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Comparing long-term observations of sediment yield with estimates of soil erosion rate based on recent ¹³⁷Cs measurements. Results from an experimental catchment in Southern Italy

This is the peer reviewed version of the following article:

Original

Comparing long-term observations of sediment yield with estimates of soil erosion rate based on recent ¹³⁷Cs measurements. Results from an experimental catchment in Southern Italy / Porto, P., Callegari, G..
- In: HYDROLOGICAL PROCESSES. - ISSN 0885-6087. - 36:9(2022). [10.1002/hyp.14663]

Availability:

This version is available at: <https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12318/152766> since: 2024-11-26T09:47:52Z

Published

DOI: <http://doi.org/10.1002/hyp.14663>

The final published version is available online at: <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/full/10.1002/hyp>.

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1 **Comparing Long-Term Observations of Sediment Yield with Estimates of Soil**
2 **Erosion Rate Based on Recent ¹³⁷Cs measurements. Results From an**
3 **Experimental Catchment in Southern Italy**

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5
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Codice campo modificato

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14
15 **Abstract**

16 Recent increase of soil erosion rates in Southern Italy emphasizes the need to identify areas subjected
17 to higher environmental risks. Over the last few decades, several techniques have been used to this
18 purpose. They include mainly experimental sites, like plots and catchments of different size, and the
19 use of prediction models calibrated using local parameters. More recently, some of the limitations
20 associated with these techniques suggested the use of radiotracers, mainly ¹³⁷Cs, both as alternative
21 and complementary tools to traditional methods. However, some of the assumptions associated with
22 the application of the ¹³⁷Cs technique still require testing and validation to provide robust estimates
23 of soil erosion rate. These assumptions relate mainly the ¹³⁷Cs spatial variability on the reference area
24 and the effects of possible additional fallout due to nuclear accidents (e.g. Chernobyl and/or
25 Fukushima). In this contribution, a small experimental catchment located in Calabria, Southern Italy,
26 was selected as a study area by virtue of its long-term record (29 years) of sediment yield

27 measurements. This database made it possible a comparison between long-term observations and
28 estimates of soil erosion rate provided by recent measurements of ^{137}Cs . The overall results indicate
29 that if the uncertainty of the reference value is taken into account and the Chernobyl additional flux
30 is incorporated into a physically based conversion model, the latter is able to provide robust estimates
31 of soil erosion rate in the area.

32

33 **Keywords:** Soil erosion, ^{137}Cs , Model validation, Experimental catchments, Italy

34

35 **1. INTRODUCTION**

36 Soil erosion by water affects large areas of forested and cultivated lands of Southern Italy.
37 Experimental sites, mainly plots and catchments of different size, documented peaks of soil loss
38 higher than $100\text{-}150\text{ t ha}^{-1}\text{ yr}^{-1}$ if associated with exceptional rainfall events (see Porto et al., 2018;
39 2022). Recent studies carried out in Calabria indicated also a general increase in the number of heavy
40 precipitation events, intensity and frequency since about 1950 (Capra et al. 2017). These effects have
41 important consequences for environmental risks such as floods, landslides, land degradation, and pose
42 serious questions on their economic impact on soil productivity for the coming years. Recent
43 investigations made at larger scale by Panagos et al. (2018) indicated that the annual cost of loss in
44 agricultural productivity is estimated at ca. €1.25 billion in Europe. Italy is one of the countries that
45 suffers the highest economic impact especially in those areas where human activities are based mainly
46 on agriculture. In order to establish effective countermeasures to contain such problem and to set the
47 priorities of intervention, it is necessary to identify the areas at higher risk. These actions require
48 robust techniques able to provide suitable estimates of soil erosion rate. To date, a number of different
49 techniques have been used to measure and predict soil erosion and sedimentation rates in different
50 areas of Italy. Among them, traditional monitoring techniques, such as experimental plots or
51 catchments, are essential to monitor soil erosion over different land-use and topography (see
52 Bagarello et al., 2018) but are expensive and time consuming; the use of empirical (Bagarello et al.,

53 2011) or theoretically based models (Ferro and Porto, 2000) proved to be very useful, if locally
54 calibrated, but they have certain limitations in terms of validation at larger scales and over long-term
55 periods. Alternative approaches, based on the use of fallout radionuclides (FRNs), including mainly
56 cesium-137 (^{137}Cs), proved to be very effective to assemble information on long-term and spatial
57 patterns of erosion and deposition rates especially if coupled with existing traditional methods (Porto
58 et al. 2014; Porto and Walling, 2015). The fallout radionuclide ^{137}Cs (with a half-life of ca. 30 years)
59 is associated with the testing of nuclear weapons occurring from the late 1950s to the early 1960s
60 (Ritchie and Ritchie 2005; IAEA, 2014; Zapata et al., 2002). The successful application of this
61 technique is based on a comparison between the inventory values obtained in single sampling points
62 established in the area under investigation and a so-called ' ^{137}Cs reference value' obtained in
63 undisturbed sites at time of sampling. For several decades the technique was applied in many areas
64 of the world and demonstrated many advantages that include in turn:

- 65 1) the relative simplicity of the approach (Zapata et al., 2002; IAEA, 2014);
- 66 2) the possibility, after a single field visit, to obtain retrospective information of soil redistribution
67 rates (Mabit et al., 2008; Walling and Quine, 1992);
- 68 3) the ability to get a spatial distribution of the estimates derived from single sampling points
69 (Mabit et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2019);
- 70 4) the opportunity to calibrate and validate empirical and theoretical soil erosion models based on
71 both lumped and distributed approaches (Walling and He, 1998; Porto and Walling, 2015;
72 Zhang et al., 2017);
- 73 5) the potential to avoid additional costs due to the establishment of experimental plots or
74 catchments (Loughran, 1989);
- 75 6) the ability to provide sediment budgets for large areas especially if sedimentation sites like
76 floodplains and reservoirs are surveyed and periodically monitored (Campbell et al., 1988;
77 Gellis and Walling, 2011; Belyaev et al., 2013; Minella et al., 2014; Navas et al., 2014).

78 There are, however, some important limitations associated with this technique. These are as follows:

79 1) the estimates of soil redistribution rates are related to a reference value that establishes the basic
80 line of ^{137}Cs in the area. In the absence of direct measurements of fallout, this value is deduced
81 from soil sampling on stable sites located in the vicinity of the study area. This choice assumes
82 that no disturbance has occurred in those sites since the commencement of fallout in 1954 (see
83 Zapata et al., 2002), and that the spatial variability of the ^{137}Cs inventory is limited (see
84 Sutherland, 1994; 1996). These assumptions are sometimes overlooked, especially in areas
85 affected by additional ^{137}Cs fallout (like Chernobyl and Fukushima accidents), and this can lead
86 to biased estimates of the ^{137}Cs reference value and, consequently, erroneous estimates of
87 erosion and deposition rates;

88 2) the choice of a conversion model able to convert loss or gain of ^{137}Cs into estimates of soil
89 erosion or deposition needs attention. To date, a number of conversion models have been used
90 in many areas of the world (see Walling et al., 1999; 2005). These include (a) empirical
91 equations able to establish a relationship between soil erosion rates and ^{137}Cs inventory losses
92 (see among the others Ritchie and McHenry, 1990; Elliott et al., 1990; Walling and Quine,
93 1990; Loughran and Campbell, 1995), and (b) theoretical approaches (different for cultivated
94 and uncultivated sites) that try to interpret the variation of ^{137}Cs activity along a soil profile
95 (Yang et al., 1998; Walling and He, 1999; Porto et al., 2003). Basically, these models need
96 calibration and validation using local parameters and this limitation is often overlooked or
97 ignored in many studies;

98 3) most of the estimates of erosion rate provided by the ^{137}Cs technique are essentially unvalidated
99 (Porto et al., 2003). The main reason is related to the lack of long-term measurements of soil
100 loss available for a time window comparable with that covered by the ^{137}Cs measurements.
101 Only a few contributions made in this direction are available in the literature and include (a)
102 the work of Zhang (2018), in which 34 years of soil loss measurements, carried out since 1978
103 in a cultivated catchment unit (1.6 ha in size) in USA, were compared with equivalent estimates
104 obtained from ^{137}Cs ; (b) the works of Porto et al. (2004; 2014; 2018), in which sediment yield

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106 measurements covering between 17 and 24 years obtained in 3 uncultivated catchments (ca. 1.5
107 ha in size) in southern Italy were used for the same purpose; (c) a shorter-term, but significant,
108 study made by Kachanoski (1987) in Canada, in which 11-year measurements over ten
109 experimental plots (44-m long) were used to test the ^{137}Cs re-sampling approach. Other attempts
110 made in this direction are available in the literature but, to the authors knowledge, they are
111 limited to short-term observations of soil erosion and this makes such comparison inappropriate
112 (see, among the others, Evans et al., 2017; [Boardman and Evans, 2020](#); [Evans and Boardman,](#)
113 [2021](#)).

114 In the light of the above considerations, it is clear that the basic assumptions required by the ^{137}Cs
115 technique need to be further validated in contexts where long-term measurements of soil erosion are
116 available and where information on ^{137}Cs spatial and temporal variability can be deduced.

117 In this paper, a small experimental catchment located in Southern Italy, for which a 29-year dataset
118 of sediment yield observations is available, was used for this purpose. Recent soil sampling
119 campaigns undertaken within the catchment area and over a large reference area allowed to test the
120 ability of a theoretical conversion model to derive soil erosion rates in this area. The overall analysis
121 revealed that if the spatial variability of ^{137}Cs inventory in the reference area is taken into account,
122 and a Chernobyl component is incorporated into the model, the ^{137}Cs technique provides a range of
123 soil erosion rates that compares very well with that covered by the long-term record of sediment yield
124 observed at the catchment outlet.

126 2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

127 2.1 The experimental catchment W2

128 The W2 (1.38 ha in size) is a sub-catchment of the larger Crepacuore basin (18.2 km²) that drains to
129 the Jonian sea ca. 5 km North of Crotona (39°04'50"N, 17°07'38"E) in Calabria, Southern Italy (**Fig.**
130 **1**). The W2 is located at Brasimato (39°07'52"N, 17°01'36"E), at a mean elevation of ca. 98 m a.s.l.
131 and with a mean slope of ca. 35%. Geologically, the area is incised into the Upper Pliocene and

132 Quaternary clays, sandy clays and sands and shows a soil texture made up of a silt-clay content of ca.
133 86% (Di Stefano et al., 2005).

134 The area experiences large seasonal fluctuations in climate with most of the rainfall occurring in
135 winter (from October to March) and concentrated in a few large events that account for more than
136 50% of the annual value (Porto and Callegari, 2019). Based on the data collected at the near station
137 of Crotona (39°04'45"N, 17°07'00"E), the mean annual rainfall related to the period 1916-2018 is
138 ca. 610 mm while the mean annual air temperature is ca. 17.7 °C.

139

140 **Figure 1** Study area and location of the experimental catchment W2

141

142 The catchment W2 has never been under cultivation and originally it supported a rangeland vegetation
143 cover consisting mainly of *Aegylops ovata*, *Atriplex halimus*, *Lepturus cylindricus* and *Lygeum*
144 *spartum*. In 1968 the catchment was afforested with Eucalyptus trees (*Eucalyptus occidentalis* E.) in
145 order to 1) reduce soil erosion in this region and b) expand the forested area in Calabria to increase
146 wood production. In 1978, a national 'Project on Soil Conservation' (Porto and Callegari, 2021) was
147 launched to monitor the effects of soil erosion in the country and the catchment W2 was included in
148 this framework. For this reason, this experimental unit was equipped to provide specific information
149 on rainfall, runoff and sediment yield in Southern Italy. More specifically, rainfall and runoff are
150 measured respectively with a mechanical raingauge located in the upper part of the catchment and an
151 H-flume weir (Brakensiek et al., 1979) coupled with a mechanical streamgauge located at the
152 catchment outlet (**Fig. 2**). Sediment yield records are provided using a Coshocton wheel placed
153 downstream the H-flume and coupled with two sized tanks that collect the portion of runoff that is
154 intercepted by the sampler. Measures of rainfall, runoff and sediment yield are generally obtained at
155 event scale. However, when short-time interval occurred between two or more consecutive events,
156 only one measurement of sediment yield was possible and the corresponding data of rainfall and
157 runoff responsible for that sediment output were aggregated accordingly. The sediment output for

158 each event (or cumulated events) is calculated by multiplying the mean sediment concentration
159 measured at the tanks times the corresponding runoff volume. The annual sediment yield is then
160 obtained by the sum of the sediment output related to the erosive events which occurred in that year.

161

162 **Figure 2** The device to monitor runoff and sediment yield at the catchment outlet

163

164 In 1978, at the beginning of the experiment, the eucalyptus trees were cut in order to evaluate the
165 effectiveness of the canopy cover on soil loss. A second cut was made in 1990 in order to 1) monitor
166 the long-term effect of afforestation on soil protection and 2) quantify the wood production of the
167 eucalyptus plantation. From 1990 to date no silvicultural treatments were applied and the condition
168 of trees was maintained more or less stable even if recent tree mortality related to an attack of
169 *Phoracantha semipunctata* (a species of beetle originating from Australia) caused a number of single
170 trees to fall down.

171

172 **2.2 The sediment output dataset**

173 The measurements of sediment output started at the beginning of the experiment in 1978.
174 Unfortunately, occasional malfunctioning of the equipment caused some interruption of the long-term
175 monitoring and for some years, that include 1981, 1988, 1989, and the period from 1995 to 2005, the
176 full records of sediment yield at the catchment outlet are not available. In December 2005 the
177 sampling equipment was refurbished and the monitoring activity recommenced, with no loss of data
178 until recent days. To date, a long-term (30 years) dataset of sediment yield is available for this
179 catchment and the annual values from 1978 to 2020 are illustrated in **Fig. 3**.

180

181 **Figure 3** The annual values of sediment yield at the catchment outlet

182

183 These measurements indicate a large inter-annual variability of sediment production that ranges
184 from a minimum of 1.7 t ha⁻¹ in 1987 to a maximum of 95.9 t ha⁻¹ in 1992, with a mean value equal
185 to 22.4 t ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ and a standard deviation equal to 25.0 t ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹. This variability reflects both the
186 seasonal regime of the rainfall, characterized by the occurrence of frequent flash floods, and the
187 silvicultural treatments applied to the trees that caused the exposure of soil to the rainfall impact. For
188 example, the existence of two extreme outliers in 1990 and 1992, associated with a particularly high
189 value of annual rainfall, coincided with a period of reduced vegetation cover as a result of logging
190 operations in 1990. These outliers emphasise the importance of extreme events to erosion (see Porto
191 and Callegari, 2019) and affected the uncertainty of the mean value provided by the long-term record.
192

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193 **2.3 The soil sampling campaigns for ¹³⁷Cs measurements**

194 The application of the ¹³⁷Cs technique in the W2 catchment was based on a comparison between the
195 inventory values obtained in single sampling points established in the catchment area and a ¹³⁷Cs
196 reference value obtained at time of sampling over a stable, undisturbed location. More specifically,
197 the ¹³⁷Cs measurements used in this paper relate to a) 55 sampling points established within the
198 catchment, that served to estimate the mean value of soil erosion in the area from the commencement
199 of fallout (in 1954) to the year of sampling (2021), and b) 12 sampling points selected on a new
200 identified reference area located ca. 7 km distant from the study catchment.

201

202 **2.3.1 The soil sampling campaign within the catchment area**

203 This sampling campaign was undertaken in the catchment W2 in February 2021, in order to check
204 the hydrological response of the catchment following a severe rainfall event occurred in November
205 2020. The purpose of the sampling was to collect information on ¹³⁷Cs inventories within the
206 catchment and to compare each value with the reference values obtained in a stable area. In this
207 campaign, 55 replicate bulk cores were collected following the sampling design established in 1998
208 by Porto et al. (2001). The samples were taken at the intersections of a 20 m x 20 m grid (**Fig. 4**) in

209 which additional sampling points were considered to cover those areas characterized by marked
210 variability of slope or canopy cover. The cores were collected using a steel core tube (11 cm diameter
211 – 40 cm length) driven into the ground by a motorized percussion corer and extracted by hand.
212 Because very low activity (or absence) of ^{137}Cs was expected for higher depths, each single core was
213 divided into two parts (20 cm in length each). The corresponding layers of the two cores were bulked
214 and the two composite layers were analyzed separately. This strategy served to ensure that a) the ^{137}Cs
215 activity was minimal or absent in the deeper layer and b) the ^{137}Cs activity of the upper layer was
216 high enough to reduce time of analysis.

217

218 **Figure 4** Location of the sampling points in the catchment W2

219

220 During this campaign, additional sectioned cores were also collected from several representative sites
221 within the catchment to provide information on the characteristics of the ^{137}Cs depth profiles within
222 the catchment.

223

224 **2.3.2 The soil sampling campaign to establish the basic line of ^{137}Cs in the study area**

225 Recognized international protocols for the application of the ^{137}Cs technique (see among the others
226 Kachanoski and de Jong, 1984; Zapata et al., 2002; IAEA, 2014; Porto et al., 2018) suggest that the
227 ^{137}Cs reference value can be estimated (a) from direct fallout data (where available), (b) from ^{137}Cs
228 levels at undisturbed areas (noneroded sites) located in the vicinity of the study area, or (c) from
229 previous measurements carried out at the same site (re-sampling strategy). In alternative, if none of
230 the three above criteria can be applied because fallout data, or previous ^{137}Cs measurements, are not
231 available and undisturbed location cannot be easily identified at short distance, a software provided
232 by IAEA can be used for this purpose (see IAEA, 2014). The software was established for applying
233 conversion models to ^{137}Cs inventories and it includes provision for estimating the local bomb fallout
234 reference inventory at a site, based on its global coordinates and its mean annual rainfall.

235 To date, direct fallout measurements are still not available near the study area but previous
236 investigations made by Porto et al. (2001, 2003, 2016, 2018) provided the basis for deriving a robust
237 ^{137}Cs reference value to be used in this work. A first ^{137}Cs reference value for catchment W2 was
238 obtained during a campaign undertaken in 1999 (Porto et al., 2001). In that case, a small undisturbed
239 area (10 m^2), covered by permanent grass, was individuated in the vicinity of the study catchment
240 and one sectioned core (surface area of 652 cm^2) plus six additional bulk cores (8.6 cm internal
241 diameter) were collected. The radiometric analysis provided, for the sectioned core, a value of the
242 reference inventory equal to 2609 Bq m^{-2} , and for the six cores a mean value of 2637 Bq m^{-2} with a
243 $\text{sd} = 315\text{ Bq m}^{-2}$ (values decay correct to 1998). A subsequent work made by the same research group
244 (see Porto et al., 2003) provided two additional reference values equal to 2430 Bq m^{-2} ($\text{sd} = 272\text{ Bq}$
245 m^{-2}) and 2445 Bq m^{-2} ($\text{sd} = 246\text{ Bq m}^{-2}$) (values decay correct to 2001) obtained, respectively, from
246 a small clearing (9 m^2) between the eucalyptus trees located in an adjacent catchment, and from an
247 undisturbed area (12 m^2), located at the same altitude and covered by pasture with some scattered
248 oaks. The same sampling strategy was adopted with a single sectioned core of larger surface area
249 (652 cm^2) and six additional bulk cores (8.6 cm internal diameter) collected around each site. In 2014,
250 a new sampling campaign was carried out, and the same reference site sampled in 1999 was revisited
251 to obtain a new reference value for ^{137}Cs (see Porto et al., 2018). In this case, eight soil samples from
252 a square area (25 m^2 in size) were collected using the same sampling device but a larger core tube
253 (internal diameter = 11 cm). Each sample was sectioned into increments of 1-4 cm and all the
254 corresponding subsamples from the eight cores were combined. A single bulked sample was obtained
255 for each depth and a total reference inventory of 1796 Bq m^{-2} (value decay correct to 2014) was
256 provided by the radiometric analysis. In this case, even if the sampling strategy allowed to account
257 for the micro-scale variability, no calculation of the standard deviation was possible.

258 Details of the reference values obtained in the past campaigns described above are reported in **Table**
259 **1**. The list includes also the estimate, provided by the IAEA software, of the ^{137}Cs bomb fallout

260 inventory at Crotone (1196 Bq m⁻²), located ca. 10 km distant. All the values have been standardized
261 to a fixed date at the end of 2020 in order to facilitate the comparison.

262 When looking at **Table 1**, two main issues can be noticed. The first issue relates to the on-site
263 variability of the mean reference inventories. In other words, even if the mean values obtained in
264 different sampling campaigns are comparable, they show large ranges with values of CV between
265 11% and 13% due to micro-scale variability. These values are in the acceptable range suggested by
266 other authors to make the cesium technique suitable (see Owens et al., 1996; Sutherland 1996).
267 However, some explanation of this spatial variability should be provided and, more important, this
268 inventory variation should be taken into account to establish to which extent the uncertainty related
269 to the reference values can affect the final estimates of soil erosion obtained by the single points
270 within the catchment area. A second, important, issue relates to the estimate of the ¹³⁷Cs bomb fallout
271 inventory at Crotone (1196 Bq m⁻²) provided by the IAEA software. This is lower than the measured
272 values provided by the soil sampling campaigns and suggests that the area may have received
273 Chernobyl fallout which has resulted in an increased inventory. In this respect, a recent contribution
274 by Porto et al. (2016) reported finding evidence of a Chernobyl peak in some sediment cores collected
275 from a reservoir close to the W2 catchment. They estimated that the total Chernobyl fallout input was
276 small, but this could provide one explanation of the different inventories and their spatial variability
277 reported in **Table 1**. In order to explore further these two issues, another specific sampling campaign
278 was undertaken in March 2021 over a larger stable area (ca. 1 ha in size), in which a systematic
279 collection of soil samples was possible. Unfortunately, the sites in which the previous campaigns
280 were undertaken are not available anymore due to a recent cultivation of the area, and a new,
281 undisturbed location, ca. 3.7 km distant from the study catchment, was selected for this purpose (see
282 **Fig. 5a**). Collection of 12 soil sectioned cores was made at the intersections of a 40 m x 40 m grid
283 (**Fig. 5b**) using the same sampling device employed by Porto et al. (2018) and consisting of a
284 motorized soil column cylinder auger set in which a core tube with internal diameter of 11 cm is

285 accommodated. Each sample was sectioned into increments of 2 cm and was analyzed separately for
286 ^{137}Cs content.

287
288 **Figure 5** The reference area a) location and b) sampling points

289
290

291 **2.4 The Sample Analysis**

292 After collection, all the samples were transported to the University of Reggio Calabria, where
293 radiometric analyses were carried out. Prior to the analyses of ^{137}Cs activity, all samples were air
294 dried and then oven dried for 48 h at 105°C and weighed to calculate the mass depth. After
295 disaggregating and sieving to <2 mm, each sample was mixed for 2h using a 3D shaker to homogenize
296 the ^{137}Cs content. Then, representative sub-samples were placed into Petri dishes or plastic pots of
297 different sizes depending on the sample mass. The radiometric analyses were made by two Canberra
298 p-type HPGe detectors, model GX4020, coupled with a multichannel Desktop Spectrum Analyzer
299 DSA-1000 Canberra. Both detectors are characterised by a relative efficiency of 45.6% with a
300 resolution of 1.1 keV at 122 keV and 2.0 keV at 1.33 MeV. The Canberra Genie 2000 software
301 package was used to perform the spectral analysis. More specifically, a Monte Carlo procedure,
302 associated with the Canberra's LabSOCS (Laboratory SOURCEless Calibration Software) code and
303 able to establish the calibration efficiency for any type of geometry was preliminarily performed for
304 each detector. The energy calibration was obtained using a certified ^{155}Eu and ^{22}Na multigamma
305 source with a wide energy range (42.8–1274.5 keV). Subsequently, a validation phase was performed
306 using the activity concentration for ^{137}Cs of standard materials presented to the detectors in containers
307 of identical geometry to those used for the study (Petri dishes or Marinelli beakers). The standards
308 were produced by adding a measured amount of certified liquid standard to a known amount of <2
309 mm soil with a ^{137}Cs activity below the level of detection and representative of the samples to be
310 analysed. This operation was repeated for each detector and the two types of equipment did not show

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311 substantial differences in terms of efficiency. The ^{137}Cs activities in the samples were obtained from
312 the counts at 662 keV. The background noise of the detection system was also evaluated using blank
313 samples of identical geometry in order to improve the accuracy of the measurement. All the samples
314 were placed at a distance $d = 0$ from the top of the detector and the counting time varied from ca.
315 80,000 to ca. 240,000 s depending on the activity that was expected for each sample. The above
316 procedure provided final results with an analytical precision of ca. 10% at the 95% level of confidence.
317 The lower limit of detection depends on efficiency and counting time, and thus, it differs from sample
318 to sample. The inventory (Bq m^{-2}) of each bulk core was calculated as the product of the measured
319 ^{137}Cs activity (Bq kg^{-1}) and the dry mass of the <2 mm fraction of the bulk core (kg), divided by the
320 surface area of the core (m^2). The total inventory corresponding to the sectioned cores (Bq m^{-2}) was
321 obtained in turn by summing the above product (Bq) of all layers, into which the core was sectioned,
322 divided by the surface area of the core (m^2).

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ha eliminato: The samples were measured by two Canberra p-type high-resolution low energy coaxial HPGe detectors (model GX4020) with a relative efficiency of 45%. The detectors are calibrated using the software LABSOCS (Laboratory Sourceless Calibration Software) and a multigamma source. Counting time varied from ca. 80,000 to ca. 240,000 s depending on the activity that was expected for each sample...

3. RESULTS

3.1 The ^{137}Cs inventories at the reference site

326 The total ^{137}Cs inventories associated with the 12 sectioned cores collected from the reference area in
327 March 2021 are reported in **Table 2**. It is clear from **Table 2** that, even if the calculated mean value
328 (1623 Bq m^{-2}) is consistent with those obtained from the past campaigns (listed in **Table 1**), it resulted
329 higher than that (1196 Bq m^{-2}) estimated at Crotona for the global fallout and indicates a possible
330 Chernobyl flux. Also, a general spatial variability can be observed. The measurements show a sd of
331 187.9 Bq m^{-2} and a range between 1363 Bq m^{-2} and 1976 Bq m^{-2} , again, consistent with those reported
332 in **Table 1** obtained from the previous analyses. The 12 corresponding ^{137}Cs profiles are illustrated
333 in **Fig. 6** in which the ^{137}Cs activity (Bq kg^{-1}) is plotted against the corresponding mass depth (kg m^{-2}).
334 All profiles conform with those typical of undisturbed sites with a maximum value at the soil
335 surface (Profiles 2, 5, 8, 9, and 10) or a peak a few cm below (Profiles 1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 11, and 12).

345 **Figure 6** ^{137}Cs depth distribution associated with the 12 profiles collected from the reference area. The dashed line
346 indicates the simulation obtained with the DMM (Eq. 3)

347

348 **3.2 The ^{137}Cs inventories within the catchment W2**

349 The values of ^{137}Cs inventory obtained for the 55 bulk cores collected in February 2021 ranged from
350 29 Bq m^{-2} to 1157 Bq m^{-2} , with a mean of 355 Bq m^{-2} and a standard deviation of 306 Bq m^{-2} . All
351 values of ^{137}Cs inventory obtained from these cores are less than the local reference inventories
352 reported in **Table 2**. The general depletion of ^{137}Cs inventory is consistent with that obtained in two
353 previous works by Porto et al. (2001, 2014) in which the same analysis for two different time windows
354 (1954-1998 and 1954-2013) was performed. This result suggests that the catchment has been
355 dominated by net soil loss over the period covered by the ^{137}Cs measurements (i.e. 1954-2020) and
356 that the presence of depositional areas is limited even if local depositional phenomena cannot be
357 excluded at the scale of single events (see Porto and Callegari, 2021).

358

359 **3.3 Converting the ^{137}Cs inventories into values of soil erosion rate**

360 In order to establish the amount of soil eroded from the catchment area it was necessary to convert
361 ^{137}Cs depletion into rates of erosion. This conversion is generally based on the degree of reduction of
362 the measured inventory, relative to the local reference inventory. Considering the uncertainty
363 associated with the reference inventories shown in **Table 2**, and assuming that all the 12 profiles are
364 equally representative of the reference area, we decided to use all 12 inventories as reference values
365 and to treat the resulting estimates as a range of soil erosion rates instead of a single value.

366 The conversion model used in this analysis is the Diffusion and Migration Model (DMM), in the
367 refined version proposed by Porto et al. (2003). This version of the DMM is based on a simulation of
368 the ^{137}Cs activity along a soil profile following measured records of the atmospheric fallout and its
369 temporal redistribution. Based on this premise, the DMM attempts to reproduce the activity of ^{137}Cs ,
370 for a single value of mass depth x and time t' , with the following equation:

371

373
$$C(x, t, t') = e^{-\lambda(t-t')} \int_0^\infty \frac{I(t')}{H} e^{-\frac{y}{H}} \left\{ e^{\frac{V(x-E-y)}{2D} - \frac{V^2(t-t')}{4D}} \left[e^{-\frac{(x-E+y)^2}{4D(t-t')}} + e^{-\frac{(x-E-y)^2}{4D(t-t')}} \right] \times \right.$$

374
$$\left. \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi D(t-t')}} - \frac{V}{2D} e^{\frac{Vx}{D}} \operatorname{erfc} \left[\frac{x-E+y+V(t-t')}{\sqrt{4D(t-t')}} \right] \right\} dy \quad (1)$$

374

375 where:

376 $C(x, t, t')$ (Bq kg⁻¹) represents the ¹³⁷Cs activity simulated for a single value of mass depth x and time
377 t' ;

378 $I(t')$ expressed in (Bq m⁻² yr⁻¹) indicates the ¹³⁷Cs amount of fallout that has reached the ground at
379 time t' (yr);

380 H (kg m⁻²) is a constant that represents the ¹³⁷Cs initial relaxation mass depth;

381 D (kg² m⁻⁴ yr⁻¹) is a diffusion coefficient, assumed constant in time and space;

382 V (kg m⁻² yr⁻¹) is a migration coefficient representing the constant downward migration rate;

383 λ (= 0.023 yr⁻¹) is the constant of radioactive decay for ¹³⁷Cs;

384 x (kg m⁻²) indicates the cumulative mass depth;

385 t (yr) is the time elapsed since the commencement of fallout in 1954;

386 E (kg m⁻²) indicates a constant rate of lowering of the soil surface by erosion ($E = 0$ for a reference
387 profile);

388 $\operatorname{erfc}(u)$ is the error-function complement defined as (Crank 1975):

389

390
$$\operatorname{erfc}(u) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_u^\infty e^{-y^2} dy \quad (2)$$

391

392 At first, Eq. (1) is integrated for each value of x using a fixed value of t' and a soil layer of variable
393 thickness y (here expressed in kg m⁻² as a mass length) for which a diffusional transport in a water
394 saturated porous medium is assumed (Lindstrom & Boersma, 1971; Pegoyev & Fridman, 1978).

395 Then, in order to get the total value of ^{137}Cs concentration $C(x,t)$ (Bq kg^{-1}) for that value of x , it is
 396 necessary to account for the fallout input occurred from 1954 to the date of sampling. This will be
 397 obtained by integrating Eq. (1) over time t' , assuming a continuous input $I(t')$ viz:

398

$$399 \quad C(x,t) = \int_0^t C(x,t,t')dt \quad (3)$$

400

401 The attempt of Eq. (3) to simulate the diffusion and migration of ^{137}Cs along the soil column was
 402 demonstrated in several works carried out in southern Italy (see Porto et al., 2004; 2016; Altieri et al.,
 403 2018) and in UK (see He and Walling, 1997).

404 However, in the present contribution, it was necessary to account for the additional fallout due to
 405 Chernobyl accident and the model required the following refinement in respect to the dataset
 406 representing the fallout input $I(t')$. The original version of the DMM assumed that the temporal
 407 distribution of annual fallout at a study site follows the same relative annual variation as that of a
 408 reference station located in the same hemisphere. This means that any difference in absolute
 409 magnitude of the local ^{137}Cs deposition flux $I(t)$, can be accounted using the following equation:

410

$$411 \quad I(t) = \alpha I_n(t) \quad (4)$$

412 where:

413 $I_n(t)$ is the ^{137}Cs fallout for the reference station ($\text{Bq m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$);

414 α is a scaling factor that can be calculated as follows:

415

$$416 \quad \alpha = \frac{A_{ref}}{\int_{1954}^t I_n(t')e^{-\lambda(t-t')}dt} = \frac{A_{ref}}{A_n} \quad (5)$$

417

418 where A_n (Bq m^{-2}) is the present total atmospheric fallout inventory for the ^{137}Cs deposition at the
 419 reference station (see Walling et al., 2005).

420

421 **Figure 7** ¹³⁷Cs fallout in Italy (mean values for the country) from 1954 to 2020 (from ISIN, 2021 – Replotted)

422

423 In the absence of specific fallout measurements in the study area, it was decided to assume as
424 reference fallout inventory the record published by ISIN (2021) that reports the mean ¹³⁷Cs deposition
425 flux in the country. Based on this record, replotted in **Fig. 7**, a mean value of ca. 6000 Bq m⁻² can be
426 assumed as Chernobyl-related ¹³⁷Cs fallout in 1986. This peak is followed by a sharp decrease until
427 1994 when the radiation levels have rapidly returned to normal. In order to adapt this record to the
428 local study area, a scaling factor α was first calculated from Eq. (5) using as A_{ref} the value (reported
429 in **Table 1**) estimated by the IAEA software (1196 Bq m⁻²), and as A_n the value estimated at national
430 scale in the absence of Chernobyl contribution (this value, decayed to 2020, resulted ca. 3011 Bq m⁻²).
431 The calculation of α (= 0.397) served to rescale the bomb fallout and allowed the calculation of
432 the Chernobyl-related ¹³⁷Cs fallout for each of the 12 profiles obtained in the local reference area.
433 These values, expressed as total Chernobyl fallout in 1986 (Bq m⁻²) and as a percentage to the total
434 reference inventory in 2020, are reported in **Table 2**.

435 Based on the above assumptions, the ability of Eq. (3) to fit the measured reference profiles used in
436 this paper is shown in **Fig. 6** where the dashed line representing the model is superimposed on each
437 experimental profile.

438

439 In order to use Eq. (3) to get the estimate of soil erosion rates from each sampling point, it is necessary
440 to integrate it over mass depth x . This integration will give the total ¹³⁷Cs inventory A_u (Bq m⁻²) for
441 an erosion site at time t :

442

$$443 \quad A_u(t) = \int_0^{\infty} C(x, t) dx \quad (6)$$

444

445 Eqs. (1), (3), and (6) can be solved simultaneously for E (kg m^{-2}), by replacing A_u (Bq m^{-2}) with the
446 measured inventory related to an eroding point. Erosion rates R ($\text{kg m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) may then be obtained by
447 dividing the quantity E by the time $t-t_0$ (yr) elapsed from the commencement of ^{137}Cs fallout (1954)
448 to the date of sampling. The results of this application exercise are reported in **Table 2** in which the
449 value of erosion rate corresponding to each profile is related to the average of the erosion rate obtained
450 for the 55 sampling points in the catchment.

451

452 **4. DISCUSSION**

453 The histograms illustrated in **Fig. 7** and the comparison between measured and simulated ^{137}Cs
454 profiles depicted in **Fig. 6** provide a first important issue of discussion about the ability of the DMM
455 to reproduce the ^{137}Cs distribution along a soil profile in areas affected by the Chernobyl fallout. The
456 first, visual, inspection of the twelve graphs in **Fig. 6** indicates a certain flexibility of this model if
457 the additional input related to the Chernobyl accident is incorporated into the calculation routine. As
458 stated above, local ^{137}Cs flux is not available for the study area, but the reconstruction of the annual
459 fallout by combining measurements at national scale and local inventories obtained in stable areas,
460 seems to be convincing. In fact, looking at the values reported in **Table 2**, the estimates of ^{137}Cs
461 fallout in 1986 range between 356 Bq m^{-2} and 1623 Bq m^{-2} with a mean value of ca. 894 Bq m^{-2} and
462 a standard deviation of ca. 8.7 Bq m^{-2} . These values are in line with those provided by the ‘Atlas of
463 caesium deposition on Europe after the Chernobyl accident’ (see De Cort et al., 1998) in which ^{137}Cs
464 values ranging from 0 to 1 kBq m^{-2} are indicated for Calabria (see Table 13 of that report). A previous
465 report published by Izrael et al. (1996) provided a general map of the country that appears to show
466 the possibility of a Chernobyl fallout of between 400 and 2000 Bq m^{-2} in Calabria and this is, again,
467 consistent with our estimates at the reference area. Based on these assumptions, the ability of the
468 DMM to simulate the profiles illustrated in **Fig. 6** must be recognized and its use as conversion model
469 can be recommended even in the presence of significant Chernobyl input. The second, important,
470 issue of discussion is related to the rates of soil erosion provided by the application of the DMM in

471 the study catchment. Looking again at the values reported in **Table 2**, the estimates of soil erosion
472 rate provided by the twelve profiles in **Fig. 6** and related to the period covered by the ^{137}Cs
473 measurements (1954-2020), range between $15.6 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $23.6 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ with a mean value of ca.
474 $20.4 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and a standard deviation of $2.7 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. These values, expressed as a range to take
475 account of the uncertainty associated with the estimate of the Chernobyl component, are depicted in
476 **Fig. 8** together with the measurements of sediment yield obtained at the catchment outlet. The values
477 of measured sediment yield show a very large range, as reported above. For this reason, it was
478 convenient to express these measurements as a range around the central value (given by the average
479 and its uncertainty assumed at the 95% level of confidence, i.e. $\pm 2\text{SE}$). Also, in order to quantify the
480 incidence of the Chernobyl input on our experimental site, we reported in Fig. 8 the corresponding
481 estimates of erosion rate using the DMM without the additional 1986 fallout. This calculation
482 provided a range of soil erosion rates between $14.8 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $21.0 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ with a mean value of
483 ca. $18.9 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and a standard deviation of $2.3 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$.

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484
485 **Figure 8** Comparison between net erosion rates provided by ^{137}Cs measurements and values of sediment yield for two
486 different periods

487
488 It is clear from **Fig. 8** that the estimates of net erosion provided by the ^{137}Cs measurements, with and
489 without the Chernobyl component, fall within the range covered by the values of sediment yield
490 measured at the catchment outlet during the observation period (from 1978 to 2020) if the uncertainty
491 related to the sampling device is taken into account. It is also clear that, if the Chernobyl component
492 is considered, the range of estimates shows a better overlapping with the sediment yield data while
493 the estimates provided by neglecting the 1986 input divert to lower values.

494 The mean value of net soil loss derived from ^{137}Cs ($20.4 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) cannot be considered significantly
495 different of that ($22.4 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) measured at the catchment outlet and related to the monitoring period.

500 These findings suggest that the ^{137}Cs technique is a useful means to provide soil erosion estimates if
501 the uncertainty related to the reference value is considered. However, a perfect agreement between
502 these two sets of values cannot be expected because they cover two different time windows: the ^{137}Cs
503 measurements are related to the period comprised from the commencement of fallout (1954) to the
504 date of sampling (2021), while the measurements of sediment yield were obtained for a shorter period
505 covered by the catchment monitoring (1978-2020). A logical comparison would have required the
506 availability of measurements at the catchment outlet for the same period covered by the ^{137}Cs
507 measurements (1954-2020). Unfortunately, such dataset in our study area is not available but detailed
508 information on rainfall erosivity and the use of a calibrated prediction model can help to derive
509 suitable estimates of sediment yield for this longer period. More specifically, available information
510 on the rainfall erosivity factor R (Wischmeier and Smith, 1978) for the period 1954-2020 (Porto,
511 2016) and details on soil, topography and land use, obtained for the study catchment (see Di Stefano
512 et al., 2005), allowed the application of the SEDD model (Ferro and Porto, 2000) to estimate of
513 sediment yield for the missing years of the same period. [The SEDD model was already calibrated and](#)
514 [validated for the catchment W2 \(see Ferro and Porto, 2000; Porto et al., 2018\) and it provided reliable](#)
515 [estimates of sediment yield based on long-term observations.](#) The results of this simulation indicate
516 a mean value of sediment yield equal to $19.2 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ with a range ($\pm 2\text{SE}$) comprised between 14.6
517 $\text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ and $23.8 \text{ t ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$. These estimates, plotted in **Fig. 8** for comparison, are surprisingly close
518 to those provided by the ^{137}Cs measurements and confirm, once again, the ability of the ^{137}Cs
519 technique to provide suitable estimates of erosion rates in similar contexts.

520

521

522 5. CONCLUSIONS

523 Recent measurements of ^{137}Cs , carried out over an experimental catchment in Southern Italy,
524 provided important information on the ability of the ^{137}Cs technique to estimate soil erosion rates in
525 this area. The work reported here suggests how the Diffusion and Migration Model (DMM), able to

526 convert ^{137}Cs loss into values of soil loss, can be used to get robust estimates of soil erosion rate even
527 in presence of a Chernobyl additional flux. For this purpose, it was necessary to select a large
528 reference area where the spatial variability of ^{137}Cs inventory due to the Chernobyl input was first
529 investigated, and to incorporate this additional input into the calculation routine of the DMM. The
530 estimates of soil erosion rate were treated as a range instead of a single mean value, and were
531 compared with the long-term observations of sediment yield (29 years) obtained at the catchment
532 outlet. This comparison showed a very close agreement between measured and estimated values of
533 soil erosion and encourages the use of the ^{137}Cs technique in different geographic contexts.

534

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