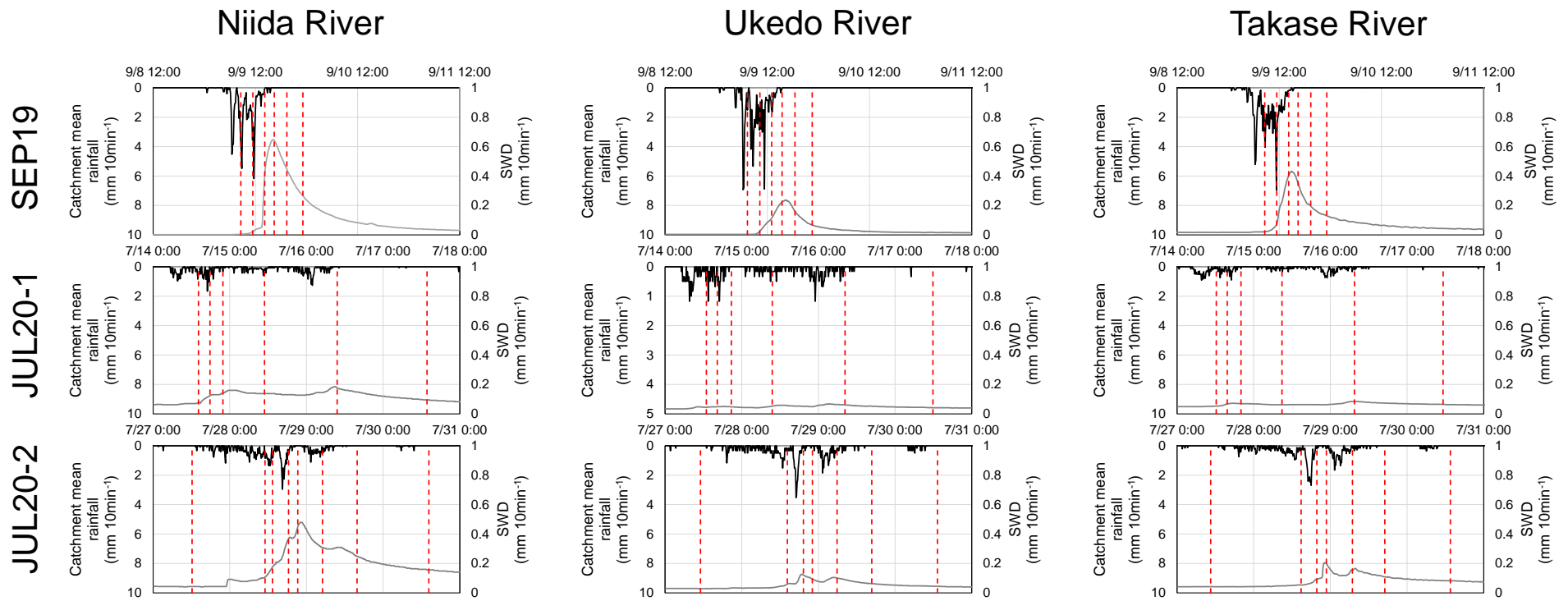


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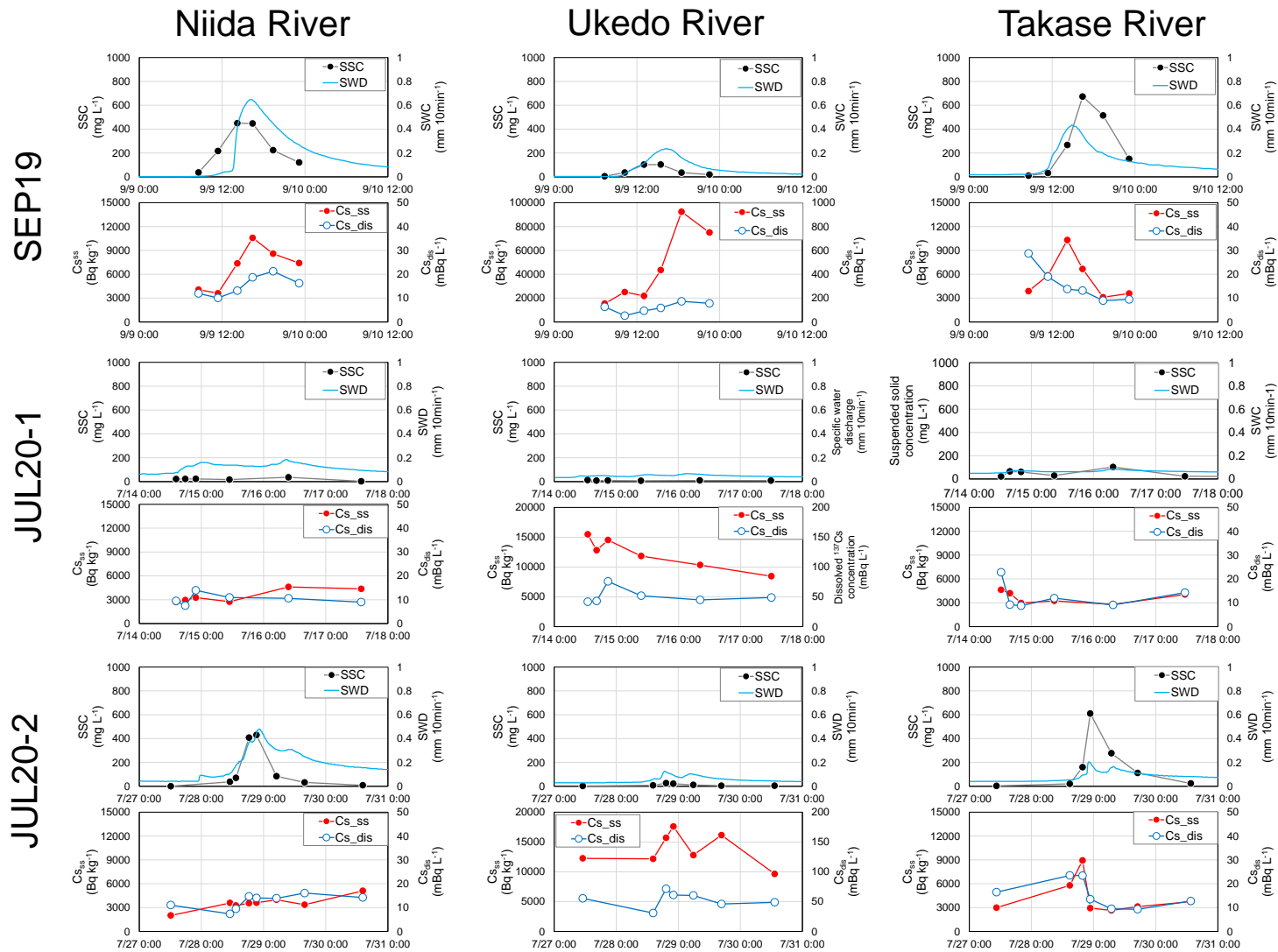


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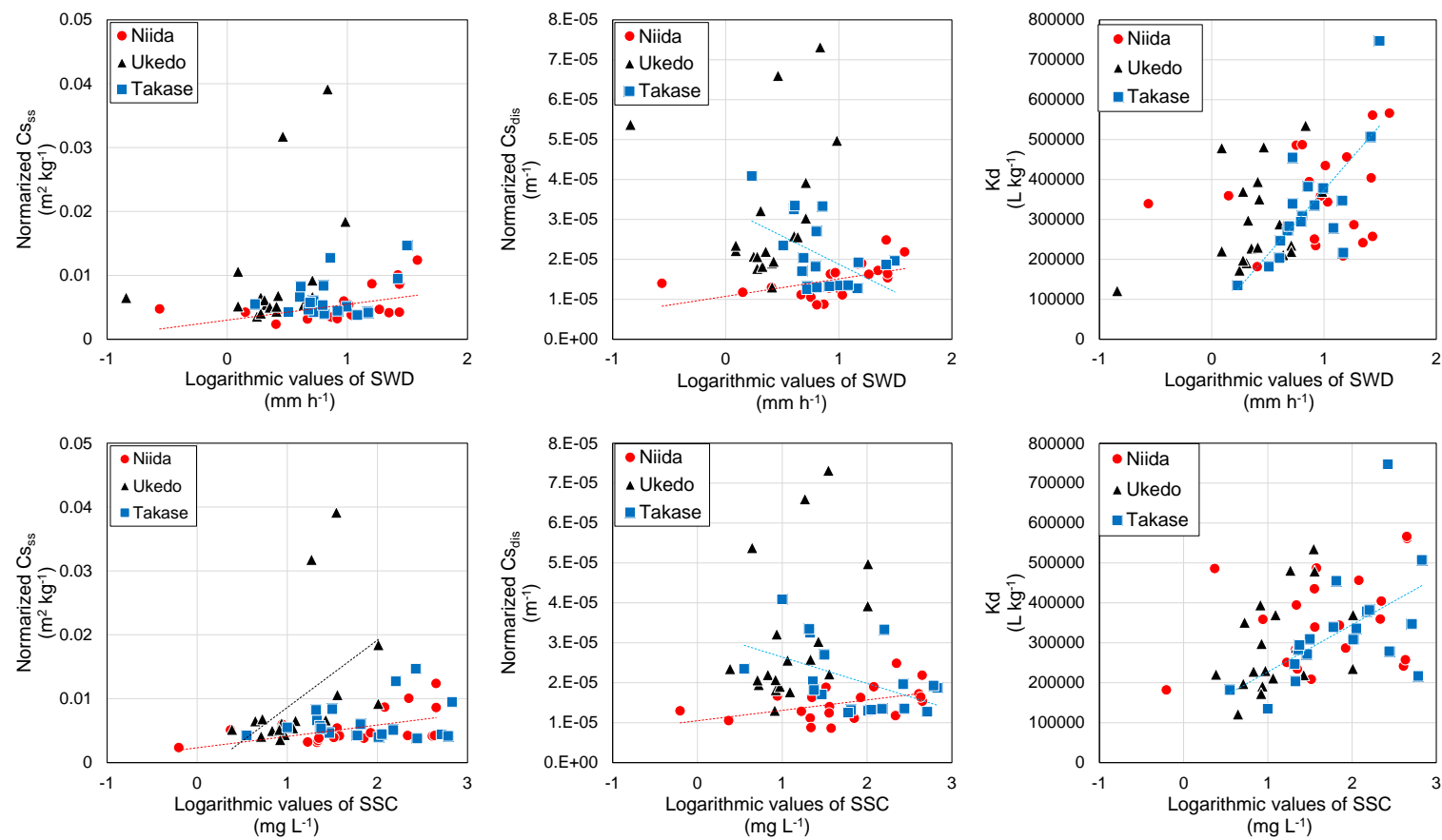


Figure 4. Scatterplots of the normalized  $^{137}Cs$  concentration in suspended sediment (normalized  $C_{s_{ss}}$ ), normalized dissolved  $^{137}Cs$  concentration (normalized  $C_{s_{dis}}$ ), and apparent distribution coefficient ( $K_d$ ) versus the logarithms of the specific water discharge and suspended solid concentration. The normalized  $C_{s_{ss}}$  and normalized  $C_{s_{dis}}$  were obtained by dividing  $C_{s_{ss}}$  and  $C_{s_{dis}}$  by Catchment mean  $^{137}Cs$  inventory, respectively. The specific water discharge every 10 minutes during sampling was multiplied by 6 to determine the hourly specific water discharge following Tsuji et al. (2016). Broken lines indicate significant correlations.

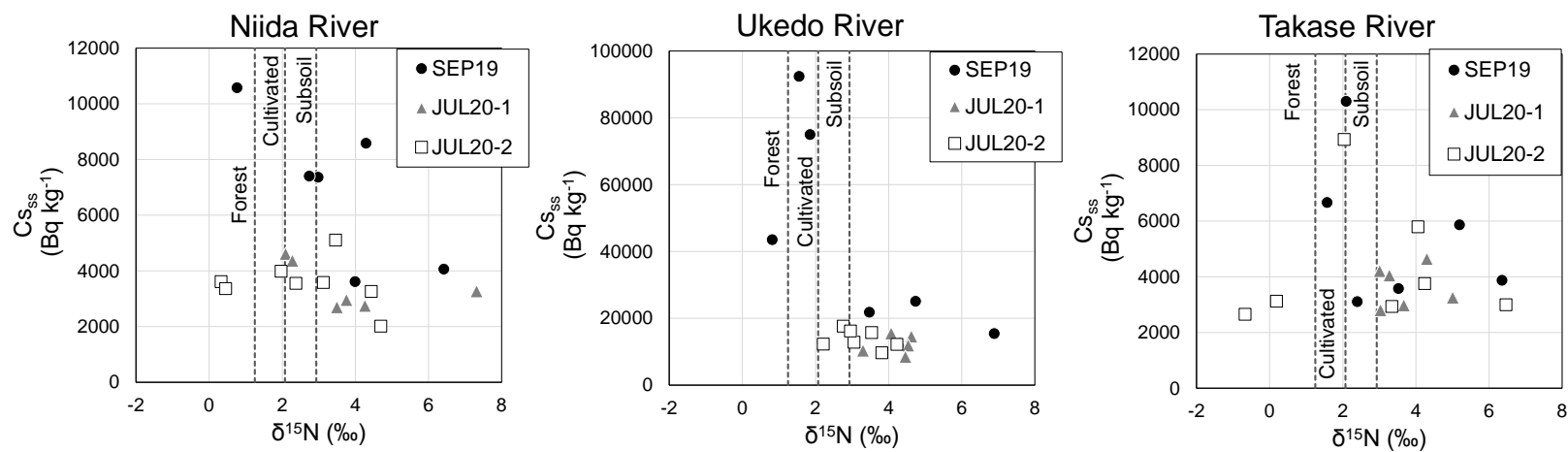


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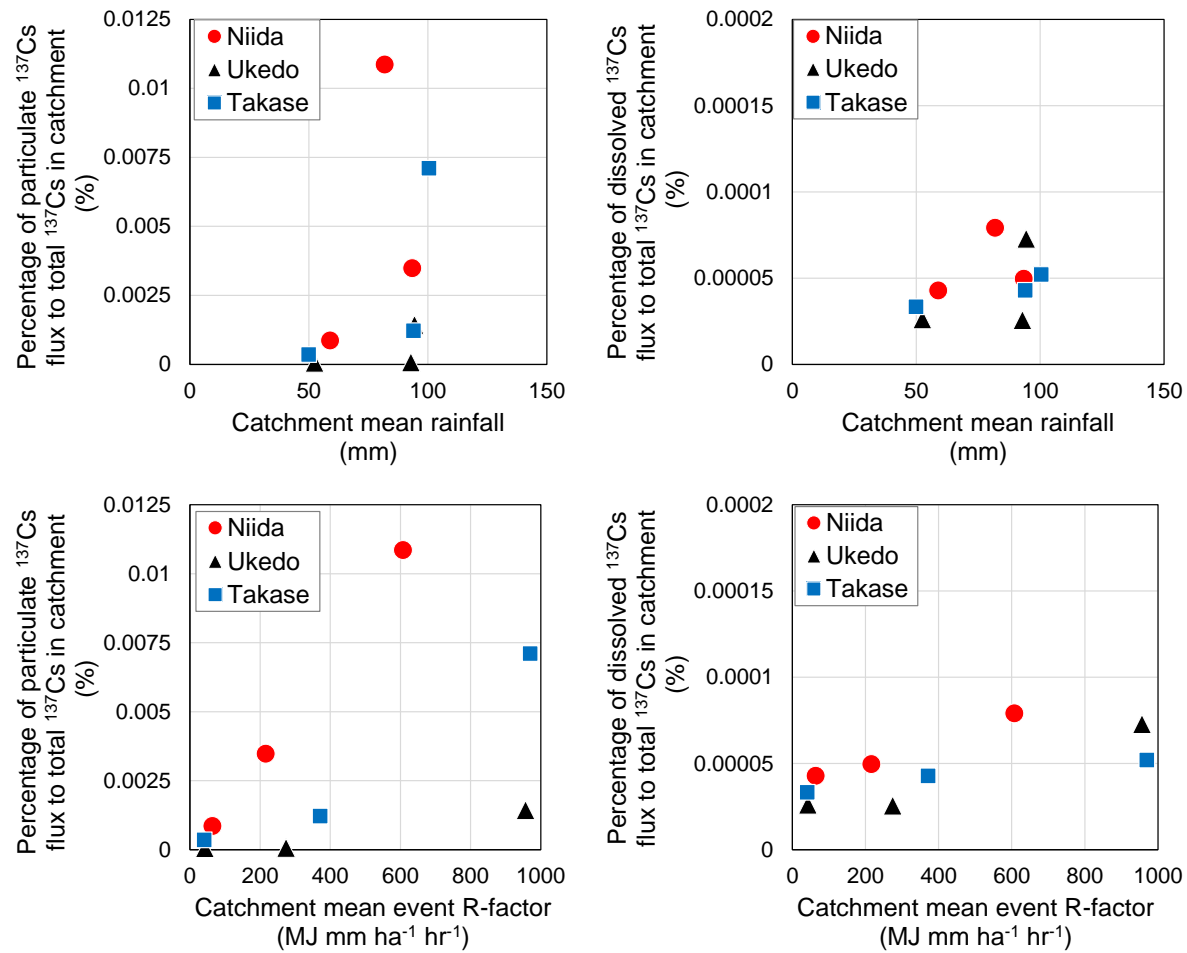


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Author Contributions Statement

**Takuya Niida:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing - Original Draft. **Yoshifumi Wakiyama:** Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Investigation, Writing - review & editing, Visualization. **Hyo Takata:** Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing, Funding acquisition. **Keisuke Taniguchi:** Data curation, Writing - Review & Editing. **Honoka Kurosawa:** Investigation. **Kazuki Fujita:** Data curation, Resources. **Alexei Konoplev;** Writing - review & editing, Supervision, Funding acquisition