



Data for Modern Soil Chronometry using Fallout Radionuclides

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Abstract

- 10 We describe environmental gamma spectrometry data for >700 soil samples collected from >35 high-resolution quantitative soil profiles spanning global sites. The data are collected for the purpose of modern soil chronometry based on fallout radionuclides (FRNs) ⁷Be and ²¹⁰Pb, using the Linked Radionuclide Accumulation model (LRC). Cumulative gamma counting time for samples in the database exceeds 6.5 years. This is a living database to be augmented as data become available and corrected with
- 15 improvements in data reduction or identification of errors. Versions and changes will be indexed. Special attention is paid to measurement uncertainties in the dataset, as well as how atmospheric or excess ²¹⁰Pb is defined in both geochemical and mathematical terms for use in the LRC model. Basic familiarity with gamma spectrometry and radionuclide decay chains is assumed. The data set can be accessed at https://doi.org.10.17632/cfxkpn6hj9.1 (Landis, 2025).

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Short Summary

Understanding rates of environmental change is critical to human and ecological health but is difficult when the processes are too slow or too small to observe directly. To overcome this limitation, we can use natural radioactive elements as virtual 'clocks' to measure change. Here we describe a large number of

25 natural radioactive elements as virtual 'clocks' to measure change. Here we describe a large number of measurements that have been used to develop soils as clocks or chronometers of change to atmospheric carbon and mercury (Hg) cycles.

30 1. Introduction

We describe high-precision measurements of environmental radionuclides collected for the purpose of developing modern soil chronometry. Numerous problems such as atmospheric pollutant deposition and carbon sequestration require knowledge of the rates of soil processes that influence metals and carbon through time, but an appropriate chronometry system spanning years to centuries of environmental

- change has not been available until recent efforts to validate fallout radionuclide (FRN) chronometry (Landis, 2023; Landis et al., 2016, 2025; Landis, Obrist, et al., 2024; Landis, Taylor, et al., 2024).
 Historically, the impediment to adoption of FRNs in soil systems has been the availability of sufficient instrumental resources to provide long counting times that are necessary for measurement of short-lived ⁷Be, in datasets large enough to develop appropriate age models (Kaste et al., 2011). Here, we report the
- 40 fallout radionuclides ⁷Be and ²¹⁰Pb, together with bomb pulse ²⁴¹Am and ¹³⁷Cs, and ancillary radiogenic isotopes including ²²⁶Ra, ²²⁸Th, ²²⁸Ra, and others, that are used to construct and verify the Linked Radionuclide Accumulation model (LRC). These radionuclides are all measured concurrently by gamma spectrometry in the Fallout Radionuclide Analytics facility (FRNA) at Dartmouth College. The data are accessible at https://doi.org.10.17632/cfxkpn6hj9.1; Landis, 2025).

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LRC is an empirical age model that dates soil organic and mineral matter based on a mass balance comparison between the soil accumulative ⁷Be:²¹⁰Pb ratio (R_{acc}) and the ⁷Be:²¹⁰Pb atmospheric flux ratio





 (R_D) (Landis et al., 2016). The data presented currently include more than 700 samples from over 35 highresolution quantitative soil pits collected using field methods adapted for this purpose, and more are being added each month (Fig. 1). The method is confirmed by accurately dating the bomb-pulse peak in

50 being added each month (Fig. 1). The method is confirmed by accurately dating the bomb-pulse peak in ²⁴¹Am (or ¹³⁷Cs where appropriate) which is known to have occurred in 1963-64 (Health and Safety Laboratory, 1977). The method is further corroborated by both novel ²²⁸Th:²²⁸Ra chronometry and ¹⁴C approaches and yields uncertainties on the order of 10% up to 100 years and 20% up to 200 years (Landis, 2023; Landis et al., 2025).

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The majority of sampled soils are what we refer to as 'reference', selected to minimize the potential for historical disturbance through development, land use, natural erosion or tree throw over the past minimum of 150 years. Additional sites may include experimental designs examining hillslope and alluvial or fluvial processes and should not be taken as representative of reference conditions, i.e. with

60 an expectation that the nuclear bomb-pulse can be accurately dated. Implementation of the LRC model is described elsewhere (Landis et al., 2016). Additional details and challenges of environmental gamma spectrometry (Cutshall et al., 1983; Landis et al., 2012; Murray et al., 1987, 2018) or theories of related FRN age models can also be found elsewhere (Arias-Ortiz et al., 2018; Barsanti et al., 2020; Sanchez-Cabeza & Ruiz-Fernández, 2012). Any brief discussion of these topics here is intended only to

65 contextualize the data and thereby provide an entry point for non-specialist readers. A basic understanding of gamma spectrometry and radionuclide decay chains is assumed.

Finally, data validation is discussed with respect to both analytical problems such as instrument calibration, as well as geochemical problems, namely the susceptibility of Rn to diffuse out of samples in

70 the laboratory. A priority of this manuscript is to demonstrate that routine environmental gamma spectrometry is capable percent-level precision that is expected from other capital analytical platforms such as inductively-coupled plasma optical or mass spectrometry used for elemental and isotopic analyses (ICPOES, ICPMS).



Figure 1. Site map for soils collected for modern soil chronometry (© Google Earth Pro, data SI, NOAA, U.S. Navy, NGA, GEBCO. Image IBCAO, Landsat, Copernicus. Altitude 5181 miles).





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2. Methods

2.1. Instrumentation

Data are collected with six Mirion (formerly Canberra) Broad Energy intrinsic germanium detectors (BEGe) with carbon fiber endcaps and ultra-low background cryostats which are cooled with liquid

- 85 nitrogen. The detectors are shielded with 4 inches of ultra-low background lead. Data acquisition is performed with Mirion DSA-1000 or Lynx digital signal processors running with Genie 2K software v.3. The specific BEGe detector design is important because it provides excellent efficiency at low gamma energies for ²¹⁰Pb acquisition without sacrificing efficiencies at high energies. Carbon fiber provides good transmission of the low energy ²¹⁰Pb emission which is otherwise attenuated by an aluminum endcap.
- 90 Samples are typically run using four-day count times. Of two detector models, BEGe 3830 (38 cm² detector active area, 30 mm thickness) and larger BEGe 5030 (50 cm²), the latter saves one day of counting and accomplishes in three days what the 3830 accomplish in four.

2.2. Sample preparation and geometry

- 95 Foliage, litter, and soil samples are oven dried at 60 °C. Bulk soils are sieved or hand-picked to remove clasts and debris >2mm in diameter. Fine roots >1 mm diameter or >2 cm in length are removed by hand. Foliage and leaf litter (Oi and Oe horizon) are typically milled to <1 mm using a Wiley mill with stainless steel blades. Soil samples are loosely disaggregated as necessary by agate mortar and pestel and packed into 110 cm³ polyethylene petri dishes with snap closures. The petris are sealed with
- 100 common electrical tape and rested for >2 weeks to allow for ²²²Rn ingrowth, although we will show that this approach does not quantitatively retain Rn (see also (Murray et al., 1987, 2018)). Our handling of the problem of Rn emanation from both laboratory samples and soils *in situ* is discussed below.

2.3. Calibration and Sample Self-Absorption

- 105 Gamma detector calibration is based on geometric efficiency, which is the proportion of photons emitted by the sample that are recorded by the detector, absent sample self-absorption of photons which is dependent on its specific elemental composition. Net efficiency includes self-absorption of photons by the sample. We measure net efficiency directly by using a series of soils/sediment doped 1% by weight with either uranium ore BL5 or thorium ore OKA2 which are available from Natural Resources Canada
- 110 Certified Reference Material Project. Geometric efficiency for the standards is then calculated as the quotient of net efficiency and the standard self-absorption coefficient at each photopeak energy in the (described below). The efficiencies are representative of the detector-sample geometric relationship and applicable to all sample unknown measurements. Efficiencies for photopeaks not represented in the standards are estimated by regression from adjacent photopeaks in the U or Th standards (e.g., ⁷Be,
- ²⁴¹Am, or ¹³⁷Cs; these are not known to have coincidence summing effects). Reported uncertainties on the standard activities is 0.2% for U and 1.0% for Th, and secular equilibrium is assumed for both.

Net efficiency for individual samples is calculated as the product of geometric efficiency determined from standards and the sample self-absorption at each energy of interest (Landis et al., 2012). To do this,

120 self-absorption for each sample is measured using a planar uranium ore source (same diameter as sample) placed directly on top of the sample. The is performed as a second data acquisition following the sample 'long count' which does not use point source. Self-absorption at all energies is calculated using the method of (Cutshall et al., 1983), or in the case of non-uranium series radionuclides, is estimated by linear regression from the U-series photopeaks.

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Calibration uncertainty estimated from geometric efficiencies of 6 standards of bulk density ranging from 0.5 g cm⁻³ to 200 g cm⁻³ is less than 2% relative standard deviation for each of our detectors. Uncertainty



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of sample self-absorption derived from peak integration (below) contributes <1%. Thus, our net efficiency calibration uncertainties for most radionuclides are <2% at the one-sigma level.

2.4. Peak integration

A semi-automated peak integration routine is implemented in Excel as described by (Landis et al., 2012). For each detector, peak shape parameters are measured across energies either within the collected sample spectrum using peaks >10,000 counts or using prior collection of a high-activity point source

135 spectrum. A peak shape model is then used to estimate the partial area of sample peaks that are integrated digitally by summation. Partial peak integration reduces measurement uncertainty by avoiding peak tails which contribute disproportionately to integration error.

2.5. Spectral Background Correction

140 All radionuclide peaks are corrected for background contributions which are measured with composite background spectra totaling hundreds of days of count time. Background for each peak may variously include ambient Rn in the laboratory, artifacts of the gamma spectrum, impurities in the detector housing and shielding, and ambient construction materials in the laboratory facility.

145 <u>2.6. Data Quality and Verification</u>

Environmental gamma spectrometry is capable of producing percent-level precision on par with other capital analytical platforms such as ICP-MS. Precision in gamma spectrometry estimates of radionuclide activity is easily documented because many radionuclides emit photons at multiple energies. These typically have variable coincidence summing effects that require correction at each energy, as well as

150 sample self-absorption factors that also require correction at each energy. Concordance among estimates from multiple photopeaks spanning the energy spectrum thus provides a robust estimate of precision in the gamma measurements.



155 Figure 2. Correlations of multiple photopeaks for (a) ²²²Rn, (b) ²²⁸Th, (c) ²²⁸Ra. Lines show linear best fits.

For quality control measures we recommend reporting multi-line means and uncertainties for three radionuclides: ²²²Rn measured at ²¹⁴Pb (295, 352 keV) and ²¹⁴Bi (609 keV); ²²⁸Ra measured with up to four emission lines from ²²⁸Ac (209 keV, 338 keV, 463 keV, 911 keV); and ²²⁸Th measured by ²¹²Pb (238 keV), ²⁰⁸Tl (538 keV), and possibly ²²⁴Ra (241 keV) (Fig. 2).

The coefficient of variance (CV) or relative standard deviation (RSD) for multiple emission peaks for each of ²²²Rn, ²²⁸Th, and ²²⁸Ra provides an assessment of measurement accuracy and precision in the gamma spectrum (Fig. 3). These are typically in the 1-5% range for typical crustal activity concentrations of 20 Bq

165 kg⁻¹. ²²²Rn is importance since it is often used as an indirect measure of ²²⁶Ra with integration uncertainties 5-10 times lower (Fig. 3a), but with the important caveat that the actual values of the two measures differ substantially due to geochemical disequilibrium caused by Rn leakage (*Sect. 3.5*).







170 Figure 3. Average and variance-weighted average activities for radionuclides measured at multiple energies in the gamma spectrum, including (a) ²²²Rn, with comparison to direct measure of ²²⁶Ra; (b) ²²⁸Th; (c) ²²⁸Ra. ²²⁶Ra measurement is possible at a single emission line which is compromised by low photon yield and photopeak convolution with ²³⁵U, resulting in uncertainties 5-10 times higher than possible with e.g. ²²²Rn daughter radionuclides.

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2.6. Peak interference deconvolution

Multiple important radionuclides in the gamma spectrum suffer significant peak-peak overlap that requires deconvolution. Most notably are ⁷Be which has interference from both ²²⁸Ac (478 keV) and ²¹⁴Pb (280 keV) (Landis et al., 2012), and ²²⁶Ra which has interference from ²³⁵U at 185 keV and which

180 approximately doubles its analytical uncertainty (Zhang et al., 2009). Our ⁷Be deconvolution regime is verified elsewhere using repeat measures of a single natural sample since the known half-life of ⁷Be can be exploited to predict its change in concentration over monthly timescales (Landis et al., 2012). The ²²⁶Ra deconvolution regime can be tested against certified reference materials; however, the reported uncertainties for ²²⁶Ra in available standards typically exceeds 10% and are therefore of limited use in verifying robust measure of this radionuclide (more below in *Sect. 8*).



Figure 4. (a) Measurement of ²²⁴Ra is possible in the gamma spectrum but requires deconvolution of its 241 keV emission from ²¹⁴Pb at 242 keV. (b) Accuracy of the deconvolution procedure can be tested against ²¹²Pb (via ²²⁰Rn) measured at 238 keV.

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Deconvolution can also be tested using the measure of ²²⁴Ra (half-life 3.6 days, 241 keV) as a proxy for its parent radionuclide ²²⁸Th because of its photopeak overlap with ²¹⁴Pb at 242 keV. The peak deconvolution procedure is evaluated with the expectation that radioactive equilibrium is maintained, i.e., with a slope of 1 in correlation between the parent and daughter (Fig. 4). Here the slope =0.985

195 ± 0.006 which shows a systematic error of just 1.5 $\pm 0.6\%$.



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3. Radionuclide measurements

<u>3.1. ⁷Be and problem of detection</u>. The defining limitation in LRC development is the problem of ⁷Be detection. The combination of low natural abundance, low photon yield (10.5%), and short half-life (54 days) requires extraordinary efforts in both the logistics of sample collection and availability of instrument time to make these measurements possible. Samples should be measured within 1 month of collection and must be counted for 4 days or more per sample to define the ⁷Be soil depth profile (Fig. 5). Following these protocols ⁷Be may be detected to depths of 10 or more centimeters in humid or moist climates, which has important implications both for how soils are perceived to function and how age

205 models are applied to soils (Landis et al., 2016).



Figure 5. Elapsed measurement of the ⁷Be gamma photoregion over 1, 2, 3, and 4-day count times. The measured sample is soil from 5 cm depth, and ⁷Be activity is quantified as 1.8 ±1.0 Bq kg⁻¹ after 4 days. The modeled ⁷Be peak is shown in black, U-series peaks in blue, and Th-series peaks in red. MDL is shown with dashed line.

<u>3.2. ²⁴¹Am and problem of detection</u>. Demonstrating accuracy of LRC requires concordance with independent chronometers, and bomb-pulse ²⁴¹Am is the prime candidate due to its long half-life,

- 215 limited solubility or bioavailability (in contrast to ¹³⁷Cs), and potential for its concurrent measurement in the gamma spectrum. The bomb-pulse has a well-known history of activity in the atmosphere (Appleby et al., 1991; Health and Safety Laboratory, 1977). Abundance of ²⁴¹Am is low, however, rarely exceeding 1 Bq kg⁻¹ in temperate soils, and is altogether undetectable in equatorial soils where fallout deposition was 10-times lower than mid-latitudes (Chaboche et al., 2021). Alternate measurement of Pu isotopes by
- 220 ICPMS or AMS is becoming routine and may offer an alternative where ²⁴¹Am cannot be measured (e.g. (Alewell et al., 2017)).

<u>3.3. ¹³⁷Cs and problem of geochemical mobility</u>. In contrast to ²⁴¹Am, ¹³⁷Cs is easily measured in the gamma spectrum. However, it can be subject to biological cycling as a K analog (Kaste et al., 2021). As a result, the shape of Am and Cs profiles can diverge remarkably (Fig. 6). ²⁴¹Am is always the preferred measure of bomb pulse. Still, where ²⁴¹Am and ¹³⁷Cs profiles appear consistent, ¹³⁷Cs may provide insight into shape of the ²⁴¹Am profile when latter is detection limited.





<u>3.4. Total</u>²¹⁰Pb. Total ²¹⁰Pb is the sum of both atmospheric (excess) and geogenic (supported) sources
 and is easily measured in gamma spectrum with BEGe detectors. The strongest source of error is the self-absorption correction since this can vary by a factor of 2-3 through the soil profile. However, the low photon yield (4%) can make measurement of supported ²¹⁰Pb challenging in soils with typical uranium abundance. The four-day count time is thus important for providing adequate precision for defining ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} at the tail of its depth distribution (where ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} is calculated as ²¹⁰Pb_{total} minus ²²²Rn; see below).



Figure 6. Depth profiles of ²⁴¹Am and ¹³⁷Cs in diverse soils. In all cases the cumulative ²⁴¹Am date is consistent with bomb-pulse peak of 1963-64. Assigned calendar years are as follows: BrT05 =1970.1, DoF01 =1965.3, HuB01 =1964.4, CaPr01 =1964.2, HoF01 =1958.1. In some cases, ¹³⁷Cs follows ²⁴¹Am closely, in others (especially spodosol) their divergence is pronounced and ¹³⁷Cs follows a "leaky cycle" whereby some portion may be strongly retained near the soil surface while any escaping this surface peak is rapidly flushed through the soil profile below.

245 <u>3.5. ²²⁶Ra and problem of radon emanation</u>. The measure of ²²⁶Ra is important, in principle, for defining the activity of ²¹⁰Pb that is supported in a soil by secular equilibrium with U-bearing mineral content (discussed in detail in *Sect. 4*). Secular equilibrium requires that radionuclides in a decay chain have equal activities, and we should observe this in the chain ²²⁶Ra > ²²²Rn >> ²¹⁴Bi > ²¹⁴Pb >> ²¹⁰Pb provided that gaseous Rn can be retained within the sample. Instead, however, we observe that ²¹⁴Pb and ²¹⁴Bi underestimate ²²⁶Ra even in samples that are sealed and rested for the required ingrowth period for Rn

250 to achieve equilibrium (5 half-lives or about 20 days) (Fig. 7). Disequilibrium between ²²²Rn and ²²⁶Ra is difficult to assess in a single sample, however, because of high uncertainties on the ²²⁶Ra measure due in part to significant overlap from the primary ²³⁵U emission at 185.7 keV (Zhang et al., 2009).

In this dataset we quantify disequilibrium between ²²²Rn and ²²⁶Ra as *f*Rn, or fraction Rn, which is simply the ratio of the two measures. (We acknowledge that the problem is somewhat more complicated because the effective volume of Rn in the detector shield will be greater than volume of the sample itself due to its diffusion from the sample container into surrounding air). Among all soil pits the mean measured *f*Rn =79 ±1% (±RSE, *n*=30) (Fig. 7). Importantly, the variance of *f*Rn within a single pit is much smaller than among pits [p<0.0001], which means that *f*Rn is a property of the geochemistry of

260 individual soils (with respect to hosting of Ra in primary vs. secondary minerals, grain size, susceptibility to weathering, geological age, etc.).

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3.6. Experimental confirmation of ²²⁶Ra accuracy and ²²²Rn losses.

270 Affirming the accuracy of ²²⁶Ra measurements is foundational to interpreting ²¹⁰Pb in the soil profile. Here we confirm the accuracy of direct ²²⁶Ra measurements (186 keV) against certified reference materials (CRMs) (Fig. 8), where performance is excellent with standard 4-day count times (Fig. 8a). We note that analytical uncertainties thus achieved are typically far better than those of the certification process itself. This reflects the difficulties in direct measure of ²²⁶Ra requiring corrections for self-



absorption and deconvolution (Tasker et al., 2019).

Figure 8. (a) Certified reference materials for ²²⁶Ra determination, IAEA-385 (Irish sea sediment), IAEA-447 (mosssoil), CCRMP CLV-1 (spruce needle), NIST-4353a (Rocky Flats soil). Eckert and Ziegler single isotope solution (EZ
 ²²⁶Ra) is used as an in-house calibration material. Error bars are 1σ standard deviations for analysis at FRNA, larger error bars show certification uncertainties. (b-e) Distributions of results for IAEA-385 certification measurements (red) and FRNA analysis (green) for individual emission lines of ²²⁶Ra and the ²²²Rn daughters ²¹⁴Pb and ²¹⁴Bi.

285 The IAEA-385 material is the most rigorously-calibrated soil standard available to date and critical to our ability to validate high-quality gamma spectrometry (International Atomic Energy Agency, 2013; Pham et al., 2008). Even so, the original recommended ²²⁶Ra activity of 22.7 ±0.7 Bq kg⁻¹ (Pham et al., 2005) is 3.6% higher than the eventual certification value of 21.9 Bq kg⁻¹. The lower value derives from the





averaging of direct ²²⁶Ra measurements with lower estimates from ²¹⁴Pb (352 keV) and ²¹⁴Bi (609 keV) 290 (Fig. 8b-e). The latter should be viewed as suspect since both Rn emanation and coincidence summing losses can bias the ²²²Rn daughters too low. FRNA measurements appear to show a systemic ²²²Rn loss of 3.4% as the difference between 226 Ra activities (22.7 ±0.3) and 222 Rn (21.98 ±0.07) [p=0.0186].

For sample analysis we sought to confirm the accuracy of our ²²⁶Ra measures and therefore that Rn 295 disequilibrium is due to Rn loss and not an analytical artifact (Syam et al., 2020). We performed an experiment with NIST-traceable ²²⁶Ra standard solution (Eckert and Ziegler; certified uncertainty <2%). which is important to verify that ²²⁶Ra is measured accurately and with high enough activity to measure it with percent-level precision (here approximately 360 Bq kg⁻¹). A second calibrated ²²⁸Ra solution was prepared by dissolution of thorium ore OKA-2. Accuracy of both Ra source calibrations was previously

300 confirmed by isotope-dilution thermal ionization mass spectrometry (Landis et al., 2018). Briefly, both the ²²⁶Ra and ²²⁸Ra standard solutions were co-precipitated in a wet synthesis of MnO₂ from KMnO₄ and MnCl₂ at pH ~9. To replicate a typical soil sample in 110 cm³ petri geometry, the synthesized Ra-MnO₂ was air dried onto a bed of quartz sand. The Ra-Mn-sand thus produced was packed into our standard polypropylene petri as for a soil sample.

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The petri was first closed with electrical tape and measured serially to observe Rn ingrowth under our typical sample preparation. Yields of both ²²⁶Ra and ²²⁸Ra are within error of 100% of certified or expected values which confirms robust preparation of the test material (Fig. 9). Short-lived ²²⁰Rn (aka thoron, half-life =56 seconds) is fully retained by the sample, but grows in following the half-life of intermediary 224 Ra (3.6 days) which is expelled from the initial suspension of MnO₂ by alpha recoil.



Figure 9. Experimental confirmation of ²²²Rn emanation from 110 cm³ soil laboratory samples, (a) ²²²Rn and ²²⁶Ra 315 source, (b) ²²⁰Rn and ²²⁸Ra source. Closed symbols show yield of ²²⁶Ra or ²²⁸Ra from the experiment, open symbols show corresponding Rn yield or equilibrium as the Rn/Ra activity ratio.

For ²²²Rn we observed an equilibrium fRn of just 55% after approximately thirty days. The sample was then resealed using hot glue, but this reduced Rn retention, presumably, due to porosity in the glue that visibly forms upon cooling. Finally, the sample was encased in 2 mm of paraffin wax. This final step increased fRn to 85%, but the impracticality of the method coupled with imperfect Rn retention is a fatal

320 strike against its routine use in our laboratory.





Our subsequent efforts to seal samples under vacuum in aluminized Mylar bags improves Rn retention 325 up to 90-95% for our 110 cm³ petri (Mauring & Gäfvert, 2013), but we have not standardized this approach due to remaining uncertainty in precise quantification of retention, the creation of additional laboratory waste and, in the face of these problems, the uncertain value of improving the indirect measure of ²²⁶Ra to defining ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} (see below).

330 4. Defining excess Pb-210 (²¹⁰Pb_{ex}).

FRN age models are based on the atmospheric component of ²¹⁰Pb, which in soils and sediment must be separated mathematically from ²¹⁰Pb that is supported by *in situ* production from U-series decay in soil minerals. By convention atmospheric ²¹⁰Pb is measured as the excess over that supported (²¹⁰Pb_s) by its long-lived radioactive precursor ²²⁶Ra, i.e., ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} = ²¹⁰Pb minus ²²⁶Ra. Due to analytical constraints

335 described above, ²²⁶Ra is routinely measured indirectly using ²²²Rn with the assumption that equilibrium is maintained between the two. We have already shown this is not accomplished in typical sample preparation.

Further, however, is the problem of Rn emanation from soils in situ: the very process that produces 340 excess ²¹⁰Pb in the atmosphere yields a ²¹⁰Pb deficit in soil. This means that supported ²¹⁰Pb in soils is likely to be overestimated if measured by ²²⁶Ra. This leaves two open questions, (1) what is the correct metric for supported ²¹⁰Pb in situ, and (2) how do we measure this in routine data collection in the laboratory? To clarify these problems, we introduce the term Pb enrichment, ε Pb, which is the ratio of ²¹⁰Pb to ²²²Rn in deep soil samples believed free of atmospheric ²¹⁰Pb. Importantly, for all soil pits we

have measured ϵ Pb =102 ±3% (±RSE, n=30) which means that supported ²¹⁰Pb is typically in equilibrium 345 with measured ²²²Rn. This is best illustrated in the soil depth profile where total ²¹⁰Pb converges asymptotically with ²²²Rn, whereas both are overestimated by ²²⁶Ra (Fig. 10). Interestingly, this implies that Rn loss from the measured sample is comparable to loss in the soil in situ, and, as observed above, that Rn emanation from standard laboratory samples relates to a physical property of the soil itself.





Figure 10. Defining excess ²¹⁰Pb in soils. (a) Hubbard Brook Experimental Forest (HuB01), (b) Experimental Lakes Area soil 302-1, (c) Harvard Forest LTER (HaF01). Total ²¹⁰Pb typically converges with ²²²Rn at depth which indicates that ²²²Rn is an appropriate estimate of supported ²¹⁰Pb.

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We therefore conclude the following regarding the definition of ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} in soils,





(1)

- ²²⁶Ra is not an appropriate direct measure of supported ²¹⁰Pb due to chronic emanation ²²²Rn from the soils *in situ*, which results in large ²¹⁰Pb deficiencies in deep soils which are isolated from deposition of atmospheric ²¹⁰Pb_{ex}.
- 2. *in situ*²²²Rn emanation in the soil profile can be assessed directly by gamma measurements, as an asymptotic difference between ²²⁶Ra and ²¹⁰Pb in deep soils.
- 3. measure of ²²²Rn by daughters ²¹⁴Pb and ²¹⁴Bi provides excellent precision and reproducibility among multiple emission lines, 5-10 times better than possible with direct measure of ²²⁶Ra.
- 4. Rn emanation from the laboratory sample is both pronounced and yet systematic despite sealing of containers and incubating >18 days following standard practice.
- nonetheless, ²²²Rn measured in the sample typically converges with ²¹⁰Pb, or is asymptotic with ²¹⁰Pb, suggesting that ²²²Rn measure in the laboratory sample is the best available option for defining ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} in soil.
- For defining ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} we use the following expression, noting that this accommodates cases where ε Pb is not equal to 1, by assuming a constant emanation rate throughout the soil profile (Landis et al., 2016):

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Pb_{ex} = 210 Pb_T - 222 Rn(ε Pb)

Propagated uncertainties in ²¹⁰Pb_{ex} when calculated by Eq. 1 are shown in Fig. 11.





5. Demonstrating LRC concordance with bomb pulse ²⁴¹Am

- 380 Demonstrating concordance of LRC ages with independent chronometers is important for verifying both the suitability of soils for chronometry and veracity of data production (Landis, Obrist, et al., 2024). We report ²⁴¹Am activities for this purpose, but it should be noted that peak bomb-pulse deposition is indicated at the layer of maximum ²⁴¹Am density (Bq m⁻² cm⁻¹) rather than activity concentration since the latter is skewed by changes in bulk density especially at the soil surface. ²⁴¹Am density is readily
- 385 calculated from the data provided. In some cases, the shape of ²⁴¹Am bomb-pulse peak can be grossly distorted due to acceleration and deceleration of colloid migration in the soil profile (Landis, Taylor, et al., 2024), and in these cases the cumulative ²⁴¹Am curve becomes an alternate tool for identifying peak bomb fallout since the history of ²⁴¹Am in the atmosphere is well known (Appleby et al., 1991; Health and Safety Laboratory, 1977).

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6. Assessing uncertainties on radionuclide measurements.

Our reported uncertainties for radionuclide activities are internal estimates which are propagated from uncertainties on peak integration, which includes background subtraction and deconvolution.

395 Uncertainties due to efficiency calibration and self-absorption correction are not included because, in part, we have not established the degree to which these may be autocorrelated among photo energies. However, external precision can be estimated conservatively by propagating an additional 2% uncertainty as described in *Sect. 2.3*.

400 <u>6.1. Z-scores to assess uncertainty estimates</u>

The accuracy of reported integration uncertainties can be assessed using multiple emission lines for a single radionuclide, since each must conform to the same true mean activity value. We show this by means of *Z*-score, which is the difference between emission line activities, normalized by the propagated uncertainty for the difference. The standard deviation of *Z* should be equal to 1 if the estimated

405 integration uncertainties accurately represent the true distribution of random error in the measurements (Fig. 12). We observe standard deviations of 0.8, 1.2, and 1.4 for ²²²Rn, ²²⁸Th, and ²²⁸Ra, respectively. These are close to 1 which implies that the integration uncertainties are robust. In the case of ²²⁸Th and ²²⁸Ra the real uncertainties are somewhat underestimated which means that uncertainties in calibration contribute an additional error, and one that is similar in scale to uncertainties in the case of ²¹⁰Content of the provided error.

410 integration, i.e., if similar errors are propagated the result is a 40% higher than either, $\sqrt{(1^2+1^2)=1.4}$.



Figure 12. Distribution of Z-scores for multiple emission lines of (a) ²²²Rn (295, 352 keV); (b) ²²⁸Th (238, 583 kev); (c) ²²⁸Ra (338, 911 keV). Z expresses the difference between two measures in units of σ and is calculated as the difference between two photopeak measures of activity, divided by propagated uncertainty of the two measures.

On the other hand, our prior assessment suggests that integration uncertainties are overestimated by on the order of 30%, based on the unique experiment of measuring radioactive decay of ⁷Be since the true

- 420 value of the sample is known based on its rate of decay, and estimated uncertainties can be evaluated against the observed dispersion of measurements around this known value (Landis et al., 2012). Overestimation of integration errors is consistent with our observed Z <1 for the ²²²Rn lines comparison above. That uncertainties for ²²⁸Th and ²²⁸Ra are greater than for ²²²Rn suggests that the interaction of coincidence-summing and self-absorption effects yields higher error in calibration, since these are not
- 425 handled independently in our calibration routine, i.e., by using a Th point source instead of U for Th-





series photopeaks. Future work is required to determine whether one ²²⁸Ra measurement may be preferred over others (e.g., among the ²²⁸Ac photopeaks at 209, 338, and 911 keV).

7. Spectrum accuracy evaluated using ²²⁸Th:²²⁸Ra

- 430 The ²²⁸Th:²²⁸Ra ratio is an important metric for evaluating accuracy of gamma measurements since it can generally be assumed to have an equilibrium value of 1. To ensure this is true we omit samples with LRC ages <20 years or ²²⁸Ra <10 Bq kg⁻¹ since these may have true ²²⁸Th:²²⁸Ra disequilibrium due to variable uptake of Th and Ra during plant growth (Landis, 2023). The mean ²²⁸Th:²²⁸Ra ratio for the data set is 1.015 ±0.038 SD, ±0.002 SE (*n*=390), showing a minor bias of 1.5%. Importantly, the standard deviation for Z (for the difference between ²²⁸Th:²²⁸Ra and 1) = 1.20, which shows that the estimates of
- 435 for Z (for the difference between ²²⁸Th:²²⁸Ra uncertainties are reasonable (Fig. 13).



Figure 13. Assessing analytical accuracy using the measured ²²⁸Th:²²⁸Ra ratio in soils. (a) measured ²²⁸Th:²²⁸Ra ratio for all soils, (b) *Z*-score for difference between measured ratio and 1.

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8. Certified Reference Materials

Availability of a few high-quality certified reference materials provides a means for external validation of environmental gamma data. We recommend IAEA-385 (sediment), IAEA-447 (moss soil), and NRC CLV-1 (spruce twig), since these have rigorous quality control and uncertainties low enough (typically <5%) to allow verification of high-precision methods. Performance of our methods against these standards for

radionuclides in addition to ²²⁶Ra is reported elsewhere with errors against certified values <5% (Landis et al., 2012, 2016).

9. Detection limits

- 450 Detection limit applies to total radioactivity in the detector shield [Bq] which is the product of mass and concentration, which means that it is dependent on sample bulk density since the sample volume is fixed. Detection is also inversely dependent on sample count time following Poisson counting statistics. Detection is also influenced by composition of the sample with respect to other elements and radionuclides because these influence photopeaks backgrounds through Compton scattering. Because
- 455 detection limits vary based on sample mass, composition, and count time they are not easily compiled and compared. We instead defer to reported uncertainties so that the value or weight of each datum can be independently assessed by users on this basis. Given this caveat, estimated detection limits for fourday count times, 100-gram samples, and approximately crustal-average U and Th content are approximately as follows: ⁷Be (0.5 Bq kg⁻¹); ²¹⁰Pb (1.5 Bq kg⁻¹); ¹³⁷Cs (0.3 Bq kg⁻¹); ²⁴¹Am (0.15 Bq kg⁻¹);
- 460 ¹⁸⁶Ra (2.5 Bq kg⁻¹); ²²²Rn (0.2 Bq kg⁻¹); ²²⁸Th (0.2 Bq kg⁻¹); ²²⁸Ra (1.0 Bq kg⁻¹);



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10. Data versions, omissions, and error codes in the database

465 Multiple data reduction generations are represented in the database, with notable differences being the 465 introduction of new photopeaks such as 209, 338, and 583 keV in later versions. Data fields are empty in preceding analyses.

In some rare cases, samples that are unable fill a 110 cm³ petri are run instead in 10 cm³ petris, with the lower volume incurring a corresponding loss in data quality due to low total activity and resulting counting statistics. Because data quality for the smaller 10 cm³ petri is poor and export fields are not

470 counting statistics. Because data quality for the smaller 10 cm³ petri is poor and export fields are not aligned with data reduction for the standard 110 cm³ petri, these data are not reported in the database.

The error #NUM! is a peak integration error typically resulting from error in uncertainty estimation for integration of small peaks that are near detection. This can propagate through deconvolution regimes, i.e. error in uncertainty of ²²⁸Ac integration will produce error in uncertainty for ⁷Be.

11. Reported data fields

The reported data are tabular in form. Row one is data identifier 1. Row two is data 2, and row three is units or identifier 3. Subsequent rows list sample data per sample. Reported data include the following:

- 1. pit code: unique identifier for the soil pit.
 - 2. sample name: unique identifier for the soil pit depth interval.
- 3. sample description: including horizon and/or depth interval.
- 4. horizon code: soil taxonomic horizon description.
- 5. interval mass [kg m⁻²]: total mass of fine soil fraction (<2 mm) for the collected depth interval.
- 6. soil depth [cm]: starts at soil surface =0 rather than at mineral soil surface.
 - 7. **R**_{acc}; accumulative ⁷Be:²¹⁰Pb ratio for overlying soil layers used in implementation of LRC model.
 - 8. propagated uncertainty (1-*sigma*) for *R*_{acc}.
 - 9. relative standard deviation (**RSD**) of R_{acc}.
- 10. count time [seconds] for collected gamma spectrum.
- 490 11. activity concentrations [Bq kg⁻¹] for the following radionuclides, with their propagated internal uncertainties: ²¹⁰Pb (46 keV), ⁷Be (477 keV), ²⁴¹Am (60 keV), ¹³⁷Cs (662 keV), ²³⁴Th (63 keV), ²²⁶Ra (186 keV), ²²²Rn (295, 352, 609 keV), ²²⁸Th (238, 538 keV), ²²⁸Ra (338, 911 keV), ⁴⁰K (1460 keV).

12. Data availability statement

495 The data described in this manuscript are freely available to the public (https://doi.org.10.17632/cfxkpn6hj9.1; Landis, 2025).

13. Conclusions

The central limitation to advancing chronometry of modern terrestrial biogeochemistry, including

500 atmosphere-soil interaction and soil processes, is availability of required radionuclide data. We hope that by providing a large, open-access dataset we can help catalyze interest among new research groups and funding agencies in making new investments towards similar data acquisition efforts.

14. Competing Interests

505 The authors declare that no competing interests influence this work.





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