

1 Validating Plutonium-239+240 as novel soil redistribution tracer - a  
2 comparison to measured sediment yield

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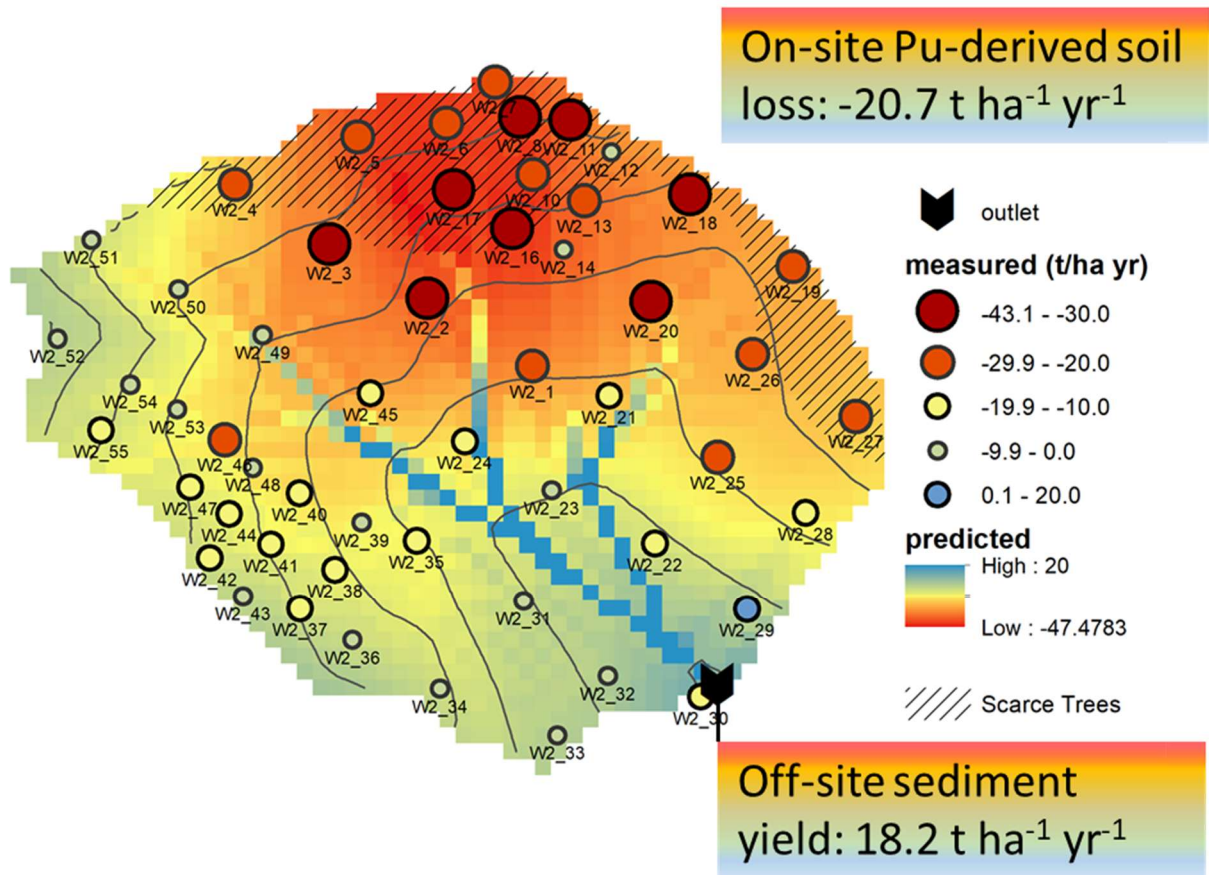
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14

## 15 Abstract

16 Quantifying soil redistribution rates is a global challenge addressed with direct sediment measurements  
17 (e.g., traps), models and isotopic, geochemical and radionuclide tracers. The isotope of Plutonium,  
18 namely  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$ , is a relatively new soil redistribution tracer in this challenge. Direct  
19 validation of  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  as soil redistribution is, however, still missing. We used a unique  
20 sediment yield time series in Southern Italy, reaching back to the initial fallout of  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   
21 to verify  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  as a soil redistribution tracer. Distributed soil samples (n=55) were  
22 collected in the catchment, and at ~~potential~~ undisturbed reference sites (n=22),  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  was  
23 extracted, measured with ICP-MS and converted to soil redistribution rates. Finally, we used a  
24 Generalized Additive Model (GAM) to regionalize soil redistribution estimates for the catchment.  
25 For the catchment sites, mean  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  inventories were significantly reduced ( $16.8 \pm 10.2$   
26  $\text{Bq m}^{-2}$ ) compared to the reference inventory ( $40.5 \pm 3.5 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$ ) indicating the dominance of erosion.  
27 Converting these inventory losses into soil erosion rates resulted in an average soil loss of  $22.2 \pm \text{SD}$   
28  $7.2 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . The uncertainties of the approach stemmed mainly from the high measurement  
29 uncertainties of some low-activity samples where samples have been bulked over depth. Therefore, we  
30 recommend taking incremental soil samples and extracting ~~~20g of larger~~ soil volumes ( $\sim 20\text{g}$ ). The  
31 geographic coordinates and the flow accumulation best described the spatial pattern of erosion rates in  
32 the GAM model. Using those predictors to upscale Pu-derived soil redistribution rates for the entire  
33 catchment resulted in an average on-site loss of  $20.7 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , which corresponds very well to the long-  
34 term average sediment yield of  $18.7 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  measured at the catchment outlet and to  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
35 derived soil redistribution rates. Overall, this comparison of Pu-derived soil redistribution rates with  
36 measured sediment yield data validates  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  as a suitable retrospective soil  
37 redistribution tracer.

## 38 Graphical abstract



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40

# 41 1 Introduction

42 Soil erosion endangers climate and food security and has considerable adverse off-site effects on  
43 freshwater systems (Reichstein et al., 2013; Amundson et al., 2015; Alewell et al., 2016; Panagos et al.,  
44 2016; Borrelli et al., 2017; Alewell et al., 2020). Plutonium isotopes, with their previous hazardous  
45 impacts on the environment and released as a product of thermonuclear weapons testing and from  
46 nuclear accidents (e.g. Chernobyl), may serve as a tool to quantify long-term soil loss (Alewell et al.,  
47 2017).

48 The approach to use  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   $\text{Pu-239+240}$  as soil and sediment tracer is parallel-similar to other fallout  
49 radionuclides (FRN) (Xu et al., 2015; Meusburger et al., 2018). Once deposited on the ground, FRNs  
50 strongly bind to soil particles and move across the landscape primarily through physical soil  
51 redistribution processes (IAEA, 2014). In this way, fallout radionuclides provide an effective and  
52 retrospective (since the time of the fallout) track of net soil and sediment redistribution (Zapata, 2003).  
53 However,  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   $\text{Cs-137}$ , the most commonly applied soil redistribution tracer, will reach its detection  
54 limit soon due to the successive decay (half-life = 30.17 years). Thus, alternative tracers like excess Pb-  
55 210 and  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   $\text{Pu-239+240}$  have been explored (Wallbrink and Murray, 1996; Matisoff et al., 2002;  
56 Mabit et al., 2008; Kato et al., 2010; Porto et al., 2013; Teramage et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2015;  
57 Meusburger et al., 2018). While Pb-210 is associated with high uncertainties (Porto and Walling, 2012;  
58 Mabit et al., 2014; Meusburger et al., 2018), the characteristics of  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   $\text{Pu-239+240}$  seem more  
59 promising for soil tracing (Alewell et al., 2017).

60 The advent of  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   $\text{Pu-239+240}$  as a soil redistribution tracer was accelerated by the adoption of  
61 the less time-consuming (minutes instead of hours per sample) Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass  
62 spectrometry (ICP-MS). It was a door opener for using  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   $\text{Pu-239+240}$  as a soil erosion tracer.  
63 The application of  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   $\text{Pu-239+240}$  comes along with other advantages, such as i) reduced initial  
64 spatial variability at undisturbed, so-called reference sites (Alewell et al., 2014; Meusburger et al.,  
65 2016), ii) less preferential uptake by plants (Froehlich et al., 2016), iii) the possibility to assess the  
66 origin of the fallout by determining  $^{240}\text{Pu}$  to  $^{239}\text{Pu}$  atom ratios or  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   $\text{Cs-137}$  to  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   $\text{Pu-239+240}$   
67 activity ratios (Ketterer et al., 2004; Xu et al., 2013; Meusburger et al., 2016; Meusburger et al., 2020),  
68 iv) considerably smaller soil sample volume needed for analysis, and v) no decline due to decay, which  
69 is of particular relevance for locations with low initial  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   $\text{Cs-137}$  fallout such as the southern  
70 hemisphere (Tims et al., 2010). The potential of  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   $\text{Pu-239+240}$  further convenes with the  
71 availability of the new conversion model "Modelling Deposition and Erosion rates with RadioNuclides  
72 (MODERN)", suitable for estimating soil redistribution rates by comparing reference with soil  
73 redistribution affected inventories with any FRN (Arata et al., 2016a; Arata et al., 2016b).

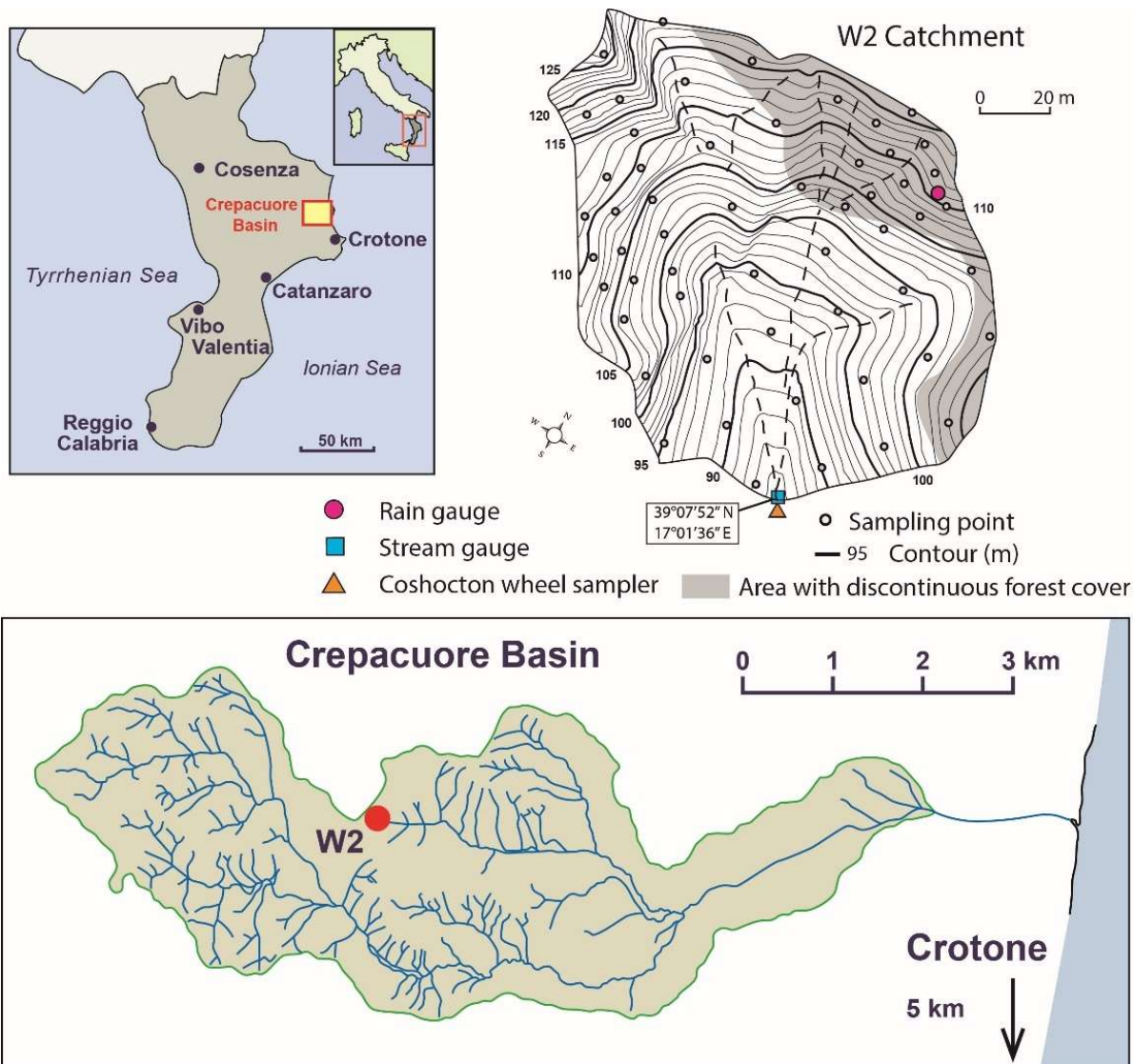
74 Several studies (Schimmack et al., 2001; Tims et al., 2010; Hoo et al., 2011; Lal et al., 2013; Michelotti  
75 et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2015; Meusburger et al., 2018) have highlighted  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$ 's  
76 suitability as a soil redistribution tracer. However, to date, direct validation efforts to compare on-site

77 FRN-based soil erosion rates with off-site sediment yields have focused on other FRNs such as <sup>137</sup>Cs  
78 ~~Cs-137~~ and excess <sup>210</sup>Pb (Porto et al., 2001; Porto et al., 2003; Porto and Walling, 2012; Porto and  
79 Callegari, 2022). For <sup>239+240</sup>Pu-derived soil redistribution rates, such a direct validation is not achieved  
80 yet, to the best of our knowledge. This study aims to fill this gap by validating <sup>239+240</sup>Pu-derived soil  
81 redistribution rates with a long-term time series of measured catchment suspended sediment yields.

## 82 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 83 **2.1 Study site and soil sampling**

84 This study takes advantage of a unique long-term sediment yield monitoring catchment (W2, 1.38 ha)  
85 located near Crotona in Calabria, Southern Italy (35 m a.s.l., 39°09'02"N, 17°08'10"E). The steep  
86 catchment with a mean average slope of ca. 35% is located in the ephemeral headwaters of the larger  
87 Crepacuore basin (Fig. 1). The geology of this area consists of Upper Pliocene and Quaternary materials  
88 and produced soils with a clay loam texture with 14.6%, 49.2%, and 36.2% of sand, silt, and clay,  
89 respectively. The catchment was never ploughed, but in 1968, *Eucalyptus occidentalis* Engl. was  
90 planted and cut again in 1978 and 1990. The tree cover is partly patchy, with about 20% of the area on  
91 south-facing slopes having discontinuous tree and grass cover. The climate is Mediterranean, with a  
92 mean annual precipitation of ~670 mm, predominantly occurring from October to March.



93

94 Fig. 1 Location of the studied headwater catchment W2 within the Crepacuore Basin (lower panel  
 95 indicated by a red dot), Calabria, Italy.

96 In 2014, the collection of soil samples in the catchment was undertaken along an approximate 20 m ×  
 97 20 m grid with additional cores collected from areas characterized by marked variability of vegetation  
 98 cover ~~and~~ topography ~~with (slopes from 5 to 35°~~ (Fig. 1). The samples were taken with a steel core  
 99 tube (10 cm diameter) driven into the ground to a depth of 15 cm by a motorized percussion corer and  
 100 subsequently extracted using a hand-operated winch. For each sampling point, two cores were taken,  
 101 and they were bulked before analysis. This procedure provided a total of 55 composite bulk cores over  
 102 the catchment area.

103 In March 2021, a new sampling campaign was undertaken to obtain information at the reference area  
 104 to establish the baseline for <sup>239+240</sup>Pu in the area. In this case, ~~three-3~~ depth profiles and ~~nineteen-19~~  
 105 additional bulk reference soil cores were collected in adjacent undisturbed rangeland with some  
 106 scattered oaks (*Quercus pubescens*) at a similar altitude to the study catchment (see Porto and Callegari,

2022). The area has very low gradients (2-3%) and it is located on top of a hill. As such, the sampling point did not receive run-on surface flow from positions immediately upslope. Further, we avoided sampling the areas covered by canopy to minimize the interzeption effects. Each sampling point was carefully chosen in the clearing areas far from the tree trunks to avoid also problems due to stemflow.

The samples were collected using the same sampling device consisting of a motorized soil column cylinder auger set in which a core tube (60 cm in length) with a larger internal diameter (11 cm) is accommodated. The three depth profiles were sectioned into increments of 2 cm and were analyzed separately for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  and  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  content. Before radiometric analyses, all samples were dried and sieved to <2 mm. In a previous study, the soil samples collected within the catchment were analyzed for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  using high-resolution HPGe detectors available at the Agraria Department at the University Mediterranea of Reggio Calabria, Italy (Porto et al., 2014). Counting times for the samples collected during that campaign were ca. 80,000 s, providing a precision of ca.  $\pm 10\%$  at the 95% confidence level. The reference samples of 2021 were also analyzed for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  with the same detector settings. All  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  measurements were decay corrected to 01.01.2014 and used to calculate  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  to  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  activity ratios.

## 2.2 Extraction of $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$ and mass spectrometry for atom ratio and concentration measurements

All samples (5-10g) were oven-dried at 105°C for 48 h, mechanically disaggregated and dry-sieved to recover the <2 mm fraction. First, a representative sub-sample of this fraction was spiked with ~ 0.005 Bq of a  $^{242}\text{Pu}$  yield tracer (licensed solution from NIST). Next, Pu was leached with 16M nitric acid overnight at 80 °C and separated from the leach solution using a Pu-selective TEVA resin (Ketterer et al., 2011). The isotope dilution calculations determined the masses of  $^{239}\text{Pu}$  and  $^{240}\text{Pu}$  present in the sample and then converted them into the summed  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  activity. The analysis was done with a Thermo X7 quadrupole ICP-MS system at Universidad de Cádiz. Please refer to Meusburger et al. (2020) for details on the instrument method.

The information of  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  combined with relation to  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  allows for assessing the origin of the fallout (e.g., Chernobyl derived versus global bomb fallout). A prerequisite for using the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  to  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  activity ratio is that Pu is exclusively derived from global fallout. Thus, in a first step, by determining the  $^{240}\text{Pu}$  to  $^{239}\text{Pu}$  atom ratios around 0.18 confirmed the  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  origin merely from global bomb fallout (Kelley et al., 1999). In a second step,  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  to  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  activity ratios reveal the percentage of bomb derived (ratio 0.027) versus Chernobyl derived (ratio 0.013) (Ketterer et al., 2004; Xu et al., 2013; Meusburger et al., 2016; Meusburger et al., 2020). A prerequisite for using the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  to  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  activity ratio is that Pu is exclusively derived from global fallout. The  $^{240}\text{Pu}$  to  $^{239}\text{Pu}$  atom ratios can verify the origin of the fallout. Atom ratios of 0.18 indicate global fallout

### 141 2.3 Conversion of Pu-239+240 activities to soil redistribution rates

142 The total inventory (Bq m<sup>-2</sup>) of each bulk soil core was calculated as the product of the measured  
143 <sup>239+240</sup>Pu activity (Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>) and the dry mass of the <2 mm fraction of the bulk core (kg),  
144 divided by the surface area associated with the soil core (m<sup>2</sup>). The inventories were converted into soil  
145 redistribution rates using the Profile Distribution model PDM (Walling et al., 2002; Walling et al., 2014)  
146 and the model Modelling Deposition and Erosion rates with RadioNuclides (MODERN (Arata et al.,  
147 2016a; Arata et al., 2016b)). The profile distribution model is commonly employed to interpret the  
148 shape of an FRN along the soil profile. It assumes an exponential depth distribution, and the depth of  
149 soil removed by erosion is estimated by comparing the reduction in the FRN inventory with that related  
150 to the reference site (see Porto et al., 2003). MODERN aligns the sampling site's total inventory to the  
151 measured shape of the reference site's depth profile to estimate the thickness of soil losses/gains. The  
152 intersection along the soil profile represents the solution of the model. We selected 1963 as the reference  
153 year for the erosion rate conversion. In 1963, the main global fallout peak occurred, commonly used in  
154 conversion models (Walling et al., 2002). The PDM equation was implemented in R, while MODERN  
155 was calculated with Matlab R2022b.

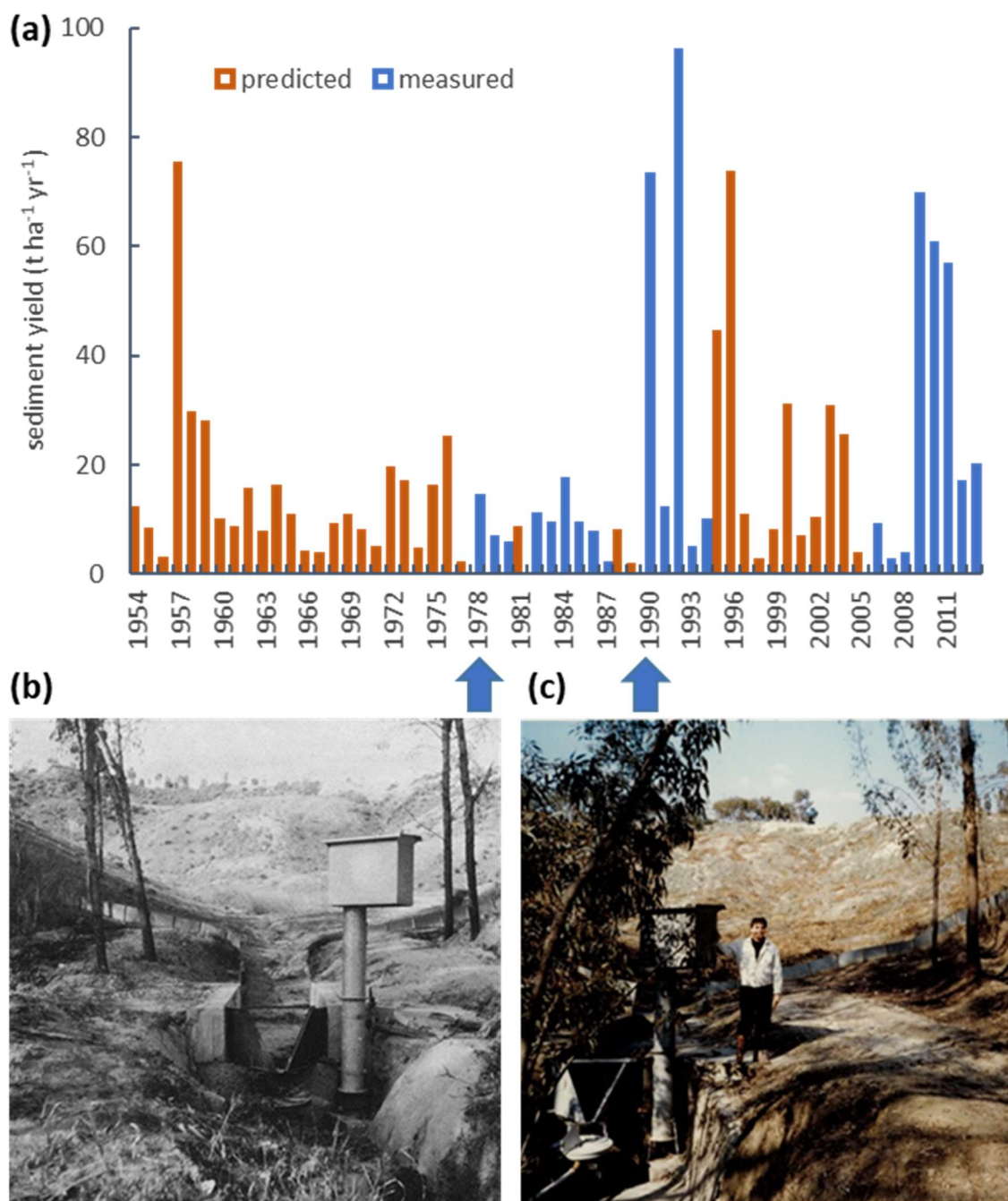
156 We accounted for the uncertainty in the conversion procedure by running both conversion models 100  
157 times, sampling from the reference and the erosion inventory within the uncertainty bounds and for the  
158 PDM in addition to the shape factor  $h_0$ . The sampling was done from normal distributions, defined by  
159 the mean measured value and the standard deviations (SD): i) of the repeated ICP-MS measurements  
160 for the erosional sites, ii) of the replicate reference inventories, iii) of the three depth profiles for the  $h_0$   
161 factor (Error! Reference source not found. Supplementary Figure 1).

### 162 2.4 Sediment yield measurements

163 Since 1978, precipitation, runoff and sediment yield have been measured in the W2 catchment (Cantore  
164 et al., 1994). Precipitation was recorded using a tipping bucket rain gauge, and runoff was measured at  
165 the outlet using an H-flume structure equipped with a mechanical stage recorder. Below the H-flume,  
166 the sediment load was measured with a Coshocton wheel sampler (Porto et al., 2003). Sediment yield  
167 data used in this analysis is related to the period from 1978 to 1994 (Cantore et al., 1994) and from 2006  
168 to 2013 (Fig. 2). However, due to the malfunctioning of the sediment sampling equipment in the  
169 catchment during some events, direct measurements of total annual sediment yield values are not  
170 available for all years. To account for these missing years, the corresponding sediment output was  
171 estimated using the Arnoldus Index, for which long-term observations are available from the station of  
172 Crotone located ca. 10 km distant from the study catchment (see Capra et al., 2017). The standard error  
173 of this regression was 23 t ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. These estimates were then incorporated into the annual record of



174 sediment yield (Fig. 2), and the sediment yield data was extrapolated to cover the period 1963–2013,  
 175 corresponding to the period captured by  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   $\text{Pu-}^{239+240}$  derived soil redistribution assessments.



176

177 Fig. 2 Measured (orange) and predicted (blue) annual sediment yield (t ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) of the headwater  
 178 catchment W2 (a). Predictions of sediment yields are based on a significant relation to Arnoldus  
 179 erosivity index. In 1968, *Eucalyptus occidentalis* Engl. was planted in the catchment that was harvested  
 180 in 1978 (b) (photo by M. Raglione, from Avolio et al., (1980)) and a second time in 1990 (c).

181 **2.5 Spatial extrapolation of  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   $\text{Pu-}^{239+240}$  derived estimates**

182 ~~Regionalization~~ We used a generalized additive model (GAM) to upscale of the point erosion estimates  
 183 to the entire catchment. Spatially explicit soil redistribution rates for the entire catchment are needed to

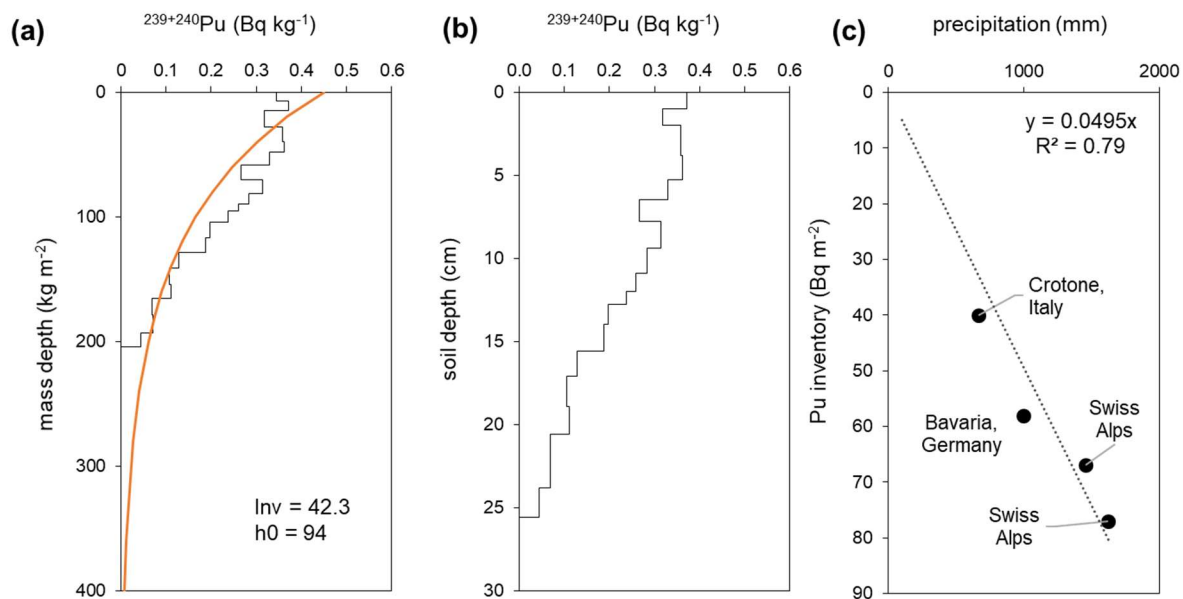
enable was done to the comparison to the sediment yields measured at the catchment's outlet with Pu-derived sediment yields. Therefore, generalized additive models (GAMs) were fitted to the measured erosion estimates using spatially explicit covariates. As spatial covariates, elevation, slope, aspect, flow accumulation, and scarce, discontinuous tree cover (as 0 and 1 categorical variables, see Fig. 1) were tested. These covariates were derived from a DEM with 3m spatial resolution using the terrain function from the raster package. Because of the small sample size of 55 sites, only a maximum of three covariables could be added to the model. For cross-validation (n=50) of the spatial prediction, the data were randomly split into 80% training and 20% testing data. GAMs can account for nonlinear relationships by coefficients that can be expanded as smooth functions of covariates. These smooth terms were modelled by splines, and geographic coordinates (x and y) were modelled as a 2d spline. To prevent overfitting, we used the restricted maximum likelihood (REML) method with the R package mgcv (Wood, 2006). As spatial covariates, elevation, slope, aspect, flow accumulation, and scarce, discontinuous tree cover (as 0 and 1 categorical variables, see Fig. 1) were tested. These covariates were derived from a DEM with 3m spatial resolution using the terrain function from the raster package. Because of the small sample size of 55 sites, only a maximum of three covariables could be added to the model. For cross-validation (n=50) of the spatial prediction, the data were randomly split into 80% training and 20% testing data.

### 3 Results and Discussion

#### 3.1 $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$ distribution at the reference sites

The mean measured  $^{240}\text{Pu}$  to  $^{239}\text{Pu}$  atom ratios at the reference and sampling sites were  $0.1879 \pm 0.03$  (Kelley et al., 1999). These atom ratios corresponded to the atom ratio found for the global fallout (Kelley et al., 1999) and confirmed global fallout as the sole source of Pu in the catchment.

The three reference depth profiles  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  activity at the reference site showed different shapes with soil depth (Error! Reference source not found, Supplementary Figure 1). While profile 2 displays the expected exponential decline with soil depth, profile 1 shows signs typically expected from erosional processes and profile 3 of depositional processes (Error! Reference source not found, Supplementary Figure 1, Error! Reference source not found.). Therefore, only profile 2 was assessed to be suitable for extracting the shape of the depth distribution for the conversion procedure (Fig. 3a). The penetration depth of  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  reached  $205 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ , corresponding to 26 cm soil depth (Fig. 3b). With an exponential model fit of the PDM, we derived an  $h_0$  at  $94 \text{ kg m}^{-2}$ , representing the point where half of the activity is stored. The mean  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  reference inventory was estimated at  $42.3 \pm 3.5 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$ . The fitted-surface soil (0 cm) concentration, which was derived by fitting an exponential model, was  $0.45 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1}$  (Fig. 3a).



217

218 Fig. 3 (a)  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  activity with soil mass depth measured at the reference site (selected  
 219 profile 2). Inv corresponds to the total inventory of the soil, and  $h_0$  to the shape factor of the exponential  
 220 fit (orange). (b)  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  activity with soil depth (cm) at the reference site (profile 2). (c)  
 221 Relation between Pu reference inventories and precipitation for studies in the Alps, Southern  
 222 Germany European studies (Schimmack et al., 2001; Alewell et al., 2014; Meusburger et al., 2018).

223 The  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  measurements of the 19 bulk reference soil cores showed a bimodal  
 224 distribution with six high inventories clustering at a mean of  $40.2 \pm 4.4 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$  and 13 low inventories  
 225 of  $15.0 \pm 2.8 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$ . The  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  activities of the bulk soil cores with low inventories  
 226 had activity values  $< 0.043 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1}$ , close to the detection limit, and the standard deviation of replicate  
 227 measurement of these samples was high. ~~To verify the plausibility of these low inventories, we~~  
 228 ~~calculated the Pu to Cs activity ratio~~ We calculated the Pu to Cs activity ratios to verify the plausibility  
 229 of these low inventories. For European soil samples, the activity ratio of Pu to Cs (with Cs being decay  
 230 corrected to 2014) is expected between 81 and 24 (Meusburger et al., 2020). However, the low inventory  
 231 bulk cores had mean Pu/Cs ratios of 156, which is clearly outside this range. A possible explanation for  
 232 these very low Pu values in the reference site might be ~~due to~~ the mixing and dilution of deeper layers  
 233 with no Pu activity into the bulk reference soil cores. Therefore, these ~~low-low~~ reference bulk samples  
 234 were removed from further analysis. Bulking of Pu samples causing a dilution of the Pu activity should  
 235 be avoided, particularly in areas of high erosion or low initial fallout (Wilken et al., 2021). Here, we  
 236 ~~were able to resolve~~ resolved the dilution problem due to the availability of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  data, as the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   
 237  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  to  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  activity ratios were valuable in identifying the suitability of the  
 238 reference samples. The plausibility of the Pu inventory was further underpinned when the inventory  
 239 was related to the mean annual precipitation of other published European studies (Fig. 3c). The few  
 240 published Pu inventories in Europe (Schimmack et al., 2001; Alewell et al., 2014; Meusburger et al.,  
 241 2018) show a linear relation to mean annual precipitation with 77, 67, 58  $\text{Bq m}^{-2}$  for 1650, 1450, 950

242 mm of rainfall. The high inventory of this study of  $40.2 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$  plots on the linear relation (Fig. 3c),  
243 while the low inventory of  $15 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$  is below the expected amount given the catchment's mean annual  
244 precipitation. Taking the depth distribution reference and only the six high inventories of bulk soil cores  
245 into account, the mean reference inventory of the soil profiles was  $40.5 \pm 3.5 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$  with a coefficient  
246 of variation of 8.6%. In the context of other Pu studies conducted in Europe, our inventories are at the  
247 lower end of the spectrum due to the low rainfall in these Mediterranean regions. However, in the  
248 context of global studies, even lower Pu inventories are common, e.g. in the Kongo with 8.0-24.4 Bq  
249  $\text{m}^{-2}$  in non-forested reference sites (Wilken et al., 2021) and Australia with  $8.8 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$  (Lal et al., 2013).  
250 All in all, following the above-described procedure, the  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  reference inventories had  
251 a small spatial variability with a CV of <9%. For  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ , the CV was 11.6% in the same reference  
252 area (see Porto and Callegari, 2022). The spatial variability of Pu in reference sites was comparable to  
253 previous studies (Alewell et al., 2014; Meusburger et al., 2016).

### 254 3.2 Catchment inventories and soil redistribution rates at sampling points

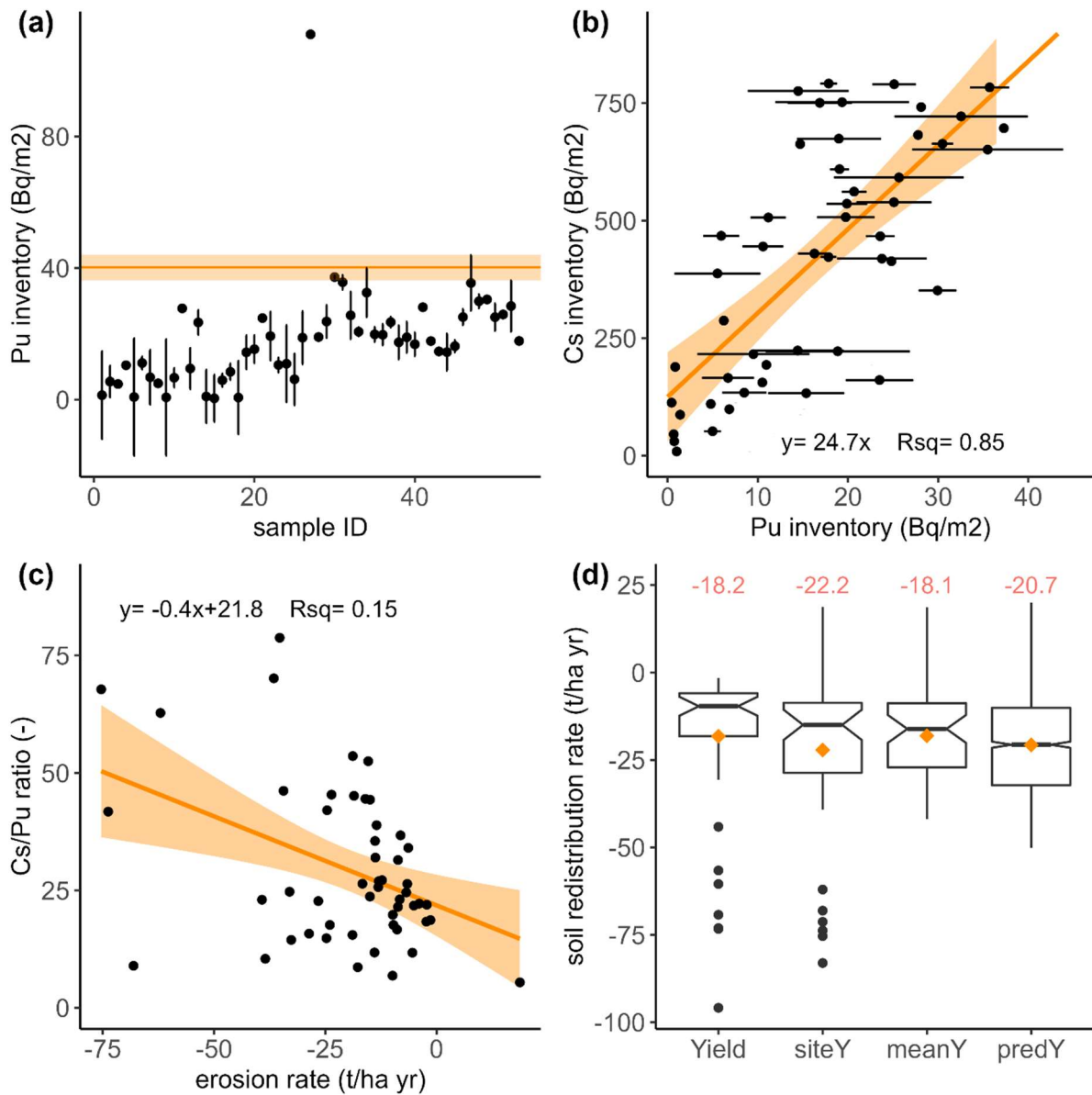
255 The  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  activities at the sampling sites ranged from  $0.001$  to  $0.143 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1}$  with a  
256 mean of  $0.066 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1}$ . The uncertainties of repeated ICP-MS measurements increase with decreasing  
257 activities from the smallest SD of  $0.0004 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1}$  to the largest of  $0.067 \text{ Bq kg}^{-1}$  corresponding to <1%  
258 to larger >100% of the measured activity with a median-mean of 220% (Supplementary Figure 3).

259 The respective mean  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  inventories for all 55 sites were  $16.8 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$  with a spatial  
260 SD of  $\pm 10.2 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$ , thus less than half of the reference inventory. Given the uncertainty bounds, all  
261 inventories, except for four sites, were significantly smaller than the reference inventory, indicating soil  
262 erosion (Fig. 4a). One site close to the catchment outlet had a very high  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  inventory  
263 of  $111 \text{ Bq m}^{-2}$  exceeding the reference inventory by almost three times (Fig. 4a). The  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   
264 inventories are significantly ( $p < 0.001$ ) correlated to the  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  inventories with 24.7  
265 times more  $\text{Bq m}^{-2}$  for  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  (Fig. 4b). The Cs/Pu activity ratios of the catchment sites were at  
266 the lower range of the plausible fallout range (between 23.9 = global and 81.3 = Chernobyl) with a  
267 mean value of 24.7. The activity ratios are significantly ( $p < 0.005$ ) decreasing with decreasing erosion  
268 rates even though  $R^2$  of the regression is with 0.15 very low (Fig. 4c).

269 This depletion in  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  pointed towards a preferential loss of  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  during soil loss. A  
270 possible explanation might be that  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  is transported with different soil particles as Pu, which  
271 are more susceptible to soil erosion. It is known that  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  exhibits a different sorption  
272 behaviour to soil particles compared to, e.g.  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ . Pu is mainly associated with organic matter  
273 and sesquioxides in addition to clay particles, whereas  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  is predominantly bound to the fine  
274 mineral clay fraction (Lujaniene et al., 2002; Qiao et al., 2012; Meusburger et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2017).  
275 As a consequence,  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  is more exchangeable and might more easily migrate

276 downward in soils (Schimmack et al., 2001; Meusburger et al., 2016). This different sorption behaviour  
 277 may result in different depth distributions, which have important implications for its use as a soil erosion  
 278 tracer, e.g. regarding the conversion of measured FRN inventory changes into soil redistribution rates.  
 279 Further, it may also have implications regarding interpreting  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   $\text{Cs-137}$  to  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   $\text{Pu-239+240}$   
 280 activity ratios that may be shifted outside the expected ranges at sites affected by soil redistribution.

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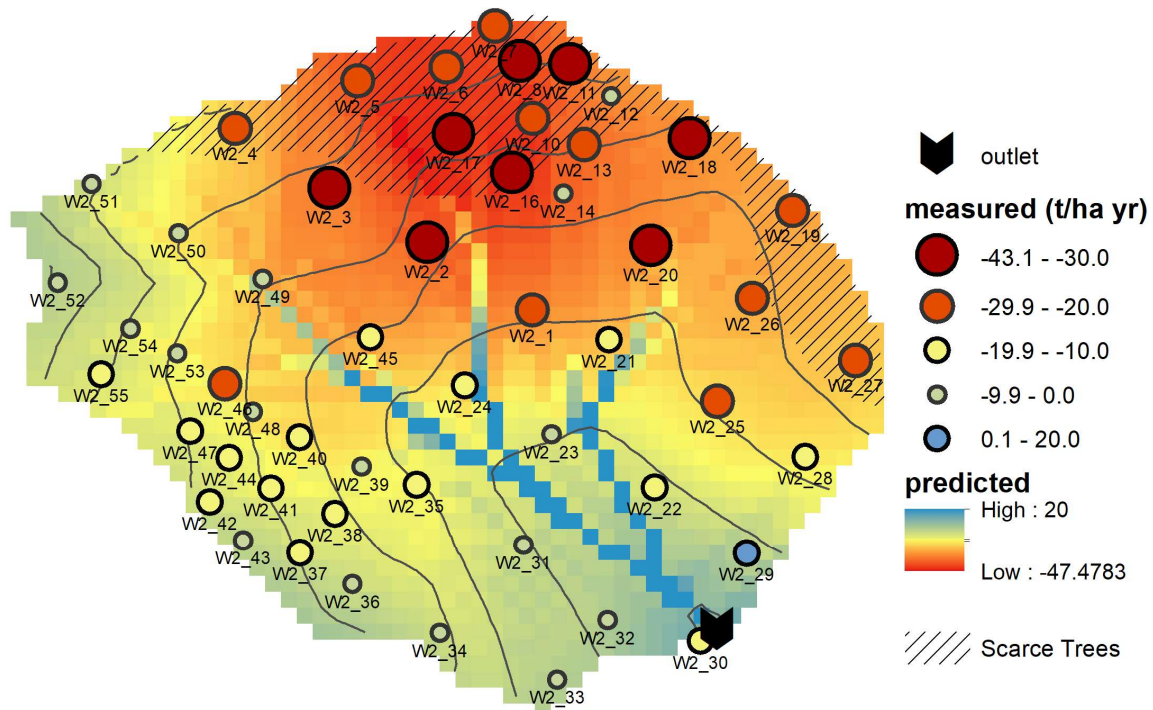
283 Fig. 4 (a)  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   $\text{Pu-239+240}$  inventories with measurement errors in relation to sample ID (points)  
 284 and the reference inventory (orange line with ribbon). (b) Relation between  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$   $\text{Pu-239+240}$  and  
 285  $^{137}\text{Cs}$   $\text{Cs-137}$  inventories (error bars indicate the measurement error for Pu) with a linear trend line. (c)  
 286 Activity ratio of Cs to Pu versus erosion rate. (d) Measured sediment yield at catchment outlet (Yield),  
 287 Pu-derived erosion rates based on measured inventories within the catchment (siteY) and as a mean of  
 288 the repeated conversion results (meanY), and mean of regionalized catchment Pu-derived erosion rates  
 289 (predY). Orange points and text show the mean values of each approach.

### 290 3.3 Comparison of <sup>239+240</sup>Pu ~~Pu-239+240~~ derived soil redistribution rates and sediment 291 yield of the catchment

292 Soil redistribution rates obtained from the established conversion model PDM and the relatively new  
293 MODERN agree very well (Error! Reference source not found.). This agrees with previous  
294 comparisons done for different conversion models and FRNs (Meusburger et al., 2018). We produced  
295 three sets of Pu-derived soil redistribution rates using i) direct conversion of the site inventories (siteY)  
296 and ii) the average of 100 Monte Carlo conversion models per site generated by sampling within the  
297 uncertainty ranges of all input parameters (meanY) and iii) regionalized estimates for the catchment  
298 (predY). For the point estimates will refer to these meanY in the following because the uncertainty  
299 related to the entire procedure is included in this second set of redistribution rates.

300 Soil redistribution rates were highly variable within the catchment (Fig. 5). The highest soil loss with  
301  $43 \pm 20 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  occurred in the upper part with patchy tree cover. Generally, the sites with scarce tree  
302 cover and adjacent sites showed the highest soil erosion rates. Downslope and towards the outlet of the  
303 catchment, the erosion rates decrease. Close to the outlet, soil deposition of  $18.7 \pm 2.0 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  was  
304 observed in one measurement point (W2\_29). The deposition rate is, however, difficult to quantify  
305 without knowledge of the respective soil source area or a Pu depth profile in the deposition site. The  
306 average of all measured site redistribution rates (siteY) indicated erosion of  $-22.2 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  with a spatial  
307 standard deviation of  $\pm 21.1 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . On average, the standard deviation, derived from repeated Monte  
308 Carlo conversions, of these redistribution rates were  $7.2 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ , with a slightly lower median of the  
309 standard deviations of  $4.2 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  corresponding to a mean CV of 45% and a median CV of 36%.  
310 Generally, higher erosion estimates are subject to higher standard deviations resulting from higher  
311 uncertainties for measuring low Pu activities. Excluding these measurement uncertainties from the  
312 Monte Carlo conversion reduced the CV of the erosion estimates to mean and median CVs of 19% and  
313 13%, respectively.

314 The XY-coordinates, elevation, and flow accumulation best explained the spatial pattern of soil  
315 redistribution rates. The deviance explained with these two spatial covariates was 56.7%, with lower  
316 accuracy of 24% for the cross-validation procedure. The spatial pattern of the predicted soil  
317 redistribution rates showed erosion in most of the catchment (Fig. 5). Only in grid cells with high flow  
318 accumulation deposition occurred. The average redistribution rate from the grid cells (predY) amounted  
319 to  $-20.7 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (Fig 4d). Given the mean measured sediment yield at the outlet (Yield) of  $-18.2 \text{ t}$   
320  $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  (standard deviation between years of  $21.8 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ), this corresponds to a 14% overestimation  
321 of the mean soil loss by the Pu method (Fig 4d). The sediment yield (Yield) corresponds to the off-site  
322 net erosion over time while the Pu-derived rates (siteY, meanY and predY) to the on-site erosion over  
323 space. Their correspondence indicates that most of the on-site eroded sediments are delivered to the  
324 outlet of the stream channel within the considered period.



325

326 Fig. 5 Soil redistribution rates assessed with Pu-derived soil redistribution rates (points) and spatial  
 327 prediction of soil redistribution rates based on these point rates using XY-coordinates, elevation and  
 328 flow accumulation as spatial covariates.

329 The Pu-derived soil erosion rates in the catchment were very high, with maximum values  $< -40 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$   
 330 <sup>1</sup>. However, documented soil erosion peaks in this area can reach up to  $100\text{--}150 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  during  
 331 exceptional rainfall events (Porto et al., 2018; Porto et al., 2022). The sediment yield time series reveals  
 332 that besides the rainfall erosivity, particularly the second harvest of eucalyptus trees (1990), triggered  
 333 soil erosion. The soil conservation effect of the eucalyptus trees was also revealed by the lower Pu  
 334 inventory and, therefore, higher soil losses in the catchment area with scarce tree cover. The protective  
 335 effect of trees (Sorriso-Valvo et al., 1995; Zhou et al., 2002) and vegetation cover, in general, was also  
 336 found in other studies and reviewed by Zuazo and Pleguezuelo (2009). Flow accumulation, a proxy for  
 337 runoff concentration in a catchment, was an important predictor of soil erosion patterns. Interestingly,  
 338 the relationship was negative with lower soil losses and higher chances for deposition with increasing  
 339 flow accumulation. A reason for this was likely the collinearity between decreasing slopes with  
 340 increasing flow accumulation, reducing the sediment transport capacity (Xiao et al., 2017). Still, flow  
 341 accumulation performed better than alternative GAM models, including slope.

342 Mean <sup>239+240</sup>PuPu-<sup>239+240</sup>-based mean soil redistribution rates were  $-20.7 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  and 14% higher as  
 343 measured sediment yields at the catchment outlet. Given both methods' uncertainties and variability,  
 344 comparable magnitudes were achieved. In a recent study, Porto and Callegari (2022) found <sup>137</sup>Cs Cs-  
 345 <sup>137</sup>-redistribution mean rates of  $-20.4 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . The <sup>137</sup>Cs Cs-<sup>137</sup> and <sup>239+240</sup>PuPu-<sup>239+240</sup> derived soil  
 346 redistribution rates are in good agreement.

## 347 4 Conclusion

348 Recent measurements of ~~<sup>239+240</sup>Pu Pu-239+240~~ in a catchment in Southern Italy provided essential  
349 insights into the suitability of the ~~<sup>239+240</sup>PuPu-239+240~~ technique to estimate soil erosion rates. We also  
350 rigorously tested the uncertainties involved in the approach. In our case study, the highest uncertainty  
351 resulted from the high measurement uncertainty of low inventory samples, with a median CV of 21%  
352 and a high measurement uncertainty of <1% – 100%. This high uncertainty can, for future studies, be  
353 minimized by (i) taking incremental soil depth samples, avoiding dilution with deeper horizons of low-  
354 activity soil, and (ii) extracting Pu on larger soil samples ~~(~20g)~~ to reach Pu activities >0.02 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>.  
355 Based on values with adequate measurement certainty, the ~~<sup>239+240</sup>PuPu-239-240~~ technique showed a low  
356 spatial variability of the reference inventory (CV <9%) and the shape of the Pu distribution within the  
357 soil profile proved stable adsorption to the topsoil. Patterns of inventory loss were related to soil  
358 redistribution processes, with the best spatial predictors being tree cover and flow accumulation. The  
359 Pu-assessed redistribution rates were in agreement with ~~<sup>137</sup>Cs Cs-137~~-derived rates and sediment yield  
360 measurements at the catchment outlet.

361 Increasing climatic extremes associated with more intense farming practices endanger our soil  
362 resources, and new tools to monitor soil losses are of utmost importance. So far, the tracer ~~<sup>137</sup>Cs Cs-137~~  
363 has been a powerful approach to assess soil redistribution rates since its fallout. However, alternative  
364 tracers are needed in light of the subsequent decay of ~~<sup>137</sup>Cs Cs-137~~ approaching the detection limit. In  
365 most aspects, tThe ~~<sup>239+240</sup>Pu Pu-239-240~~ technique works analogue to the ~~<sup>137</sup>Cs Cs-137~~ technique.  
366 However, sample preparation with extraction is more demanding and destructive to the soil, while for  
367 the <sup>137</sup>Cs method soils are only sieved and dried and might be re-used for further analysis. to Pu isotopes  
368 from the soils. We conclude that ~~<sup>239+240</sup>PuPu-239+240~~, with its considerably longer half-life, is a suitable  
369 and promising soil redistribution tracer.

370



371 **Data availability**

372 The authors declare that all other data supporting the findings of this study are available within the  
373 article and its Supplementary Information files.

374 **Acknowledgements**

375 We thank the University of Cadiz for ~~the measurement of measuring~~ <sup>239+240</sup>PuPu-239+240 on the ICP-  
376 MS.

377 **Author information**

378 **Contributions**

379 K.M., C.A, and P. P. conceptualized the study. P.P. collected the samples, J.K.-W. measured them and  
380 calculated the measurement uncertainties. K.M. and P.P. did the data analysis. K.M. wrote the  
381 manuscript, and all co-authors contributed to the writing process.

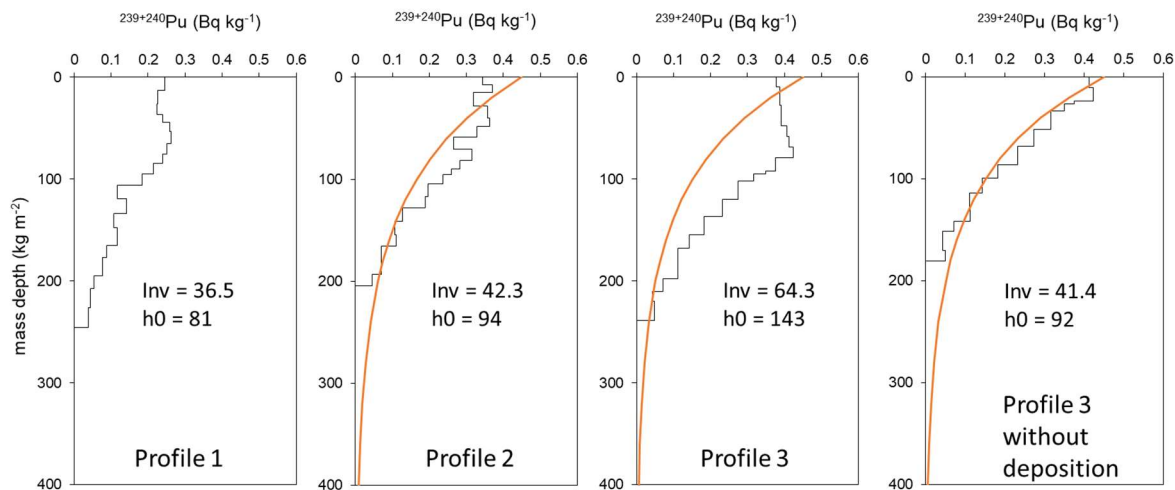
382 **Competing interests**

383 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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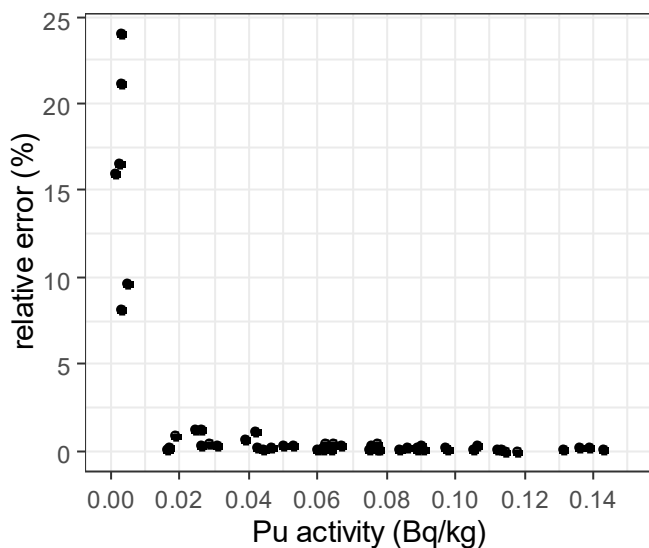
385 Supplementary Information

386 Appendix



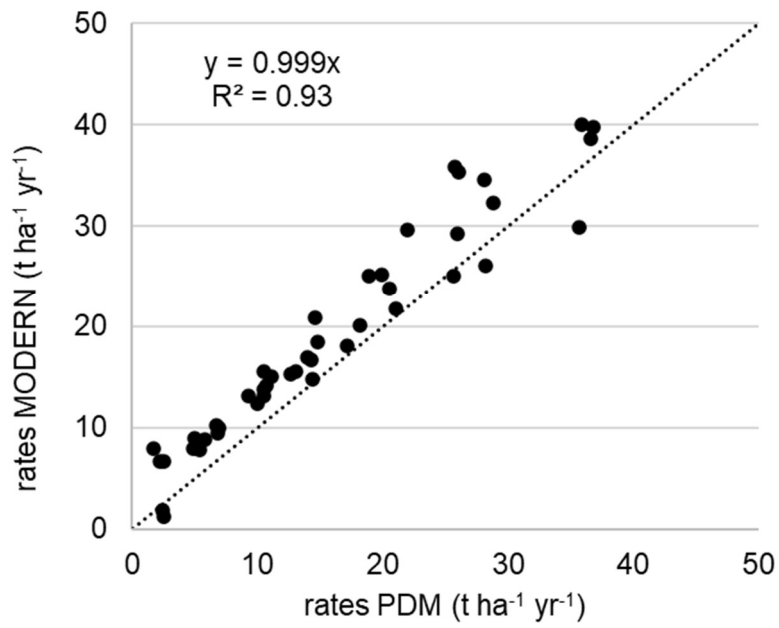
387

388 Supplementary Figure 1 Figure A1: Pu-239+240 activity with soil mass depth measured at three  
389 potential reference sites. Inv corresponds to the total inventory of the soil, and  $h_0$  to the shape factor of  
390 the exponential fit (orange). Profile 3 was fitted with and without deposition layers. The standard  
391 deviation of the depth distribution and  $h_0$  factor of profiles 1, 2 and 3 (without deposition) was used for  
392 the uncertainty assessment in the conversion model.



393

394 Supplementary Figure 2 Relative error (%) of replicate  $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$  activity measurements with a  
395 quadrupole ICP-MS. At low activities the relative error of the measurements increased.



396

397 [Supplementary Figure 3 Comparison of soil erosion rates between the Profile distribution conversion](#)  
398 [model \(PDM\) and the Modelling Deposition and Erosion rates with RadioNuclides \(MODERN\).](#)

399

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