

1 **Solid-liquid distribution coefficients (Kd-s) of geological deposits at the Chernobyl Nuclear**
2 **Power Plant Site with respect to Sr, Cs and Pu radionuclides: a short review**

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6 **Abstract**

7 A review is presented of data on solid-liquid distribution coefficients (Kd-s) of the main radiologically
8 important radionuclides of the Chernobyl release within geological deposits at the Chernobyl Nuclear
9 Power Plant (ChNPP) Site. The Kd values for Sr, Cs and Pu for Quaternary sandy deposits that form
10 sedimentary cover at Chernobyl fall within the range of parameters reported in international sorption
11 databases. In agreement with general knowledge on radionuclide geochemical behavior and affinity to
12 soils, Kd-s increase in the sequence: Sr < Cs < Pu. Alluvial and fluvio-glacial sandy deposits are
13 characterized by larger Kd values than deposits of eolian genesis due to higher content of clay minerals
14 in fine fractions. For Sr, laboratory batch tests have given Kd values that are in a reasonable agreement
15 with in situ measurements. At the same time, the ⁹⁰Sr Kd-s obtained from groundwater transport model
16 calibrations were noticeably lower than experimentally determined values, thus showing potential
17 limitations of the Kd-approach. Monitoring data on mobility of ⁹⁰Sr, ¹³⁷Cs and ^{239,240}Pu in groundwater in
18 the Chernobyl zone on a whole are consistent with the radionuclide Kd-s summarized in this article. The
19 highest concentrations in groundwater (based on data for 2012-2014) were observed for ⁹⁰Sr, while
20 orders of magnitude lower concentrations were observed for ¹³⁷Cs and ^{239,240}Pu. At the same time,
21 detection of ¹³⁷Cs and ^{239,240}Pu in groundwater at sites with a relatively deep groundwater table suggests
22 the possibility of facilitated transport of small amounts of these radionuclides in the form of non-
23 retarded colloids or complexes.

24 **Keywords:** sorption distribution coefficient, Chernobyl accident, strontium-90, cesium-137, plutonium-
25 239/240, groundwater contamination

26 **1. Introduction**

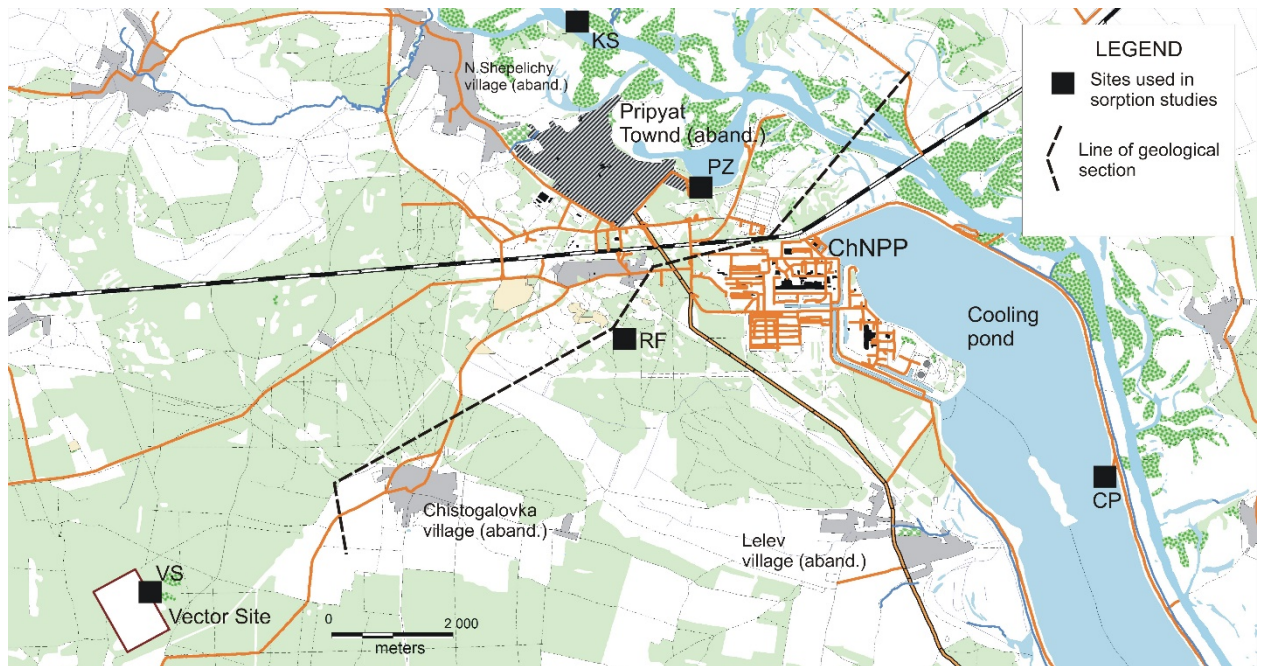
27 ***Background***

28 The Chernobyl accident on 26 April 1986 resulted in serious contamination of the adjacent area by
29 fallout radionuclides. Radioactive fallout, including an important component of nuclear fuel particles,
30 were deposited on land areas and on water bodies, such as the cooling pond of the Chernobyl Nuclear
31 Power Plant (ChNPP) (Vakulovsky et al., 1994; Kashparov et al., 2003). During the course of the
32 emergency post-accident clean-up of the Chernobyl NPP site, several engineered radioactive waste
33 storage facilities and hundreds of waste dumps (e.g., shallow trenches with waste dug into the local
34 sandy soil) were created at the ChNPP site in the proximity of the damaged ChNPP Unit 4 (Antropov et
35 al., 2001; Molitor et al., 2017).

36 During the last decade, the 'Vector' complex for disposal of radioactive waste originating from
37 decommissioning of ChNPP and remedial works in Chernobyl Exclusion Zone was created in the elevated
38 area dividing the watersheds of the Uzh and Pripyat Rivers at about 14 km distance from the ChNPP
39 (Bugai et al., 2017) (Fig.1). Recently, a decision was made to develop, on the basis of the Vector
40 complex, a national centralized radioactive waste disposal and storage facility for wastes originating
41 both in the nuclear sector, as well as radioactive wastes of industrial and medical origin in the Ukraine
42 (Lisichenko et al., 2017).

43 During the more than 30-year period that has passed since the Chernobyl accident a number of studies
44 were carried out in order to predict radionuclide transport in the geosphere from the radioactivity
45 sources of accidental origin situated at ChNPP site (waste dump sites, cooling pond, Sarcophagus etc.)
46 (e.g., Bugai et al., 1996, 2005; Kivva et al., 1996; Onishi et al., 2007; Molitor et al., 2017), as well as to
47 carry out performance assessment analyses for the planned radioactive waste disposal and storage
48 facilities of the Vector Complex (Shehtman et al., 1996; Bugai et al., 2017). In some instances, the
49 studies mentioned above included experimental determination of site-specific parameters for
50 radionuclide transport in the subsurface environment. In particular, the key parameter governing
51 radionuclide transport in the unsaturated zone and groundwater is the solid-liquid distribution

52 coefficient (K_d), describing radionuclide partitioning between the pore water and soil matrix due to
53 various chemical and physical process (e.g., ion-exchange, surface complexation, volume diffusion, etc.),
54 which are commonly termed 'sorption'. The sorption studies encompassed the main radiologically
55 important long-lived radionuclides of Chernobyl origin: strontium-90, cesium-137 and plutonium-238, -
56 239 and -240 isotopes. The K_d determinations were carried out for different types (lithological, genetic)
57 of geological deposits, and employed various experimental techniques.



58
59 Fig.1. Map of the central part of the Chernobyl Exclusion zone showing sites that have been sampled in
60 the reviewed sorption studies.

62 **Objectives**

63 The objective of this article is to carry out review of data on sorption distribution (partition) coefficients
64 of the radiologically important (in the long term) radionuclides of the Chernobyl release for geological
65 deposits at the ChNPP site. Particular attention is paid to the lithological characteristics of geological
66 deposits (soils), and to methods of K_d determination. Where available, data are documented on physical
67 and geochemical properties of deposits and of test solutions used in sorption tests. This allows a cross-
68 comparison of sorption properties of various deposits, as well as of experimental methods for K_d
69 determination.

70 **Scope**

71 In this review we focus on sorption properties of geological deposits that form the upper part of
72 geological strata below the organic topsoil layer, and would usually host the first (from the surface)
73 phreatic aquifer at the Chernobyl NPP site. This is the geological environment where migration of
74 radionuclides typically occurred from the key sources of radioactivity such as near-surface radioactive
75 waste disposal sites (or waste dumps) and/or contaminated water bodies (e.g., Chernobyl cooling pond).

76 The data for the more organic topsoil layer a (e.g., upper 20 - 50 cm depth range of soil) are not included
77 in this review, as these data can be found elsewhere (e.g., (IAEA, 2010)). In addition, radionuclide
78 migration in topsoil is influenced by a larger spectrum of factors (including bio-geochemical processes
79 and radionuclide cycling in the 'soil – plant' system), and therefore represents a special subject, that was
80 deemed to be outside of the scope of this article.

81 We also briefly summarize key geochemical process and factors that control the adsorption-desorption
82 behavior of reviewed radionuclides on the matrix of geological deposits, and related specific
83 experimental data (where available) for geological deposits in Chernobyl Exclusion Zone (CEZ).

84 This article makes available to the international scientific community data from a number of Russian-
85 and Ukrainian- language publications and reports that, to the knowledge of the authors, have not been
86 reviewed before in the English – language literature. The Chernobyl experience provides interesting
87 insights into different methods of K_d determination, as well as validation of the experimentally
88 determined K_d parameter values by calibration of subsurface radionuclide transport models. It also
89 shows some limitations and pitfalls of the K_d approach for describing field behavior of specific
90 radionuclides in the subsurface.

91 **2. Chernobyl site geology and hydrogeology**

92 Samples of geological deposits used for sorption studies reviewed in this publication were usually taken
93 from near-surface excavations (pits with depth of up to approximately 1 m) or from boreholes drilled at
94 the ChNPP site (with depth ranging from several meters to several tens of meters). We will first give a

95 brief overview of the geological structure and lithology composition of geological deposits forming the
96 upper part of sedimentary cover at the ChNPP site.

97 ***Geological structure***

98 The upper part of geological strata at ChNPP site that hosts the unconfined aquifer is composed of
99 Quaternary Pliocene and Pleistocene-Holocene sandy deposits (Matoshko et al. 2002, 2004) (Fig. 2). The
100 total thickness of these deposits is about 30 m. The above sediments are underlain by the regional low-
101 permeability aquitard layer of carbonate clays (marls) of the Kiev Suite of the Eocene (the thickness of
102 this aquitard layer is 10-20 m).

103 ***Geomorphology and lithology***

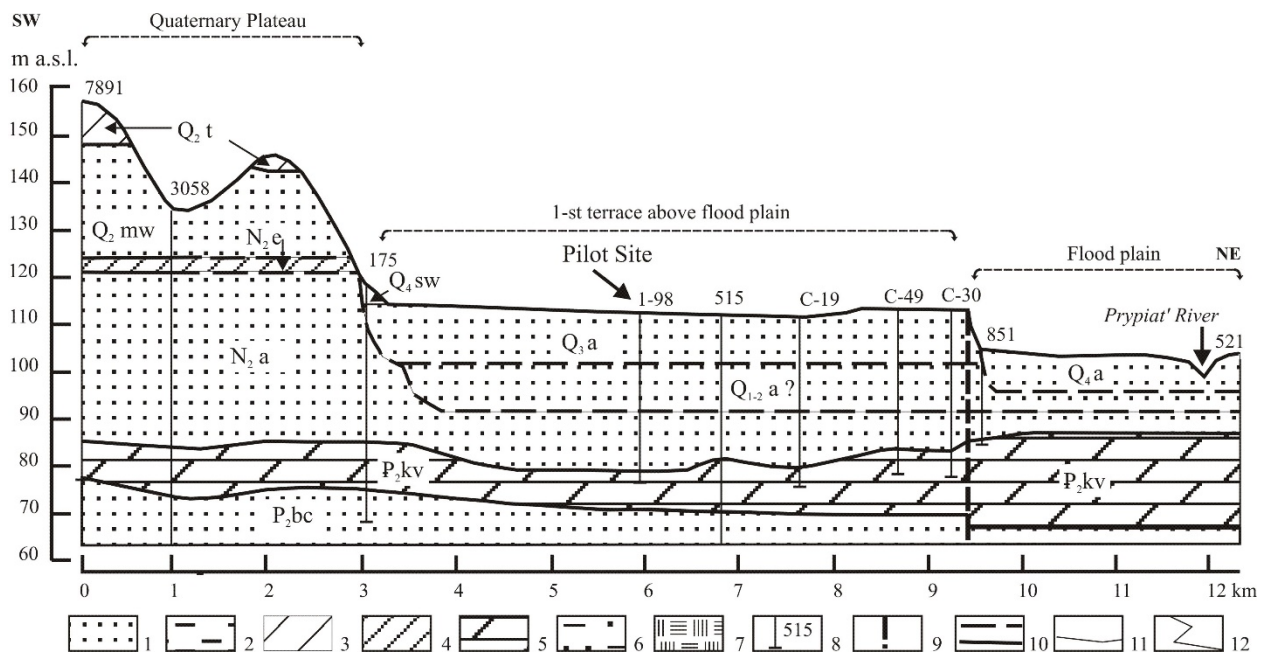
104 With regard to geomorphology, the following elements can be distinguished at the ChNPP site (see
105 Fig.2): (1) first terrace of the Pripyat River (where the ChNPP is located) which is composed mainly of
106 Lower - Middle Pleistocene alluvial sandy deposits; (2) Quaternary plateau which is composed of Pliocene
107 and Middle Pleistocene fluvial-glacial sandy and silty-clayey deposits (to the SW of ChNPP), and (3)
108 floodplain of Pripyat River composed of Holocene alluvial sandy deposits (to NE of ChNPP).

109 The Quaternary alluvial deposits are most often represented by strata of relatively homogeneous fine-
110 medium sands, with inter-bedded layers of loam and silt materials. Thickness of lenses of finer deposits
111 vary from several centimeters to 1–2 m and more (Matoshko et al., 2004).

112 The fluvial-glacial deposits that form upper part of geological section within the Quaternary Plateau (see
113 Fig.2) are composed of predominantly sands with inter-layers of silt and clayey moraine deposits. The
114 thickness of these layers vary from tenths of centimeters to 3-4 m or more (Shehtman et al., 1996; Bugai
115 et al., 2017).

116 Throughout the site, the alluvial and fluvioglacial deposits are covered from the surface by a layer of
117 eolian sandy deposits (with a typical thickness from less than one to several meters). This layer of eolian
118 sands has formed during the Late Pleistocene due to of wind erosion of fine fractions of alluvial (or
119 fluvioglacial) sandy deposits, with wind transportation of deposited particles to short distances. It is
120 composed of well-sorted fine sands (Matoshko et al., 2004).

121



122

123 Fig.2. Geologic cross-section of the ChNPP site (Position of the cross-section is shown in Fig. 1)
 124 (Matoshko et al., 2004). Legend: 1 – sands, 2- silts, 3 – basal till, 4 – clay, 5 – marl, 6 – inter-bedding of
 125 sands and silts, 7 – peat and peaty sand, 8 – boreholes (numbered), 9 – inferred fault, 10 – boundaries
 126 between suites: supposed (upper) and established (lower), 11 - boundaries between depositional facies,
 127 12 – facial replacement, 13 – groundwater level (generalized). Indices: Q₄ - Holocene, Q₃₋₄ - Upper
 128 Pleistocene - Holocene unstratified, Q₃ - Upper Pleistocene, Q₁₋₂ - Lower Pleistocene - Middle
 129 Pleistocene unstratified, N₂ - Pliocene, P₂ – Eocene; kv - Kyiv, bc – Buchack. Genetic types of deposits: a -
 130 alluvial, mw – melt-water, eol - aeolian, e - presumably waste mantle, sw – slopewash. Facies: ob –
 131 overbank, ch – channel, a-ch – abandoned channel.

132

133 Bulk density of sandy deposits usually ranges from 1.6 to 1.8 g/cm³, while porosity usually ranges from
 134 33 to 42% (Matoshko et al., 2004; Bugai et al., 2017). The eolian deposits have low cation-exchange
 135 capacity (CEC) values, which are usually less than 1 meq/100 g, while the alluvial and fluvio-glacial
 136 deposits have CEC values in the range from 2 to 10 meq/100 g (depending on content and mineralogy of
 137 the clay fraction) (Matoshko et al., 2004; Bugai et al., 2017). Based on data of (Kuznetsov, 1973;
 138 Olkhovik et al., 1992; Matoshko et al., 2004) Quaternary alluvial sandy deposits of the study area are
 139 predominantly composed of quartz with admixtures of the feldspar (up to ~10 %). The clay fraction of
 140 alluvial deposits is composed of kaolinite, montmorillonite and hydromica (illite), as well as fine-
 141 dispersed calcite, quartz, and amorphous ferrous oxides. In eolian sands, the content of quartz reaches
 142 98–99%, while the clay-size (finest) fraction is almost totally composed of finely-dispersed quartz.

143 **Hydrogeology**

144 The sandy Quaternary deposits host the first unconfined aquifer from the surface, which is recharged by
145 meteoric waters. The depth to groundwater ranges from 0 – 2 m in floodplain areas to 5-6 m within the
146 first terrace of Pripyat River, and up to 12-14 m and more within the Pripyat River and Uzh River water
147 divide area within the Quaternary Plateau. The thickness of the unconfined aquifer varies from 15 m to
148 30-40 m; the transmissivity is estimated at 100-400 m²/day. The groundwater is usually
149 calcium/magnesium - bicarbonate type; the total dissolved solids typically vary from 100 to 500 ml/g,
150 the pH value is in the range 5.6 - 6.2 (Dzhepo and Skalsky, 2002).

151 More details on the Chernobyl NPP site geology and hydrogeology can be found in (Dzhepo and
152 Skalsky, 2002; Matoshko et al. 2002, 2004)

153 **Specific locations at ChNPP site sampled in the course of sorption studies**

154 The sorption studies reviewed in this article were carried out on geological deposit samples taken from
155 several distinct locations in the Chernobyl zone listed in Table 1. These sites represent important
156 locations from the perspective of radionuclide migration from radioactive sources of accidental origin to
157 the surrounding near-surface geological environment (including the “Red Forest” waste dump site and
158 Chernobyl cooling pond). These sites encompass all the main geomorphological areas of the ChNPP site
159 (see Fig.1 and 2) as discussed in previous paragraphs.

160 Table 1. Lists of specific sites that have provided samples for sorption studies reviewed in this article.

Site*	Abbreviation	Geomorphological area	Genetic type of deposits
Cooling pond	CP	Pripyat River flood plain	alluvial
Krasnensky Starik	KS	Pripyat River flood plain	alluvial
Red Forest	RF	First terrace of Pripyat River	Eolian, alluvial
Pripyat Zaton	PZ	First terrace of Pripyat River	Eolian, alluvial
Vector Site	VS	Quaternary Plateau	Fluvial-glacial, alluvial

161 Remark: Several sites (‘Colling pond’, ‘Pripyat Zaton’, ‘Krasnensky Starik’) in Table 1 are named after
162 adjacent water bodies; however, it should be stressed that samples of geological deposits at these sites
163 were taken from surrounding geological formations, not from bottom sediments of these water bodies

164 **3. Data sources**

165 The sorption studies reviewed in this article were usually carried out in order to provide parameters for
166 radionuclide transport modelling and risk assessment analyses as a part of environmental impact
167 assessment studies for major radioactivity sources of the accidental origin such as the radioactively
168 contaminated cooling pond (e.g., Bugai et al., 1997; Bugai et al., 2005) and/or “Red Forest” waste dumps
169 (e.g., Radium Institute, 1992; Olkhovik et al., 1992), and also to support safety assessments for the
170 planned radioactive waste repositories at Vector Site (e.g., Shehtman et al., 1996).

171 The most comprehensive sorption studies in the Chernobyl zone during last two decades were carried
172 out within the international radioecological research projects Chernobyl Pilot Site Project (CPS Project,
173 1999–2004) and Experimental Platform in Chernobyl (EPIC, 2004–2012) (Dewière et al., 2005; Van Meir
174 et al., 2009; Kashparov et al., 2012; Bugai et al., 2012). These projects studied radionuclide migration
175 from near-subsurface radioactive waste burial (trench no.22) at “Red Forest” radioactive waste dump
176 site containing nuclear fuel particles. Apart from sorption studies on deposits collected immediately
177 from the trench no.22 site, sorption experiments were also carried on samples collected from the
178 geological analog of the CPS Site, the “Pripyat Zaton” exposure (e.g., Devol-Brown et al., 2002;
179 Szenknect et al., 2005), which represents the natural cliff of the river terrace extending along the Pripyat
180 Zaton Inlet of the Pripyat River at 2 km distance from the CPS/EPIC site (see Fig. 1). Here the upper part
181 of the geological cross-section is situated in unsaturated conditions, which simplified access to deeper
182 soil layers and sample collection.

183 **4. Distribution coefficient (K_d) as a sorption parameter**

184 ***Definition of K_d***

185 The sorption distribution coefficient (K_d) is an empirical parameter defined as the ratio of the quantity
186 of the contaminant of interest adsorbed per unit mass of solid (geological deposit) to the quantity of the
187 contaminant remaining in aqueous phase (groundwater) per unit volume at chemical equilibrium (or at
188 “quasi-equilibrium” state reached during the experiment). Inherent in the K_d - model (or “linear

189 isotherm” adsorption model) is the assumption that adsorption of the contaminant of interest on solid
190 phase is linearly dependent of its concentration in the aqueous phase. This assumption typically holds
191 only for low contaminant concentrations in solution.

192 ***K_d approach for quantifying sorption: advantages and limitations***

193 Process that are termed ‘sorption’ (i.e., binding of solute species to matrix of geological deposits) in a
194 general case can include various physical and chemical mechanism, including: ion exchange, surface
195 complexation, surface (co-) precipitation of mineral phases, incorporation to mineral structure either by
196 volume diffusion or crystal growth (inclusion) (Neumann, 2012). With the K_d approach, all of the
197 interactions listed above of solute with solid phase are bulked into one empirical parameter (i.e., the
198 distribution coefficient).

199 An important aspect of the K_d is that values are sensitive not only to the nature and properties of the
200 mineral matrix, but also to geochemistry of the aqueous phase e.g., presence of ions competing for
201 adsorption sites, solution ionic strength, pH, redox potential, presence of organic ligands, mineral (or
202 organic) colloids. One other underlying assumption for application of the K_d sorption model in
203 radionuclide transport calculations is that radionuclide sorption process is instantaneous and fully
204 reversible. The “non-ideal” behavior of radionuclides in field conditions (e.g., relatively slow “kinetically
205 controlled” solute exchange between aqueous phase and solid phase; or partly irreversible sorption - so
206 called “sorption hysteresis”) can lead to deviations between K_d- based modeling predictions and field
207 observations of radionuclide migration in the subsurface.

208 To address the listed difficulties, the last decades have seen an increasing amount of research on
209 developing mechanistic geochemical contaminant transport and sorption models (e.g., see recent
210 review by (Steeffel et al., 2015)). However mechanistic models are much more demanding in terms of
211 geochemical expertise of the modeler, input data on solution geochemistry and solid matrix surface
212 properties, and on databases of thermodynamic constants for relevant geochemical and bio-chemical
213 reactions. The above requirements often limit the practical application of mechanistic sorption models.

214 Therefore, despite the limitations discussed above, the Kd model still represents probably the most
215 common approach for quantifying interactions of radionuclides with the solid matrix of geological
216 materials in risk assessment and performance assessment analyses. In some instances, the Kd model is
217 an interim measure until sufficient data is generated for a more complex model (M.I. Sheppard and S.C.
218 Sheppard, 2002). The advantage of the Kd approach includes relatively simple and well established
219 methods of experimental determination (e.g., batch laboratory tests; see below), as well as availability
220 of extensive published databases of Kd values for various soils and geological materials (e.g., (Sheppard
221 and Thibault, 1990; Serne, 2007; IAEA, 2010)). The modeler, however, needs to be aware of the above
222 limitations and potential pitfalls of the Kd model.

223 **5. Methods of Kd determination**

224 Several methods have been used to measure (or estimate) radionuclide Kd values for geological deposits
225 in the Chernobyl exclusion zone. These methods are briefly described below.

226 Laboratory batch tests

227 The method that has been used most often for sorption studies is the laboratory batch method. In this
228 method, the known mass of soil is added to laboratory vessel containing the known concentration (or
229 activity) of radionuclide of interest in soluble form. The vessel is sealed and stirred until equilibrium is
230 supposedly reached between the solid and aqueous phase (typically, from several hours to several days,
231 though this does not necessarily ensure full equilibrium). Upon the completion of experiment, the
232 solutions and solid phase are separated (e.g., by centrifuging), and the radionuclide concentration in
233 the residual solution is measured. The Kd value is then calculated from radionuclide concentration loss
234 from solution (due to sorption on solid phase) using simple mass balance equations (Olkhovik et al.,
235 1992; Devol-Brown et al., 2002). The pitfall of laboratory batch tests is potential dependence of resulting
236 Kd values on 'liquid – solid' phase ratio (due to changes in specific surface area of solid phase per unit
237 volume of liquid, changes in chemical composition of liquid phase, etc.), as this ratio can be in batch
238 tests much higher than in natural (field) conditions (Konoplev et al., 1988). To address this difficulty,

239 batch tests can be carried out at relatively small 'liquid – solid' ratio (e.g., 1:1), and using the pre-
240 equilibration of solid phase with the solution of known chemical composition.

241 Field in-situ partition tests

242 In this method, the water saturated geological core sample is collected using auger drill directly from the
243 contaminated aquifer. Upon extraction from the aquifer, the aqueous phase is separated from the solid
244 phase directly in the field (e.g., by means of application of a vacuum to the water saturated core
245 sample). The soil sample containing residual pore water is sealed. The solute sample is stabilized, and
246 directed along with soil sample to laboratory. In the laboratory, the solid samples are analyzed for
247 residual water content, and both solute and soil samples are analyzed for radionuclide content. These
248 data allow an in situ K_d value to be calculated. This method is relatively experimentally simple, and was
249 used quite often in the Chernobyl zone which offered important opportunities for sampling contaminant
250 plumes in groundwater (e.g., Gudzenko et al., 1994; Bugai et al., 2001; Levchuk et al., 2009).

251 Column tests

252 The column test method uses an inert (i.e., not interacting with soil) tracer (e.g., tritium) as well as a
253 solution containing radionuclide in soluble form, both of which are filtered through a column packed
254 with soil. Observation of breakthrough curves at the exit from column allows estimation of the
255 radionuclide retardation factor as a ratio of velocities of inert tracer and radionuclide of interest. Next,
256 radionuclide K_d value is calculated from the retardation factor and known soil parameters (bulk density,
257 porosity). Column tests were used in the reviewed Chernobyl studies only in a few instances (e.g.,
258 Szenknect, 2003), as this method requires a more complex experimental setup, and can take long time
259 (in case radionuclide has a large K_d and respective retardation factor value)

260 Groundwater transport model calibration

261 In case groundwater monitoring data are available for radionuclide migration in the subsurface from the
262 radioactivity source with the well-known (or reasonably accurately estimated) release history (e.g.,
263 release occurs from a contaminated surface water body in which activity concentration was monitored),

264 the Kd can be estimated by means of calibrating a groundwater transport model. The Kd value obtained
265 from model calibration can be considered as an 'effective' transport parameter that represents space-
266 averaged (and/or time-averaged) value, and it may be dependent on the scale, time interval and model
267 conceptualization of the monitored radionuclide transport process in the subsurface. In the case of
268 Chernobyl exclusion zone, such model calibration studies were carried out for ⁹⁰Sr transport from the
269 Chernobyl NPP cooling pond (Bugai et al., 2005), and for ⁹⁰Sr transport from trench no.22 at Red Forest
270 site (Bugai et al., 2012).

271 The detailed discussion of experimental procedures, advantages and limitations of different methods of
272 Kd determination can be found in (US EPA, 1999a).

273 **6. Sorption parameters of radionuclides**

274 In this section, Kd values for individual radionuclides are presented as compiled from the reviewed
275 literature. Compilation of Kd values is presented in the form of set of tables (for specific radionuclides).
276 Each entry of the table provides information on the geological sample collection site in Chernobyl zone,
277 lithology of studied samples of deposits, experimental method of Kd determination, number of samples
278 analyzed, mean and range (minimum, maximum) of measured/estimated Kd values, and reference to
279 the source of data (publication, report). In the case that an article provides information on Kd values for
280 several types of deposits, the Kd values are further sub-divided in accordance with the lithological
281 features of deposits (e.g., 'sand', 'sandy loam', etc.). Lithological characteristics of geological deposits
282 (e.g., as 'sand', 'fine sand', 'sandy loam') are based on descriptions which are provided in the initial
283 reference.

284 In addition, each line in table includes a unique ID corresponding to the site, lithological type of deposits
285 and specific reference for the reported Kd values. Based on this ID, additional information related to
286 experimental conditions of Kd determination including physical and hydraulic characteristics of deposits
287 (e.g., grain size distribution, sediment density, porosity, hydraulic conductivity etc.) and on chemistry of
288 test solution (e.g., ion composition, pH etc.) can be found in the supplementary Annex to this article
289 (when such information is available in the original reference). The list of provided supplementary data

290 varies from one reference to another reference (depending on information available in respective
291 reference).

292 In the presented compilation of Kd data, we use the commonly utilized assumption that all isotopes of
293 the same radionuclide (e.g., ²³⁸Pu, ²³⁹Pu and ²⁴⁰Pu; or ⁸⁵Sr and ⁹⁰Sr) have the same Kd values (e.g., (EPA,
294 1999a; IAEA, 2010)).

295 Strontium

296 Based on literature data, the strontium sorption on soils is usually governed by ion exchange mechanism
297 on regular exchange sites (RES) in clays and organic matter (Gil-García et al., 2009, 2011a). In accordance
298 with the ion-exchange sorption model, the radiostrontium Kd is essentially dependent on the CEC of
299 deposits (in particular fine fraction, clay minerals with large surface area) and it is also sensitive to the
300 presence of competing cations (Ca, Mg, stable Sr) in solution (Patterson and Spoel 1981; Lefevre et al.
301 1996; Szenknect, 2003). A fraction of the radiostrontium (usually relatively small) may become fixed
302 with time by the solid phase (an ageing effect). Such fixation effects were reported for ⁹⁰Sr sorption on
303 iron hydroxide coatings on mineral sand grains (Jackson and Inch, 1989) and for organic substrates of
304 soils (Boyer et al., 2018).

305 Strontium-90 was the most mobile radionuclide in soils, groundwater and surface water of the
306 Chernobyl Zone during the post-accident period compared to cesium and plutonium radioisotopes
307 (Bugai et al., 1996). Therefore, sorption behavior of radio-strontium was studied in a larger number of
308 studies, that resulted in bigger statistics of Kd values for this radionuclide. Radiostrontium Kd estimates
309 for sand deposits of various genesis vary from less than 1 ml/g to about ~20 ml/g; the values for clay -
310 loam deposits reach up to ~80 ml/g (Table 2). It should be noted that in a number of reviewed studies,
311 laboratory sorption tests have used ⁸⁵Sr rather than ⁹⁰Sr.

312

313 Table 2. Compilation of Kd values for ⁹⁰Sr / ⁸⁵Sr based on studies conducted on geological deposits from
 314 the Chernobyl Exclusion Zone.

ID	Site	Type of deposits	Method	Number of samples	Kd, ml/g Mean (range)	Reference
RF1A	Red Forest	sand	batch	3	2.8 (1.9-4.0)	Radium Institute, 1992
RF2A	Red Forest	Fine sand	batch	7	2.7 (1.1-4.4)	Olkhovik et al., 1992
RF2B	Red Forest	Sandy loam	batch	3	7.0 (4.5-10.5)	Olkhovik et al., 1992
RF3A	Red Forest	Fine sand	In situ	6	2 (0.2-5)	Bugai et ai., 2002
RF4A	Red Forest	Fine sand	Model calibration	1	0.5 - 1	Dewiere et al., 2005
VS1A	Vector	Coarse sand	batch	2	4.7 (4 - 5.5)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1B	Vector	Medium sand	batch	10	3 (1 – 6.5)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1C	Vector	Fine sand	batch	32	3.7 (1 – 10)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1D	Vector	Silty sand	batch	15	5.8 (2.2 – 12)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1E	Vector	Sandy loam	batch	10	19.5 (5 – 45)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1F	Vector	Clay loam	batch	8	34.6 (9.7 – 77)	Shehtman et al., 1996
PZ1A	Pripyat Zaton	Fine sand	batch	1	9	Devol-Brown et al., 2002
PZ2A	Pripyat Zaton	Fine sand	batch	2	2.8 – 2.9	Bugai et ai., 2001
PZ2B	Pripyat Zaton	Medium sand	batch	1	6.4	Bugai et ai., 2001
PZ2C	Pripyat Zaton	Silty sand	batch	3	35 (19 – 50)	Bugai et ai., 2001
PZ3A	Pripyat Zaton	Fine sand	batch	1	12.5	Szenknect et al., 2005
CP1A	Cooling pond	Medium sand	In-situ	6	4.3 (1.9 - 7.4)	Gudzenko et al., 1994
CP2A	Colling pond	Medium sand	Model calibration	6 (locations)	0.8 (0.5 – 1.3)	Bugai et al., 2005
KS1A	Krasnensky Starik	Fine sand (alluvial)	In situ	2	17.2 (12.3 – 22.1)	Gudzenko et al., 1994

315

316 Laboratory stirred flow-through reactor experiments have shown that radiostrontium sorption on eolian
 317 sand deposits from Chernobyl Pilot Site in the “Red Forest” is a “fast” and reversible process
 318 (characteristic sorption time <1 min; desorption 100%) (Szenknect et al, 2005). In field conditions, about

319 10% of the ^{90}Sr in sand cores collected from alluvial aquifer at cooling pond that was exposed to
320 contamination for a period of about 10 years (i.e., the time elapsed since the Chernobyl Accident in April
321 1986) was found to be in a fixed form (not extractable by a 0.1 M CaCl_2 solution) likely reflecting
322 sorption ageing effect (Bugai et al., 1997).

323 Cesium

324 Radiocesium isotopes (e.g., cesium-134, cesium-137) are generally known to have relatively low mobility
325 in the subsurface environment due to high sorption coefficients on soils and geological deposits.
326 Retention of Cs radionuclides on soils is known to be essentially governed by adsorption reactions by ion
327 exchange mechanism, where certain types of micaceous clay minerals play an important role. In
328 particular, sorption of Cs on illite is known to be highly selective, and can be partly irreversible (this last
329 process is called “fixation”), or desorption process can be very slow; competitive effects from K^+ and
330 NH_4^+ ions are also important factors (Cornell, 1993; Gil-García et al., 2009, 2011b). In Fukushima soils,
331 similar selective and partly irreversible adsorption of Cs on weathered biotite clay mineral has been
332 observed in laboratory tests (Mukai et al., 2016). Apart from migration in dissolved ionic form, upon
333 certain conditions (oxic conditions, low ionic strength, high flow rates) Cs can be transported in
334 groundwater in the form of colloids (both of inorganic and organic nature), however the mass fraction of
335 radionuclide transported in colloidal form usually is quite low (Kersting, 2012).

336 The ^{137}Cs (along with ^{90}Sr) is the most radiologically important radionuclide of the Chernobyl release,
337 therefore its sorption behavior has been studied in a relatively large number of studies in the CEZ.
338 Cesium Kd estimates for sand vary from less than 7 ml/g to 670 ml/g; the Kd values for clay - loam
339 deposits fall to the range of 300 - 8300 ml/g (Table3). Being less mobile, ^{137}Cs was usually found in
340 groundwater of the CEZ during post-accident period at several orders of magnitude lower
341 concentrations compared to ^{90}Sr (Bugai et al., 1996; Dzhepo and Skalsky, 2002). Presumably due to
342 fixation on clay minerals, the amount of mobile (and bio-available) forms of ^{137}Cs has shown a tendency
343 to decrease in soils of Chernobyl zone following the accident (Ivanov and Kashparov, 2003).

344

345 Table 3. Compilation of Kd values for ¹³⁷Cs based on studies conducted on geological deposits from the
 346 Chernobyl Exclusion Zone.

ID	Site	Type of deposit	Method	Number of samples	Kd, ml/g Mean (range)	Reference
RF1B	Red Forest	Sand	batch	2	32.5 (27 – 38)	Radium Institute, 1992
RF1C	Red Forest	Sandy loam	batch	2	200 (160 – 240)	Radium Institute, 1992
RF1D	Red Forest	Clay loam	batch	1	311	Radium Institute, 1992
VS1A	Vector	Coarse sand	batch	2	155 (150 – 160)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1B	Vector	Medium sand	batch	10	270(120 - 640)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1C	Vector	Fine sand	batch	32	300 (90 – 800)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1D	Vector	Silty sand	batch	15	480 (170 – 1080)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1E	Vector	Sandy loam	batch	10	1260 (210 – 4500)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1F	Vector	Clay loam	batch	8	2070 (300 - 8300)	Shehtman et al., 1996
PZ1A	Pripyat Zaton	Fine sand	batch	1	43	Devol-Brown et al., 2002
PZ4A	Pripyat Zaton	Fine sand	batch	4	500 (410 – 580)	Szenknect, 2003
PZ4B	Pripyat Zaton	Fine sand	column	1	1220 (R=6600)	Szenknect, 2003

347

348 Plutonium isotopes

349 Plutonium has the most complex geochemistry among the reviewed radionuclides. The adsorption of
 350 Pu by soils depends upon its oxidation state, groundwater pH, complexation with dissolved organic
 351 ligands, and other factors. Pu can exist in the aquatic environment in four different valence states (+3,
 352 +4, +5, +6). The reduced forms of Pu (+3, +4) are generally 2- 3 orders of magnitude less mobile than the
 353 oxidized forms (+5, +6) due to adsorption and precipitation reactions. Relatively high Kd values
 354 determine generally low mobility in groundwater in the far-field (EPA, 1999b; Cantrell and Felmy, 2012).
 355 The mobility of Pu in the subsurface can be significantly promoted by colloid formation and

356 complexation reactions, leading to facilitated transport of low-retarded anionic forms of Pu associated
 357 with low-molecular organic compounds; at the same time, the fraction of fast migrating forms of Pu is
 358 usually relatively low (Kersting, 2012; Santschi et al., 2017).

359 Adsorption parameters of Pu isotopes (^{238}Pu , ^{239}Pu , ^{240}Pu and ^{241}Pu) on local geological deposits from the
 360 ChNPP site have been analyzed in relatively fewer studies compared to Sr and Cs. Less interest in Pu can
 361 be due to less abundance of Pu in the radioactivity source-term in CEZ ($^{239,240}\text{Pu}$: ^{137}Cs activity ratio in
 362 dispersed nuclear fuel particles was 0.012 in 1995 (Antropov et al., 2001)) and due to generally known
 363 lower mobility in soils and the aquatic environment, so that Pu did not pose an immediate hazard for
 364 contaminating water resources in the CEZ. Plutonium Kd values for sand estimated by different methods
 365 vary from 7 ml/g to 670 ml/g; the Kd values for clay - loam deposits vary from 200 - 6100 ml/g (Table4).

366 Table 4. Compilation of Kd values for Pu isotopes based on studies conducted on geological deposits
 367 from Chernobyl Exclusion Zone.

ID	Site	Type of deposits	Meth od	Number of samples	Kd, ml/g Mean (range)	Reference
RF1E	Red Forest	Sand	batch	4	360 (150 – 670)	Radium Institute, 1992
RF5A	Red Forest	Fine sand	In-situ	3	25 (7-47)	Levchuk et al., 2009
VS1A	Vector	Coarse sand	batch	1	180	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1B	Vector	Medium sand	batch	6	180 (70 – 380)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1C	Vector	Fine sand	batch	16	187 (50 – 490)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1D	Vector	Silty sand	batch	6	255 (100 – 410)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1E	Vector	Sandy loam	batch	6	1415 (200 – 2900)	Shehtman et al., 1996
VS1F	Vector	Clay loam	batch	4	2850 (910 – 6100)	Shehtman et al., 1996

368

369

370 **7. Discussion**

371 Typical ranges of values of Kd values of Sr, Cs and Pu radionuclides for geological deposits from the CEZ
372 are summarized in Table 5. The same table also lists the mean Kd values based on a recent
373 comprehensive statistics of sorption parameters of radionuclides summarized for radioecological
374 modeling purposes in the IAEA TRS-472 report (IAEA, 2010).

375 The following general observations can be made. In general, the site-specific radionuclide Kd values for
376 Quaternary sandy geological deposits from the CEZ (listed in Table 5) fall within the range of values for
377 the respective types of deposits reported in the literature (Sheppard and Thibault, 1990; Serne, 2007;
378 IAEA, 2010). In agreement with general knowledge on radionuclide geochemical behavior and affinity to
379 soils, the radionuclide sorption distribution coefficients increase in the sequence: Sr < Cs < Pu.

380 It can be noted also, that typical radionuclide Kd values for sandy deposits in the CEZ are on the whole
381 lower than mean values for same type of soils from the IAEA TRS-472 report. This can be explained by
382 the specific origin and respective mineralogical composition of sandy deposits in CEZ, where a large
383 proportion of the Kd determinations included in Tables 2 - 4 were carried out on eolian sand deposits
384 from upper soil layers, where fine fractions are represented by dispersed quartz (rather than clay
385 minerals) and are characterized by relatively low CEC values and sorption capacity (see Section 2).

386 Radionuclide Kd data for different deposit lithologies in Chernobyl Exclusion zone (based on combined
387 Kd data set analyzed in this article; see the electronic supplement) are shown in graphical format in Fig.
388 3. An interesting observation is significantly higher variability of Kd values for deposit containing larger
389 percentage of loam and clay fractions compared to deposits with sandy material. The possible
390 explanation of higher variability of Kd values for clay loam and sandy loam deposits is variability of
391 content in fine fractions of these deposits of clay minerals controlling radionuclide sorption process
392 (e.g., hydromica as opposed to fine dispersed calcite or quartz).

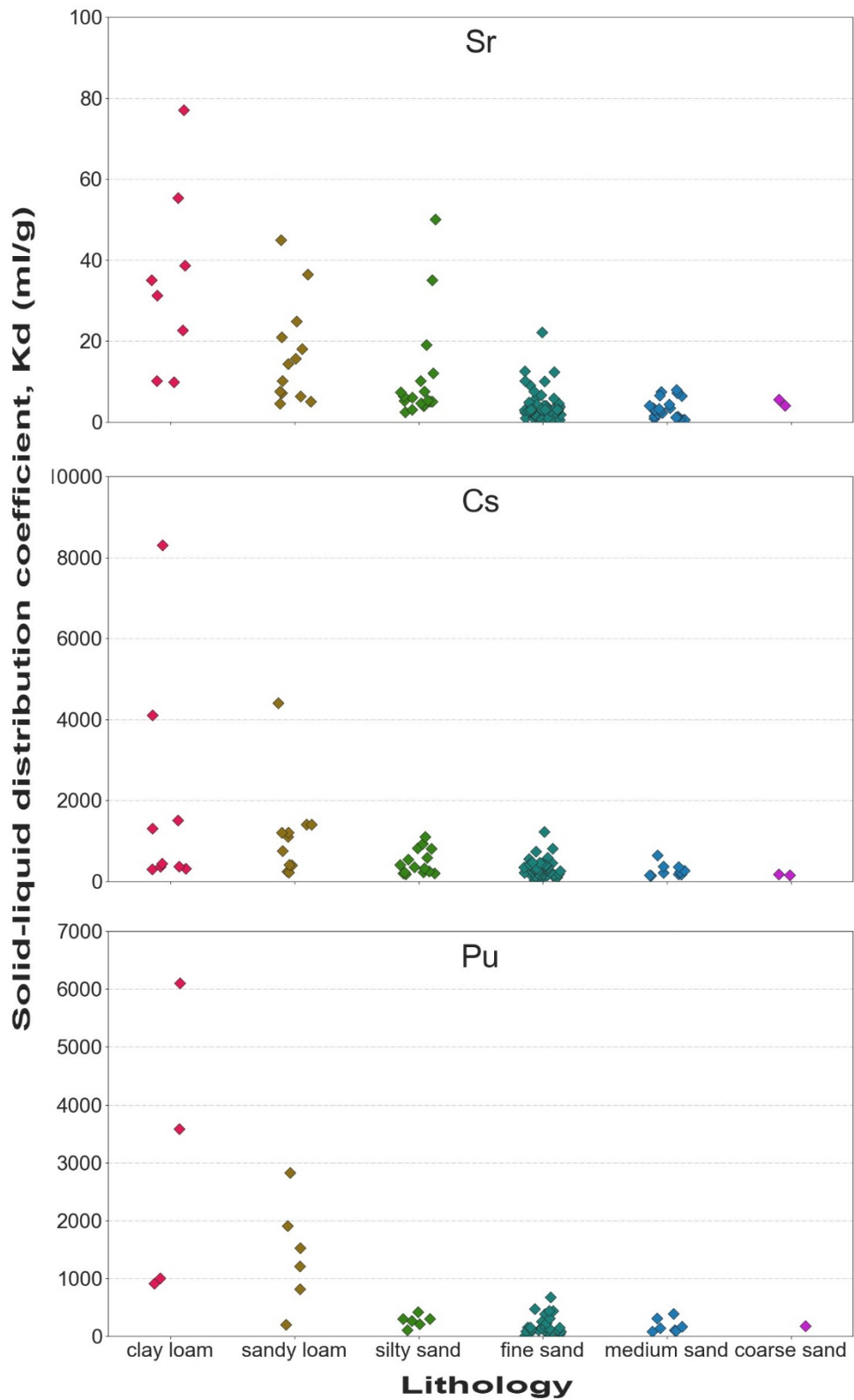
393

394 Table 5. Summary table of typical Kd values of Sr, Cs and Pu isotopes based on studies conducted on
 395 geological deposits from Chernobyl Exclusion Zone.

Radionuclide	Sediment type	Method	Typical Kd values *, ml/g	Min Kd, ml/g	Max Kd, ml/g	TRS-472 Kd (mean), ml/g
Sr						
	Sand	Batch	2 - 12,5	1.0	12	22
	Sand	In-situ	2 - 17	0.2	22.1	
	Sand	Model calibr.	0.5 - 1	0.5	1.3	
	Loam / Clay	Batch	7 - 35	4.5	77	69
Cs						
	Sand	Batch	32.5 - 480	27	1080	530
	Loam/Clay	Batch	311 - 2070	210	8300	370
Pu						
	Sand	Batch	180 - 360	50	670	400
	Sand	In-situ	25	7	47	
	Loam/Clay	Batch	1415 - 2850	200	6100	1100

396 Note: * - Range of reported 'mean' Kd values from different studies

397



398

399

Fig.3. Radionuclide Kd data for different lithologies of geological deposit in the Chernobyl Exclusion

400

zone.

401 The Chernobyl case study allows us to carry out inter-comparison of results of Kd determination using
402 different methods. For Sr, Kd determinations using the batch methods and in situ partition tests have
403 produced Kd values that are in a reasonable agreement (see Table 2 and Table 5).

404 At the same time, ⁹⁰Sr Kd values obtained from groundwater transport model calibrations for trench
405 no.22 at “Red Forest” and for the Chernobyl cooling pond were noticeably lower than experimentally
406 determined sorption parameters (see Table 2 and Table 5).

407 In the case of trench 22, low ‘effective’ Kd value obtained from groundwater transport model calibration
408 (that described ⁹⁰Sr transport from the trench to the eolian sand aquifer on a time scale of ~20 y) was
409 explained by the evolution of geochemical conditions in groundwater during the simulated period (Bugai
410 et al., 2012): elevated concentrations of competing cations (Ca, Mg, stable Sr) in the leachate plume
411 emerging from the trench in the early aftermath of the Chernobyl accident (caused by biogeochemical
412 degradation of organic matter inside the burial) presumably has lowered sorption of ⁹⁰Sr on aquifer
413 deposits, compared to the time of experimental determinations of Kd in the in-situ and batch tests .

414 The ⁹⁰Sr Kd values of an order of ~ 1 ml/g obtained from calibration of the groundwater transport model
415 describing radionuclide transport from the contaminated cooling pond to the Pripjat River in the alluvial
416 sand aquifer (Bugai et al., 1997, 2005) are noticeably lower than Kd values of ~ 2 -7 mL/g determined
417 from in situ partition tests using cores from the contaminated aquifer near the cooling pond (Gudzenko
418 et al., 1994) (see Table 1). This was attributed to partly non-exchangeable (or kinetically-limited)
419 sorption - desorption reactions of ⁹⁰Sr on aquifer sediments: some part of the ⁹⁰Sr adsorbed from an
420 initially high-concentration solution emerging from the pond is retained on sediments resulting in a
421 higher apparent in situ Kd (Bugai et al., 1997). Similar ⁹⁰Sr non-equilibrium sorption process affecting
422 groundwater transport was reported by Lyon and Patterson (1984), who studied ⁹⁰Sr transport in
423 groundwater in sand aquifer at Chalk River Nuclear Laboratories site in Canada.

424 The above examples illustrate some potential pitfalls that can be encountered when applying
425 experimentally determined Kd values in groundwater transport models.

426 It is also worth noting relatively low plutonium Kd values obtained in in-situ partition tests compared to
 427 values reported from batch tests (see Tables 4, 5). Low Pu Kd values from in-situ tests for sandy deposits
 428 from “Red Forest” site likely reflect the influence on sorption of Pu association with colloids and low-
 429 molecular organic compounds, which were present in groundwater due to degradation of organic debris
 430 inside the trench no.22 (Levchuk et al., 2009).

431 ***Cross-checking Kd-s with groundwater monitoring data in CEZ***

432 Monitoring data on comparative mobility of radionuclides in groundwater in the 10-km zone of the
 433 ChNPP reported by State Special Enterprise “Ecocenter”, which is responsible for environmental
 434 radiological monitoring in CEZ and is carrying groundwater observations at about 140 monitoring wells
 435 (Table 6), are broadly consistent with the radionuclide Kd values listed in Table 5. The highest
 436 concentrations in groundwater (based on published observation data for 2012-2014) were observed for
 437 ⁹⁰Sr (which have the lowest Kd values), while orders of magnitude lower groundwater concentrations
 438 are observed for ¹³⁷Cs and Pu isotopes. More details on groundwater contamination in Chernobyl zone
 439 during the post-accident period can be found in (Bugai et al., 1996, 1997, 2012; Dzhepo and Skalsky, 2002;
 440 2002; Kireev et al., 2013).

441 Table 6. Radionuclide concentrations in groundwater in the 10-km zone of ChNPP in 2012 – 2014
 442 (measured in monitoring wells of State Special Enterprise “Ecocenter”).

Radionuclide	Max concentrations, Bq/L	Typical concentrations, Bq/L	Reference
Sr-90	60 - 170	0.5 - 5	Kireev et al., 2013
Cs-137	0.1 – 0.5	0.01 – 0.05	Kireev et al., 2013
Pu-239+240	0.001 – 0.004	0.00005 – 0.0005	S.Obrizan, Ecocenter, pers.comm

443

444 Though Cs and Pu activity concentrations in groundwater are generally low, these radionuclides are
 445 detected in groundwater at sites in CEZ with a relatively deep groundwater table (e.g., several meters) in
 446 concentrations (see Table 6) that are still much higher than simple retardation calculations using Kd

447 model would suggest. In some instances, “artificial” contamination of deep aquifer strata during well
448 construction, or facilitated transport from contaminated soil surface along an imperfect contact in the
449 borehole between the well column and surrounding geological deposits cannot be excluded. However,
450 similar data were reported for the experimental site near the trench no.22 in Chernobyl “Red Forest”
451 where special precautions were taken to remove contaminated topsoil layer prior to well installation,
452 and to isolate monitoring well screens using bentonite seals (Bugai et al., 2012; Levchuk et al., 2009), as
453 well as for one-point-in-time groundwater sampling results at radioactive waste dump sites in Chernobyl
454 zone using direct push-drill techniques, where collected groundwater samples suffered minimal
455 disturbance (Antropov et al., 2001, Appendix H). Therefore, the discussed above occurrence of small
456 amounts of Cs and Pu radionuclides in groundwater in our opinion can be most likely explained by
457 facilitated transport of small amounts of these radionuclides from the contaminated (by radioactive
458 fallout) soil surface in the form of non-retarded colloids or complexes, as observed at some other
459 radioactively contaminated sites worldwide (Kersting, 2012; Santschi et al., 2017).

460 It should be noted that a relatively high mobility of ^{90}Sr in groundwater compared to ^{137}Cs and Pu
461 radionuclides has been observed at many other sites worldwide including, for example, Chalk River
462 Nuclear Laboratories in Canada (Jackson and Inch, 1980; Melnyk et al., 1984), Hanford site in the USA
463 (Gilmore et al., 2007; Hartman et al., 2007) and Sellafield in the UK (Sellafield Ltd., 2017).

464 **8. Conclusions**

465 Studies of radionuclide sorption on geological deposits that were carried during last three decades in
466 Chernobyl Exclusion Zone provide various experimental evidence (from laboratory, and from the field)
467 on Sr, Cs, and Pu radionuclide interactions with geological media; these are briefly summarized in this
468 article.

469 The presented compilation of Kd values can be used to complement existing Kd databases, and it can be
470 used as a source of sorption parameters for other sites with analogous geology and hydrogeology
471 worldwide. It can be also used for performance assessment of existing ‘legacy’ radioactive waste burial
472 sites and planned radioactive waste disposal facilities at Vector Complex in Chernobyl zone.

473 The Chernobyl experience also can be useful to provide a better understanding of potential limitations
474 and pitfalls of the Kd based modeling approach (as discussed in this article). The CEZ as an ‘open sky
475 laboratory’ offers opportunities and can provide valuable monitoring and experimental data on in-situ
476 interactions of radionuclides with geological materials in challenging scientific areas (e.g., facilitated
477 transport of radionuclides in association with organic ligands and colloids, radionuclide fixation and
478 ‘ageing’ process by deposits, non-equilibrium adsorption-desorption process, etc.). Unfortunately, until
479 now sorption studies in CEZ have been rather narrowly focused and limited in scope. It is our hope that
480 the scientific community will benefit in future from research opportunities offered by Chernobyl Zone.

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