



Spatial radionuclide deposition data from the 60 km area around the Chernobyl nuclear power plant: results from a sampling survey in 1987.

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Abstract. The dataset “Spatial radionuclide deposition data from the 60 km area around the Chernobyl nuclear power plant: results from a sampling survey in 1987” is the latest in a series of data to be published by the Environmental Information Data Centre (EIDC) describing samples collected and analysed following the Chernobyl nuclear power plant accident in 1986. The data result from a survey carried out by the Ukrainian Institute of Agricultural Radiology (UIAR) in April and May 1987 and include information on sample sites, dose rate, radionuclide (zirconium-95, niobium-95, ruthenium-106, caesium-134, caesium-137 and cerium-144) deposition, and exchangeable caesium-134 and 137.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the available data and methodology used to obtain them. The data will be useful in the reconstruction of doses to human and wildlife populations, answering the current lack of scientific consensus on the effects of radiation on wildlife in the Chernobyl Exclusion zone and in evaluating future management options for Chernobyl impacted area of Ukraine and Belarus.

The data and supporting documentation are freely available from the Environmental Information Data Centre (EIDC) under the terms and conditions of the Open Government Licence (Kashparov et al., 2019 <https://doi.org/10.5285/a408ac9d-763e-4f4c-ba72-73bc2d1f596d>).

1 Background

The dynamics of the releases of radioactive substance from the number four reactor at the Chernobyl nuclear power plant (ChNPP) and meteorological conditions (Chernobyl, 1996) over the ten days following the accident on the 26th April 1986 resulted in a complex pattern of contamination over a vast area (De Cort et al., 1998; IAEA, 2006).

The neutron flux rise and a sharp increase in energy emission at the time of the accident resulted in heating of the nuclear fuel and leakage of fission products. Destruction of the fuel rods caused an increase in heat transfer to the surface of the superheated fuel particles and coolant, and release of radioactive substances into the atmosphere (Kashparov et al., 1996). According to the latest estimates (Kashparov et al., 2003; UNSCEAR, 2008) 100% of inert radioactive gases (largely ⁸⁵Kr and ¹³³Xe), 20-60% of iodine isotopes, 12-40% of ^{134,137}Cs and 1.4-4% of less volatile radionuclides (⁹⁵Zr, ⁹⁹Mo, ^{89,90}Sr, ^{103,106}Ru, ^{141,144}Ce, ^{154,155}Eu, ²³⁸⁻²⁴¹Pu etc.) in the reactor at the moment of the accident were released to the atmosphere.

As a result of the initial explosion on 26th April 1986, a narrow (100 km long and up to 1 km wide) relatively straight trace of radioactive fallout formed to the west of the reactor in the direction of Red Forest and Tolsty Les village (this has subsequently become known as the ‘western trace’). This trace was mainly finely dispersed nuclear fuel (Kashparov et al., 2003,



48 2018) and could only have been formed as a consequence of the short-term release of fuel
49 particles with overheated vapour to a comparatively low height during night time (the accident
50 occurred at 01:24) stable atmospheric conditions. At the time of the accident, surface winds
51 were weak and did not have any particular direction; only at a height of 1500 m was there a
52 south-western wind with the velocity $8-10 \text{ m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ (IAEA, 1992). Cooling of the release cloud,
53 which included steam, resulted in the decrease of its volume, water condensation and wet
54 deposition of radionuclides as mist (as the released steam cooled) (Saji, 2005). Later the main
55 mechanism of fuel particle formation was the oxidation of the nuclear fuel (Kashparov et al.,
56 1996; Salbu et al., 1994). There was an absence of data on meteorological conditions in the
57 area of ChNPP at the time of the accident (the closest observations were for a distance of more
58 than 100 km away to the west (Izrael et al., 1990)). There was also a lack of source term
59 information and data on the composition of dispersed radioactive fallout. Consequently, it was
60 not possible to make accurate predictions of deposition for the area close to the ChNPP
61 (Talerko, 2005).

62 The relative leakage of fission products of uranium (IV) oxide in an inert environment at
63 temperatures up to $2600 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ decreases in the order: volatile (Xe, Kr, I, Cs, Te, Sb, Ag), semi-
64 volatile (Mo, Ba, Rh, Pd, Tc) and nonvolatile (Sr, Y, Nb, Ru, La, Ce, Eu) fission products
65 (Kashparov et al., 1996; Pontillon et al., 2010). As a result of the estimated potential remaining
66 heat release from fuel at the time of the accident ($\sim 230 \text{ W kg}^{-1} \text{ U}$) and the heat accumulation
67 in fuel (National Report of Ukraine, 2011), highly mobile volatile fission products (Kr, Xe,
68 iodine, tellurium, caesium) were released from the fuel of the reactor and raised to a height of
69 more than 1 km on 26th April 1986 and to *c.* 600 m over the following days (IAEA, 1992; Izrael
70 et al., 1990). The greatest release of radiocaesium occurred during the period of maximum
71 heating of the reactor fuel on 26-28th April 1986 (Izrael et al., 1990). This caused the formation
72 of the western, south-western (towards the settlements of Poliske and Bober), north-western
73 (ultimately spreading to Sweden and wider areas of western Europe), and north-eastern
74 condensed radioactive traces. Caesium deposition at distances from Chernobyl was largely
75 determined by the degree of precipitation (e.g. see Chaplow et al. (2015) discussing deposition
76 across Great Britain). After the covering of the reactor by dropping materials (including, 40 t
77 of boron carbide, 2500 t of lead, 1800 t of sand and clay, 800 t of dolomite) from helicopters
78 over the period 27th April–10th May 1986 (National Report of Ukraine, 2011), the ability for
79 heat exchange of the fuel reduced, which caused a rise of temperature and consequent increase
80 of the leakage of volatile fission products and the melting of the materials which had been
81 dropped onto the reactor. Subsequently, there was a sharp reduction in the releases of
82 radionuclides from the destroyed reactor on 6th May 1986 (National Report of Ukraine, 2011)
83 due to aluminosilicates forming thermally stable compounds with many fission products and
84 fixing caesium and strontium at high temperature (a process known prior to the Chernobyl
85 accident (Hilpert & Nurberg, 1983)).

86 The changes of the annealing temperature of the nuclear fuel during the accident had a strong
87 effect on both the ratio of different volatile fission products released (the migratory properties
88 of Xe, Kr, I, Te, Cs increased with the temperature rise and were influenced by the presence of
89 UO_2) and the rate of destruction of the nuclear fuel which oxidised forming micronized fuel
90 particles (Salbu et al., 1994; Kashparov et al., 1996). The deposition of radionuclides such as
91 ^{90}Sr , $^{238-241}\text{Pu}$, ^{241}Am , which were associated with the fuel component of the Chernobyl releases
92 was largely limited to areas relatively close to the ChNPP. Areas receiving deposition of these



93 radionuclides were the Chernobyl Exclusion Zone (i.e. the area of approximately 30 km radius
94 around the ChNPP), and adjacent territories in the north of the Kiev region, in the west of the
95 Chernihiv region, and the Bragin and Hoyniki districts of the Gomel region (Belarus).
96 Deposition was related to the rate of the dry gravitational sedimentation of the fuel particles
97 caused by their high density (about 8-10 g·cm⁻³ (Kashparov et al., 1996)); sedimentation of the
98 lightweight condensation particles, containing iodine and caesium radioisotopes, was lower
99 and hence these were transported further.

100 After the Chernobyl accident, western Europe and the Ukrainian-Belorussian Polesye were
101 contaminated with radionuclides (IAEA, 1991, 1992, 2006). However, the area extending to
102 60-km around the ChNPP was the most contaminated (Izrael et al., 1990). Work on the
103 assessment of the radiological situation within the zone started within a few days of the
104 accident; the aim of this work was the radiation protection of the population and personnel.

105 Further quantification of terrestrial dose rates was carried out by aerial-gamma survey by the
106 State Hydrometeorological Committee together with Ministry of Geology and Ministry of
107 Defence of USSR (Izrael et al., 1990). Large-scale sampling of soil was also conducted, with
108 samples analysed using gamma-spectrometry and radiochemistry methods (Izrael et al., 1990).
109 The first results showed high variability in dose rates and radionuclide activity concentrations,
110 with spatial patterns in both radioactive contamination and the radionuclide composition of
111 fallout (Izrael et al., 1990).

112 The initial area from which the population was evacuated was based on an arbitrary decision
113 whereby a circle around the Chernobyl nuclear power plant with a radius of 30 km was defined
114 (IAEA, 1991). In the initial phase after the accident (before 7th May 1986) 99195 people were
115 evacuated from 113 settlements including 11358 people from 51 villages in Belarus and 87 837
116 people from 62 settlements in Ukraine (including about 45 thousand people evacuated between
117 14.00-17.00 on April 27 from the town of Pripyat located 4 km from the ChNPP).

118 The analysis of data available in May 1986 showed that the extent of the territory with
119 radioactive contamination where comprehensive measures were required to protect the
120 population extended far beyond the 30-km Chernobyl Exclusion Zone (CEZ). A temporary
121 annual effective dose limit of 100 mSv for the period from 26th April 1986 to 25th April 1987
122 (50 mSv from external and 50 mSv from internal exposure) was set by the USSR Ministry of
123 Health. To identify areas outside of the CEZ where the population required evacuation, dose
124 criteria had to be defined. It was proposed to use the average value of the dose rate of gamma
125 radiation in open air for an area (estimated for 10th May, 1986) to help define an evacuation
126 zone. An exposure dose rate of 5 mR h⁻¹ estimated for 10th May 1986 (approximating to an
127 effective dose rate (EDR) of gamma radiation in air of 50 μSv h⁻¹) equated to an external annual
128 dose of 50 mSv for the period from 26th April 1986 to 25th April 1987.

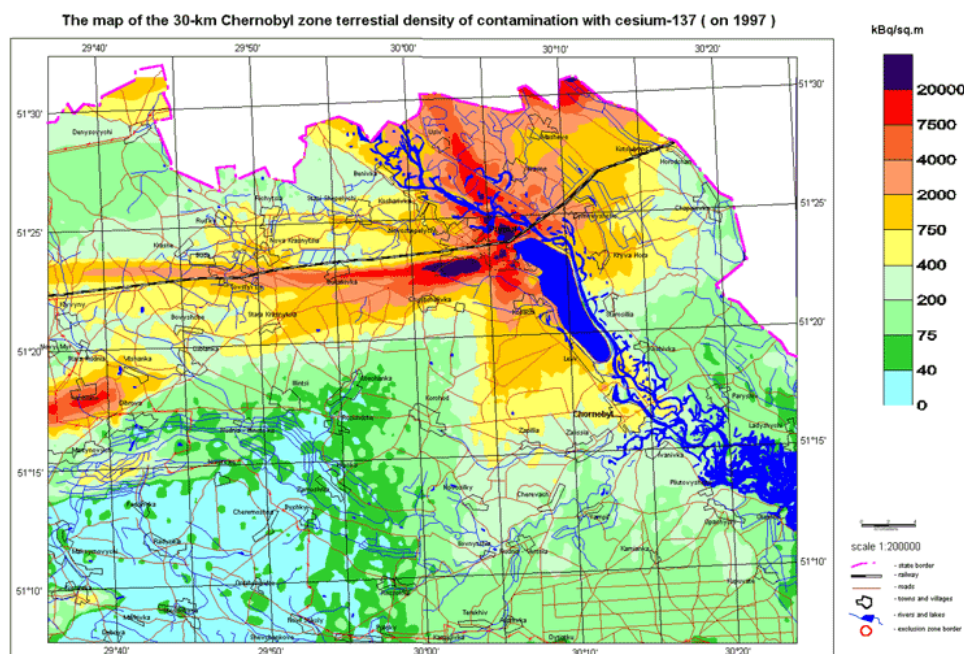
129 At the end of May 1986 an approach to identifying areas where evacuation was required using
130 estimated internal dose rates was proposed. This used the average density of the surface
131 contamination of the soil with long-lived biologically significant nuclides (¹³⁷Cs, ⁹⁰Sr, ^{239,240}Pu)
132 in a settlement and modelling to estimate the contamination of foodstuffs and hence diet. The
133 numerical values suggested to identify areas for evacuation were: 15 Ci km⁻² (555 kBq m⁻²) of
134 ¹³⁷Cs, 3 Ci km⁻² (111 kBq m⁻²) of ⁹⁰Sr and 0.1 Ci km⁻² (3.7 kBq m⁻²) of ^{239,240}Pu; this equated
135 to an internal dose of 50 mSv over the first year after the accident.



136 However, in reality the main criterion for the evacuation was the exposure dose rate ($R \text{ h}^{-1}$) and
137 where the exposure dose rate exceeded 5 mR h^{-1} (EDR in air of about $50 \mu\text{Sv h}^{-1}$) the evacuated
138 population were not allowed to return.

139 Hence, in 1986 the boundary of the population evacuation zone was set at an exposure dose
140 rate of 5 mR h^{-1} (EDR of about $50 \mu\text{Sv h}^{-1}$). However, the ratio of short-lived gamma-emitting
141 radionuclides (^{95}Zr , ^{95}Nb , ^{106}Ru , ^{144}Ce) deposited as fuel particles to $^{134,137}\text{Cs}$ deposited as
142 condensation particles, was inconsistent across the evacuated areas. Therefore, after the
143 radioactive decay of the short-lived radionuclides the residual dose rate across the evacuated
144 areas varied considerably and was largely determined by the pattern of long-lived ^{137}Cs
145 deposition (e.g. Figure 1) (Kashparov et al., 2018).

146



147

148 Figure 1. Caesium-137 deposition in the Ukrainian 30-km exclusion zone estimated for 1997
149 (from UIAR, 1998).

150

151 The first measurements of activity concentration of radionuclides in soil showed that
152 radionuclide activity concentration ratios depended on distance and direction from the ChNPP
153 (Izrael et al., 1990). Subsequent to this observation a detailed study of soil contamination
154 was started in 1987 (Izrael et al., 1990). Taking into account the considerable heterogeneity of
155 terrestrial contamination with radioactive substances in a large area, sampling along the
156 western, southern and northern traces was carried out in stages finishing in 1988.

157 In 1987 the State Committee of Hydrometeorology of the USSR and the Scientific Centre of
158 the Defence Ministry of the USSR established a survey programme to monitor radionuclide
159 activity concentrations in soil. For this purpose, 540 sampling sites were identified at a distance



160 of 5 km to 60 km around the ChNPP using a polar coordinate system centred on the ChNPP.
161 Fifteen sampling sites were selected on each of the 36 rays drawn every 10 degrees (Loshchilov
162 et al., 1991) (Figure 3, 4). Radionuclide activity concentrations in 489 soil samples collected
163 on the radial network were determined by the Ukrainian Institute of Agricultural Radiology
164 (UIAR) and used to calculate the radionuclide contamination density. These data are discussed
165 in this paper and the full dataset is freely available from Kashparov et al. (2019).

166

167 **2 Data**

168 The data (Kashparov et al., 2019) include location of sample sites (easting, northing, angle and
169 distance from the ChNPP), dose rate, radionuclide deposition data, counting efficiency and
170 information on exchangeable $^{134,137}\text{Cs}$.

171

172 **2.1 Sampling**

173 To enable long-term monitoring and contamination mapping of the 60-km zone around the
174 ChNPP 540 points were defined and sampled in April – May 1987. The sampling strategy used
175 a radial network with points at every 10° (from 10° to 360°); sampling points were located at
176 distances of 5 km, 6 km, 7 km, 8.3 km, 10 km, 12 km, 14.7 km, 17 km, 20 km, 25 km, 30 km,
177 37.5 km, 45 km, 52.5 km and 60 km (Figure 3, 4). The locations of sampling points were
178 identified using maps and local landscape. Sites were resampled regularly until 1990 and
179 sporadically thereafter, however, data for these subsequent samplings are not available
180 (including to the UIAR).

181 Samples were not collected from points located in swamps, rivers and lakes; in total 489
182 samples were collected. A corer with a diameter of 14 cm was used to collect soil samples
183 down to a depth of 5 cm from five points at each location using the envelope method (with
184 approximately 5-10 m between sampling points) (Figure 2) (Loshchilov et al., 1991). Soil cores
185 were retained intact during transportation to the laboratory. At each sampling point, the
186 exposure dose rate was determined 1 m above ground level.

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190

191 Figure 2. Soil sampling using a ring of 14 cm diameter to collect a 5 cm deep soil core (courtesy
192 of UIAR, 1989).



193

194 2.2 Analysis

195 Using a high-purity germanium detector (GEM-30185, ORTEC, USA) and a multichannel
196 analyser “ADCAM-300” (ORTEC, USA), the activity concentration of gamma emitting
197 radionuclides ($^{95}\text{Zr}+^{95}\text{Nd}$, ^{106}Ru , $^{134,137}\text{Cs}$, ^{144}Ce) was determined in one soil sample from each
198 sampling site. Soil samples were analysed in a 1 litre Marinelli container. The other four cores
199 were sent to different laboratories in the Soviet Union (data for these cores are unfortunately
200 not available). Using a 1M NH_4Ac solution (pH 7) a 100 g subsample of soil was leached
201 (solid: liquid ratio 1:5). The resultant leachate solution was shaken for 1 hour and then left at
202 room temperature for 1 day before filtering through ashless filter paper (3-5 μm). The filtrate
203 was then put into a suitable container for gamma analysis to determine the fraction of
204 exchangeable $^{134,137}\text{Cs}$. Measured activity concentrations were reported at 68% confidence
205 level (which equates to one standard deviation).

206

207 The density of soil contamination (Bq m^{-2}) was calculated from the estimated radionuclide
208 activity concentrations in soils. It has been estimated that using one soil sample (of area 0.015
209 m^2) is used to estimate a value of contamination density of the sampling site (i.e. the area from
210 which five cores were collected) the uncertainty may be up to 50% (Khomutinin et al., 2019).

211

212 The data described in this paper (Kashparov et al., 2019) comprise exposure dose rate (mR/h),
213 date of gamma activity measurement, density of contamination (Bq m^{-2}) of ^{95}Zr , ^{95}Nb , ^{106}Ru ,
214 ^{134}Cs , ^{137}Cs and ^{144}Ce (with associated activity measurement uncertainties) and density of
215 contamination of $^{134+137}\text{Cs}$ in exchangeable form. Reported radionuclide activity concentration
216 values are for the date of measurement (samples were analysed within 1.5 months of
217 collection).

218

219 2.3 Results

220

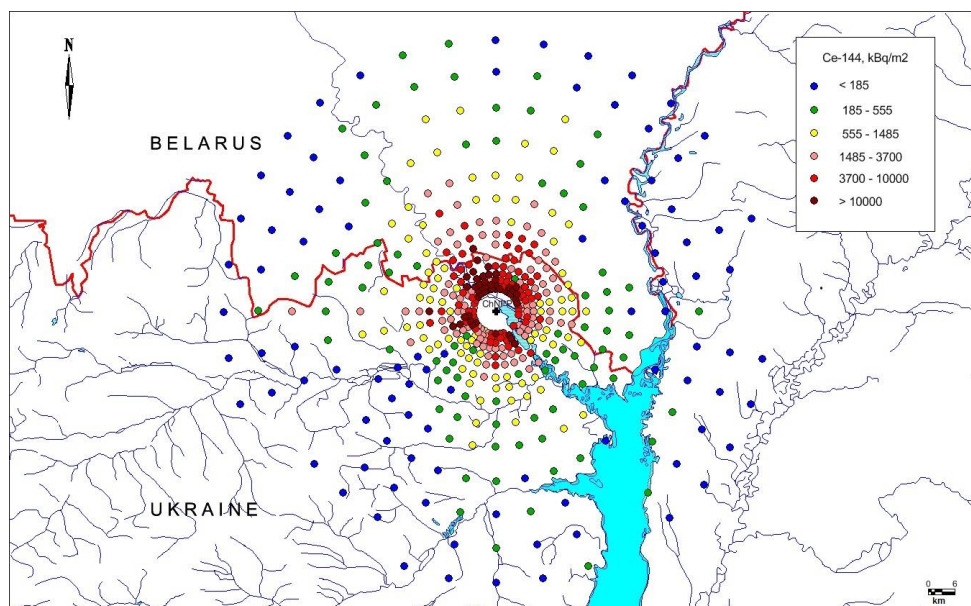
221 The contamination density of ^{144}Ce and ^{137}Cs are presented in Fig. 3 and 4; the activity
222 concentrations as presented in the figures have been decay corrected to 6th May 1986 the date
223 on which releases from the reactor in-effect stopped. The density of ^{144}Ce contamination
224 decreased exponentially with distance (Figures 3 and 5), because ^{144}Ce was released in the fuel
225 particles, which had a high dry deposition velocity (Kuriny et al., 1993). The fallout density of
226 ^{144}Ce decreased by 7-9 times between the 5 km and 30 km sampling sites, and by 70-120 times
227 between the 5 km and 60 km sampling sites (Figure 5).

228

229 The fallout density of ^{137}Cs decreased similarly to that of ^{144}Ce along the southern ‘fuel trace’
230 (Figure 5a). The contamination density of ^{137}Cs along the western trace decreased less than the
231 ^{144}Ce contamination density due to the importance of the condensation component of the fallout
232 in this direction (Figure 5b). The comparative decrease of ^{137}Cs contamination density along
233 the northern trace (mixed fuel and condensation fallout) was in between that of the southern
234 and western traces (Figure 5c) although there were caesium hotspots in the northern
235 condensation trace (Figures 4 and 5c). The activity ratio of ^{144}Ce to ^{137}Cs decreased with
236 distance from the ChNPP due to the condensation component being more important for ^{137}Cs ;
237 the condensation component had a lower deposition velocity compared with fuel particles (with
238 which ^{144}Ce was associated) (Figure 6). The ratio $^{144}\text{Ce}/^{137}\text{Cs}$ for Chernobyl reactor fuel on 6th
239 May 1986 can be estimated to be 15 from data presented in Table 1. The ratio was about 11
240 (geometric mean of 1167 measurements) in Chernobyl fuel particles larger than 10 μm due to
241 caesium escape during high-temperature annealing (Kuriny et al., 1993). The ratio of
242 $^{144}\text{Ce}/^{137}\text{Cs}$ in deposition exceeded five in the south-east and in the south up to 60 km and 30



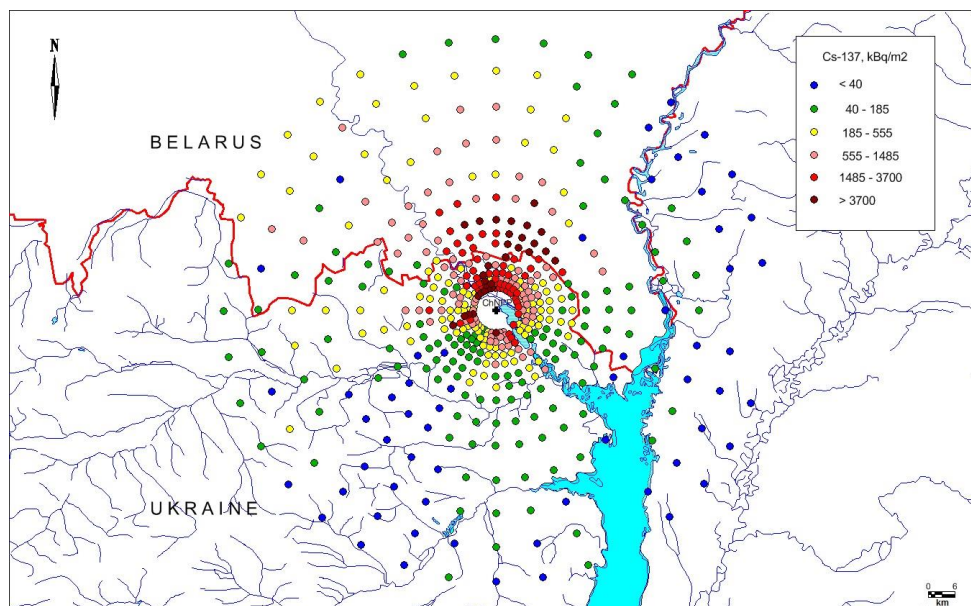
243 km from the NPP respectively (Figure 6). Thus, activities of $^{134,137}\text{Cs}$ in the condensate and in
244 the fuel components in these directions were of approximate equal importance. The
245 condensation component of caesium was more important in the north and dominated in the
246 west (Figure 8) (Loshchilov et al., 1991; Kuriny et al., 1993); the more rapidly changing
247 $^{144}\text{Ce}/^{137}\text{Cs}$ ratios in these directions are reflective of this (Figure 6).



248

249 Figure 3. The fallout density of ^{144}Ce (kBq/m^2) within the 60 km zone around the ChNPP
250 decay corrected to 6th May 1986.

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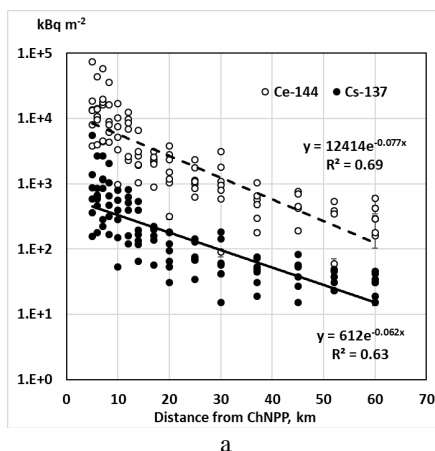
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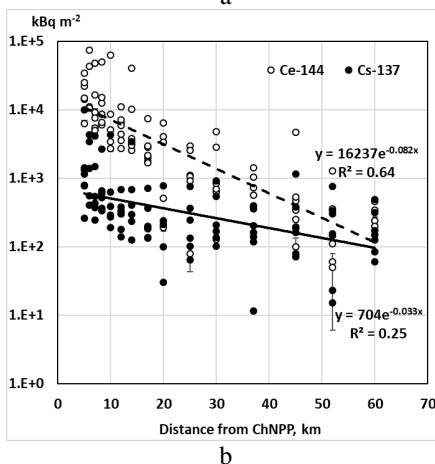
253 Figure 4. The fallout density of ^{137}Cs (kBq/m^2) within the 60 km zone around the ChNPP
254 decay corrected to 6th May 1986.



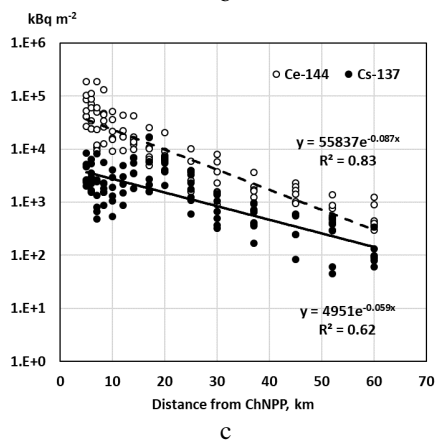
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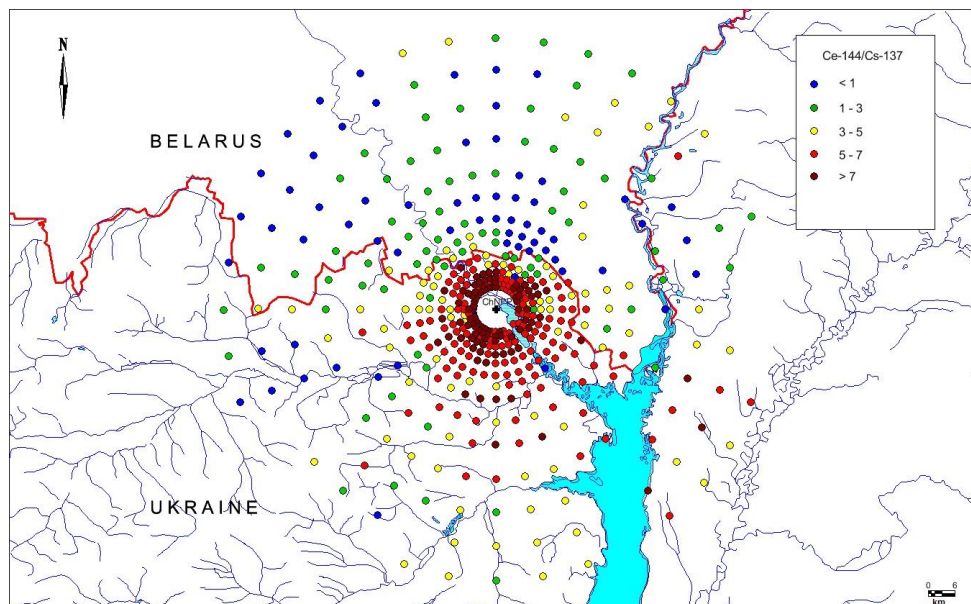
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262 Figure 5. Relationship between fallout density of ¹⁴⁴Ce (1) and ¹³⁷Cs (2) and distance from
263 the ChNPP towards the south (a) (150-210°), the west (b) (240-300°) and the north (c) (330-
264 30°).



265



266

267 Figure 6. $^{144}\text{Ce}/^{137}\text{Cs}$ ratio within the 60 km zone around the ChNPP decay corrected to 6th
 268 May 1986.

269 Table 1. The average activity concentrations of radionuclides with half-life ($T_{1/2}$) >1 day
 270 estimated in the fuel of the ChNPP number four reactor recalculated for 6th May 1986
 271 (Begichev et al., 1993).

Radionuclide	Half-life (days)	Average activity concentration (Bq g^{-1})	Radionuclide	Half-life (days)	Average activity concentration (Bq g^{-1})
^{75}Se	1.2E+02	5.40E+06	^{132}Te	3.3E+00	2.40E+10
^{76}As	1.1E+00	1.70E+07	^{133}Xe	5.2E+00	3.40E+10
^{77}As	1.6E+00	4.10E+07	^{134}Cs	7.6E+02	8.90E+08
^{82}Br	1.5E+00	1.80E+09	^{135}Cs	5.5E+07	1.90E+04
^{85}Kr	3.9E+03	1.50E+08	^{136}Cs	1.3E+01	3.30E+10
^{86}Rb	1.9E+01	8.70E+09	^{137}Cs	1.1E+04	1.40E+09
^{89}Sr	5.1E+01	2.10E+10	^{140}Ba	1.3E+01	3.20E+10
^{90}Sr	1.1E+04	1.20E+09	^{141}Ce	3.3E+01	2.90E+10
^{90}Y	1.1E+04	1.20E+09	^{143}Ce	1.4E+00	2.90E+10
^{91}Y	5.9E+01	2.60E+10	^{144}Ce	2.8E+02	2.10E+10
^{95}Zr	6.4E+01	3.10E+10	^{147}Nd	1.1E+01	1.10E+10
^{95}Nb	3.5E+01	3.00E+10	^{147}Pm	9.5E+02	4.20E+09
^{96}Nb	9.8E-01	3.10E+10	$^{148\text{m}}\text{Pm}$	4.1E+01	8.50E+09
^{99}Mo	2.7E+00	3.20E+10	^{149}Nd	2.2E+00	5.80E+09
$^{99\text{m}}\text{Tc}$	2.7E+00	2.80E+10	^{151}Pm	1.2E+00	2.60E+09



¹⁰³ Ru	3.9E+01	2.00E+10	¹⁵¹ Sm	3.3E+04	3.40E+07
¹⁰⁵ Rh	1.5E+00	1.00E+10	¹⁵³ Sm	1.9E+00	1.10E+09
¹⁰⁶ Ru	3.7E+02	4.50E+09	¹⁵⁴ Eu	3.1E+03	3.70E+07
^{110m} Ag	2.5E+02	5.30E+08	¹⁵⁵ Eu	1.7E+03	4.85E+07
¹¹¹ Ag	7.5E+00	4.40E+08	¹⁵⁶ Eu	1.5E+01	1.90E+08
^{115m} In	1.9E-01	8.60E+07	¹⁶⁰ Tb	7.2E+01	1.00E+07
^{117m} Sn	1.4E+01	8.30E+07	²³⁷ Np	7.8E+08	1.40E+03
¹²³ Sn	1.3E+02	9.90E+07	²³⁹ Np	2.4E+00	3.10E+11
¹²⁴ I	4.2E+00	1.40E+08	²³⁶ Pu	1.0E+03	6.00E+02
¹²⁵ Sb	1.0E+03	7.80E+07	²³⁸ Pu	3.2E+04	6.80E+06
^{125m} Te	5.8E+01	1.60E+07	²³⁹ Pu	8.8E+06	5.00E+06
^{126m} Sb	1.2E+01	4.40E+08	²⁴⁰ Pu	2.4E+06	7.80E+06
¹²⁶ Sb	1.2E+01	6.10E+07	²⁴¹ Pu	5.1E+03	9.60E+08
¹²⁷ Sb	3.8E+00	1.10E+09	²⁴² Pu	1.4E+08	1.50E+04
¹²⁷ Te	1.1E+02	8.90E+08	²⁴¹ Am	1.6E+05	8.70E+05
^{129m} Te	3.3E+01	5.50E+09	²⁴³ Am	2.7E+06	5.10E+04
¹³¹ I	8.0E+00	1.60E+10	²⁴² Cm	1.6E+02	2.30E+08
^{131m} Xe	1.2E+01	1.80E+08	²⁴⁴ Cm	6.6E+03	2.20E+06

272

273 A good correlation ($R^2=0.98$) was observed between fallout densities of ⁹⁵Zr (estimated from
 274 the activity concentration of daughter product ⁹⁵Nb)¹ and ¹⁴⁴Ce (Figure 7a) because both
 275 radionuclides were released and deposited as fuel particles (Kuriny et al., 1993; Kashparov et
 276 al., 2003; Kashparov, 2003). The fallout density ratio of ¹⁴⁴Ce/⁹⁵Zr=0.73±0.05, decay corrected
 277 to 6th May 1986, was similar to that estimated for Chernobyl reactor fuel (¹⁴⁴Ce/⁹⁵Zr=0.68)
 278 (Table 1).

279 The activity ratio of ¹⁴⁴Ce to ¹⁰⁶Ru in fallout was correlated ($R^2=0.93$) and was 3.9±0.4 decay
 280 corrected to 6th May 1986 (Figure 7b). The value was close to the ratio of ¹⁴⁴Ce/¹⁰⁶Ru estimated
 281 for fuel in the ChNPP number four reactor (4.7) (Table 1). Excess ¹⁰⁶Ru activity relative to
 282 ¹⁴⁴Ce activity in some soil samples was observed likely due to the presence of “ruthenium
 283 particles” (a matrix of iron group elements with a high content of ^{103,106}Ru (Kuriny et al., 1993;
 284 Kashparov et al., 1996)).

285 There was a weak correlation ($R^2=0.41$) between ¹⁴⁴Ce and ¹³⁷Cs activities in the fallout
 286 because, as already discussed, caesium was largely deposited as condensation particles while
 287 cerium was deposited in fuel particles only. However, in highly contaminated areas close to
 288 the ChNPP a significant part of the ¹³⁷Cs was deposited as fuel particles and the activity ratio
 289 of ¹⁴⁴Ce/¹³⁷Cs of 9.1 (Figure 7c) broadly corresponded to that of 15 in the reactor fuel (Table
 290 1).

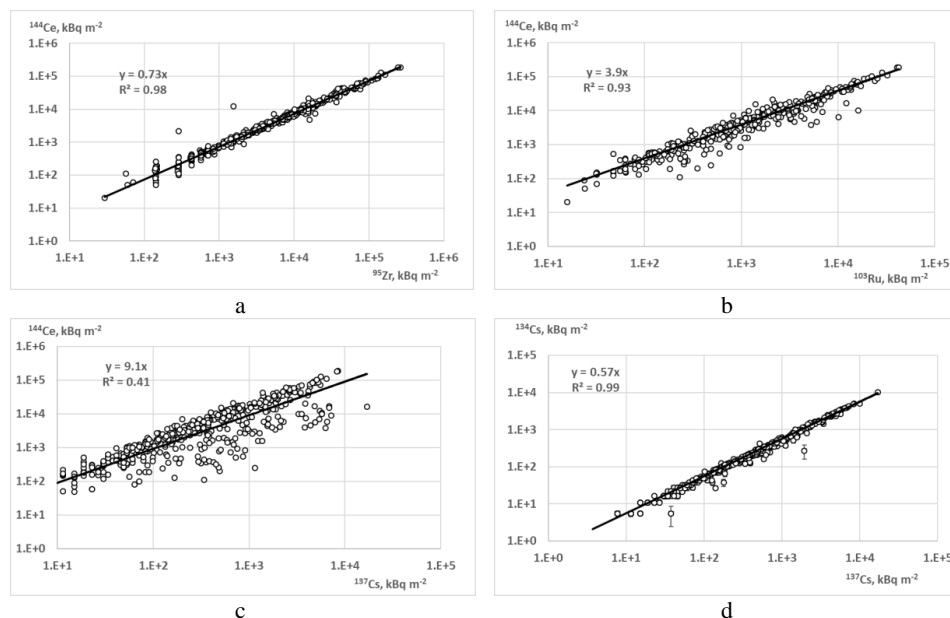
291 Different radioisotopes of caesium escaped from nuclear fuel and were deposited in the same
 292 way. This similar behaviour of ¹³⁴Cs and ¹³⁷Cs resulted in a strong correlation ($R^2=0.99$)

¹ Niobium-95 ($T_{1/2}=34$ days) is the daughter radionuclide of ⁹⁵Zr ($T_{1/2}=65$ days) and the ratio of their activities at an equilibrium equals ⁹⁵Nb/⁹⁵Zr=2.1.



293 between their activities in soil samples and the ratio of $^{134}\text{Cs}/^{137}\text{Cs}=0.57\pm 0.07$ was similar to
294 that estimated for the reactor fuel (0.64, Table 1).

295



296 Figure 7. Correlation between deposition densities of different radionuclides decay corrected
297 to 6th May 1986.

298

299 3 Use of the data

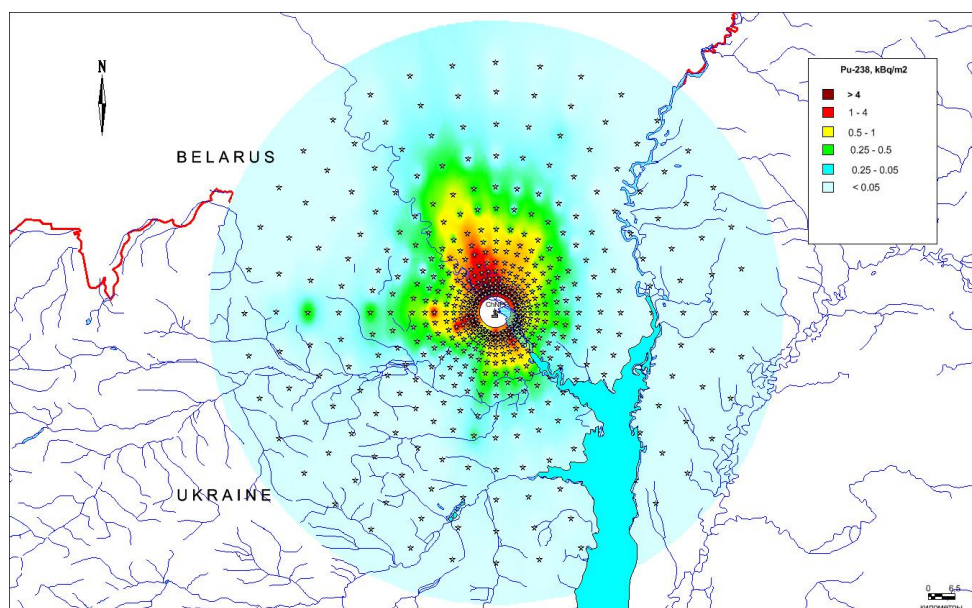
300 Apart from adding to the available data with which contamination maps for the CEZ and
301 surrounding areas can be generated (e.g. Kashparov et al., 2018) the data discussed in this paper
302 can be used to make predictions for less well studied radionuclides.

303 The determination of beta and alpha emitting radionuclides in samples requires radiochemical
304 extraction which is both time consuming and relatively expensive. Large-scale surveys of the
305 deposition of alpha and beta emitting radionuclides are therefore more difficult than those for
306 gamma-emitting radionuclides and are not conducive with responding to a large-scale accident
307 such as that which occurred at Chernobyl. Above we have demonstrated that the deposition
308 behaviour of different groups of radionuclides was determined by the form in which they were
309 present in the atmosphere (i.e. associated with fuel particles or condensation particles).

310 We propose that ^{144}Ce deposition can be used as a marker of the deposition of fuel particles;
311 fuel particles were the main deposition form of nonvolatile radionuclides (i.e. Sr, Y, Nb, Ru,
312 La, Ce, Eu, Np, Pu, Am, Cm). Therefore, using ^{144}Ce activity concentrations determined in soil
313 samples and estimates of the activities in reactor fuel, we can make estimates of the deposition
314 of radionuclides such as Pu-isotopes and Cm that have been relatively less studied. For
315 example, activity ratios of ^{238}Pu , ^{239}Pu , ^{240}Pu and ^{241}Pu to ^{144}Ce , at the time of measurement
316 would be 8.4×10^{-4} , 6.2×10^{-4} , 9.7×10^{-4} and 1.1×10^{-1} respectively (estimated by decay correcting
317 data presented in Table 1). Fallout densities of these plutonium isotopes can therefore be



318 calculated for all sampling points where deposition density of ^{144}Ce was measured either in this
319 study (e.g. Figure 3) or in other datasets. As an example of the application of the data in this
320 manner, Fig. 8 presents the estimated deposition of ^{238}Pu . The first maps of ^{90}Sr and $^{239+240}\text{Pu}$
321 surface contamination from the Chernobyl accident were prepared in the frame of an
322 international project (IAEA, 1992) in a similar way.



323
324

325 Figure 8. The fallout density of ^{238}Pu (kBq m^{-2}) corrected to 6th May 1986; estimated from
326 measurements of ^{144}Ce in soil and estimated activity concentrations in the fuel of the ChNPP
327 reactor number four.

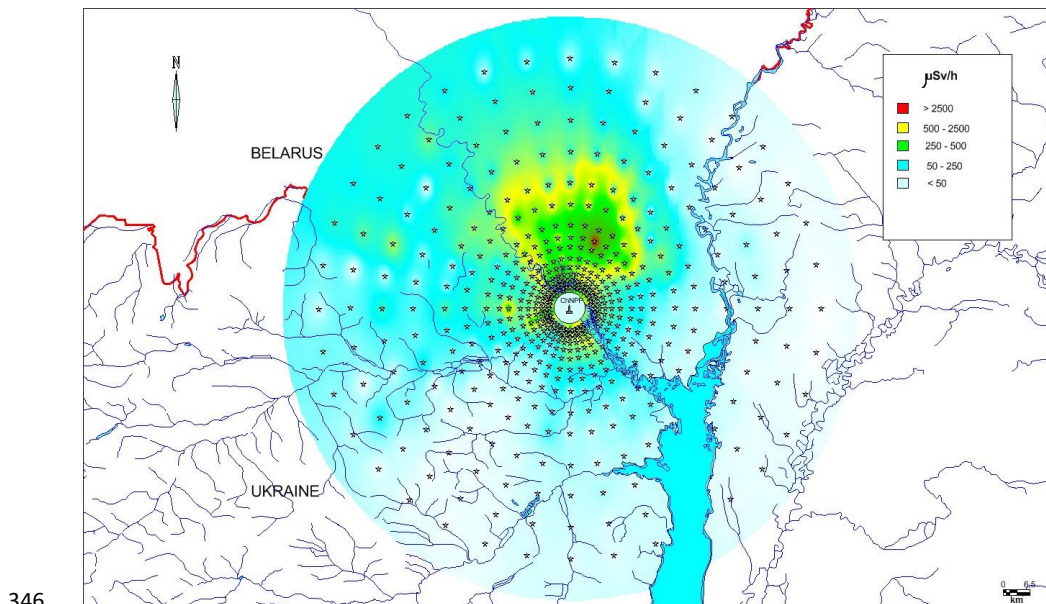
328 The dynamic spatial distribution of gamma dose rate can be reconstructed using the data on
329 radionuclide contamination densities (Kashparov et al, 2019) in combination with the ratios
330 between activities of radionuclides in fuel and in condensed components of Chernobyl fallout
331 (Table 1) and also dose coefficients for exposure to contaminated ground surfaces, ($\text{Sv s}^{-1}/\text{Bq}$
332 m^{-2}) (Eckerman & Ryman, 1993). Five days after deposition the following radionuclides were
333 major contributors (about 95 %) to gamma dose rate: ^{136}Cs , ^{140}La , ^{239}Np , ^{95}Nb , ^{95}Zr , ^{131}I , $^{148\text{m}}\text{Pm}$,
334 ^{103}Ru , ^{140}Ba , ^{132}Te . After three months the major external dose contributors were: ^{95}Nb ,
335 ^{95}Zr , $^{148\text{m}}\text{Pm}$, ^{134}Cs , ^{103}Ru , $^{137\text{m}}\text{Ba}$, $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$, ^{136}Cs , ^{106}Rh . Three years after the major contributors
336 were $^{137\text{m}}\text{Ba}$, ^{134}Cs , ^{106}Rh , $^{110\text{m}}\text{Ag}$, ^{154}Eu . At the present time the gamma dose can be estimated
337 to be mainly (99%) due to the gamma-emitting daughter radionuclide of ^{137}Cs ($^{137\text{m}}\text{Ba}$). Bondar
338 (2015) from a survey of the CEZ along the Ukrainian-Belarusian border, showed a good
339 relationship between ^{137}Cs contamination ($A_{\text{Cs-137}}$, in the range of 17-7790 kBq m^{-2}) and
340 ambient dose rates at 1m above the ground (D_{ext} , in the range of 0.1-6.0 $\mu\text{Sv h}^{-1}$). The
341 relationship was described by following equation with correlation coefficient of 0.99:

342

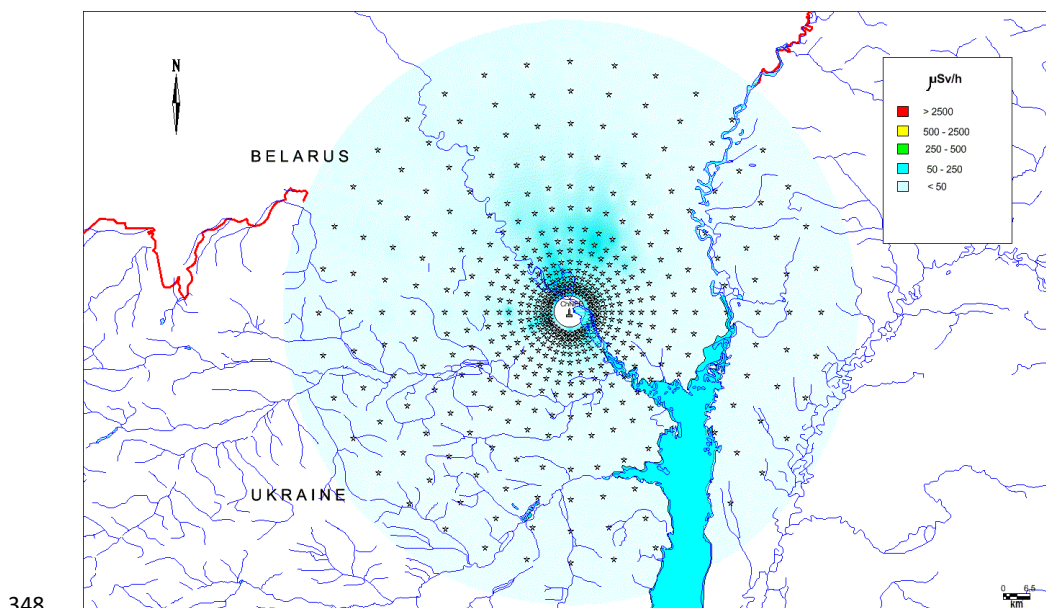
$$D_{\text{ext}} = 0.0009 \cdot A_{\text{Cs-137}} + 0.14.$$



343 As an example of the application of the data in this manner, Fig. 9 presents the estimated
344 external effective gamma dose rate five and 95 days after the cessation of the radioactive
345 releases from the reactor on 6th May 1986.



a



b



350 Figure 9. Spatial distribution of effective dose rate within the 60km zone around the ChNPP
351 on 10th May 1986 (a) and 10th August 1986 (b).

352 The estimated effective dose rate values exceed the evacuation dose criteria of 50 $\mu\text{Sv h}^{-1}$ over
353 a large area (especially in the north and west) of the 60 km area around the ChNPP on 10th May
354 1986 (Figure 9a); as discussed above a dose rate of 50 $\mu\text{Sv h}^{-1}$ on 10th May 1986 equated to a
355 total dose over the first year after the accident of 50 mSv - the value used to define areas for
356 evacuation. On the 10th August 1986 the area estimated to exceed 50 $\mu\text{Sv h}^{-1}$ was restricted to
357 the north (Figure 9b). The dose rate decreased quickly after the accident due to the radioactive
358 decay of short-lived radionuclides. The dominance of these short-lived radionuclides and a lack
359 of knowledge of the radionuclide composition of the fallout made it difficult in 1986 to estimate
360 external dose rates to the public for an evaluation date of 10th May 1986 (most dose rate
361 measurements being made after the 10th May). This likely resulted in the overestimation of
362 dose rates for some villages in 1986 leading to their evacuation when the external dose rate
363 would not have been in excess of the 50 mSv limit used by the authorities.

364 There is a need for deposition data for the CEZ and surrounding areas for a number of reasons.
365 These include exploring risks associated with future management options for the CEZ (e.g.
366 management of the water table, forest fire prevention, increased tourism, etc.) and also the
367 return of abandoned areas outside of the CEZ to productive use. The long-term effect of
368 radiation exposure on wildlife in the CEZ is an issue of much debate (e.g. see discussion in
369 Beresford et al., 2019). Improved data which can be used to map the contamination of a range
370 of radionuclides will be useful in improving dose assessments to wildlife (including
371 retrospective assessments of earlier exposure rates). The CEZ has been declared a
372 ‘Radioecological Observatory’ (Muikku et al., 2018) (where a Radioecology Observatory is
373 defined as a radioactively contaminated field site that provides a focus for joint, long-term,
374 radioecological research). The open provision of data as described in this paper fosters the spirit
375 of collaboration and openness required to make the observatory site concept successful and
376 joins a growing amount of data made available for the CEZ (Kashparov et al., 2017; Fuller et
377 al., 2018; Kendrick et al., 2018; Gaschak et al., 2018; Beresford et al., 2018; Lerebours and
378 Smith, 2019).

379 4 Data availability

380 The data described here have a digital object identifier (doi: 10.5285/a408ac9d-763e-4f4c-
381 ba72-73bc2d1f596d) and are freely available for registered users from the NERC
382 Environmental Information Data Centre (<http://eidc.ceh.ac.uk/>) under the terms of the Open
383 Government Licence (Kashparov et al., 2019).

384 Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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387 (<http://www.ceh.ac.uk/tree>; funded by NERC, the Environment Agency and Radioactive
388 Waste Management Ltd under the RATE programme) and associated iCLEAR
389 (<https://tree.ceh.ac.uk/content/iclear-0>; funded by NERC) projects.

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