# 1 Ecosystem model-based approach for modelling the

- 2 dynamics of <sup>137</sup>Cs transfer to marine plankton populations:
- **3** Application to the western North Pacific Ocean after the
- 4 Fukushima nuclear power plant accident
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## 13 Abstract

Huge amounts of radionuclides, especially <sup>137</sup>Cs, were released into the western North Pacific 14 15 Ocean after the Fukushima nuclear power plant (FNPP) accident that occurred on 11 March 16 2011, resulting in contamination of the marine biota. In this study we developed a radioecological model to estimate <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations in phytoplankton and zooplankton 17 populations representing the lower levels of the pelagic trophic chain. We coupled this model 18 19 to a lower trophic level ecosystem model and an ocean circulation model to take into account 20 the site-specific environmental conditions in the area. The different radioecological 21 parameters of the model were estimated by calibration, and a sensitivity analysis to parameter 22 uncertainties was carried out, showing a high sensitivity of the model results, especially to the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in seawater, to the rates of accumulation from water and to the 23 radionuclide assimilation efficiency for zooplankton. The results of the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations 24 25 in planktonic populations simulated in this study were then validated through comparison 26 with the some data available in the region after the accident. The model results have shown that the maximum concentrations in plankton after the accident were about two to four orders 27 28 of magnitude higher than those observed before the accident depending on the distance from FNPP. Finally, the maximum <sup>137</sup>Cs absorbed dose rate for phyto- and zooplankton 29 populations was estimated to be about  $5 \times 10^{-2} \,\mu \text{Gy h}^{-1}$ , and was, therefore, lower than the 30 predicted no effect dose rate (PNEDR) value of 10 µGy h<sup>-1</sup> defined in the ERICA assessment 31 approach. 32

#### 1 **1 Introduction**

Huge amounts of radionuclides, especially <sup>137</sup>Cs, were released into the western North Pacific
Ocean after the Fukushima nuclear power plant (FNPP) accident that occurred on 11 March
2011 (UNCEAR, 2014).

Plankton populations, which play a prominent role in the input of many pollutants into the 5 6 aquatic food chain and are potentially important in the biogeochemical cycling of various 7 radionuclides in the ocean (Fowler and Fisher, 2004), were contaminated by these releases. Data on <sup>137</sup>Cs in phytoplankton are rare especially due to difficulties in sampling. 8 However, recently Baumann et al (2015) reported <sup>137</sup>Cs data on suspended matter rich 9 in marine phytoplankton sampled in June 2011 off the Japanese coast (Buesseler et al., 10 2012) and suggested that phytoplankton could have been a substantial source of <sup>137</sup>Cs 11 12 for zooplankton after the Fukushima accident.

13 Within a few months following the accident, zooplankton collected at some locations of the western North Pacific showed enhanced levels of <sup>137</sup>Cs, even for the samples collected at the 14 15 farthest locations from FNPP, such as the S1 (47°N 160°E, 1,900 km from FNPP) and K1 (30°N 145°E, 900 km from FNPP) stations where the <sup>137</sup>Cs in zooplankton observed one 16 17 month after the accident were two orders of magnitude higher than before 11 March. Three months after the accident, Buesseler et al. (2012) reported that the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations in 18 zooplankton located at 300-600 km from FNPP were two to three orders of magnitude higher 19 than before the accident. Even 10 months after the accident, the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations observed 20 21 in zooplankton, at 600-2,100 km away from FNPP, were still about one to two orders of 22 magnitude higher than in the pre-accident period (Kitamura et al., 2013).

Although these field data provide a general overview of the plankton contamination levels after the FNPP accident, the lack of information on the contamination's temporal and spatial evolution and the need for understanding the fate of radionuclides in the marine ecosystem, necessary for the assessment of environmental and human health consequences, require the adaptation of a modelling method.

The simple linear method based on the bioconcentration factor, defined as the ratio of the amount of radionuclide in the organism divided by the concentration in the water, is the most commonly used to assess the radionuclide concentration in marine biota (IAEA, 2004). Despite its simplicity, this method is not appropriate in an accident situation since the main underlying hypothesis, i.e. an equilibrium state between the radionuclide concentration in water and biota, is not reached.

1 Rates of both radionuclide uptake and loss are known to be affected by species metabolism, 2 and it has been reported that a large part of the accumulated radionuclides by heterotrophic 3 marine biota comes from food (Thomann, 1981; Kasamatsu and Ishikawa, 1997; Zhao et al., 4 2001; Rowan, 2013). Therefore, the characterization of the radionuclide distribution in these 5 components should be accompanied by ecological information such as species composition in 6 the ecosystem, population densities, rates of primary and secondary production, food 7 ingestion rate, etc. Such parameters are generally influenced by various environmental factors 8 (light, temperature, salinity, food availability, marine hydrodynamics) that vary quickly from 9 one site to another according to geographic location and morphological characteristics 10 (bathymetry, distance from the shore). Moreover, movements of radionuclides associated 11 with planktonic material are subject to physical transport processes, and are affected by 12 bioaccumulation, retention and subsequent food chain transfer, vertical migration of 13 many species, and passive sinking of biodetritus. It follows that the relative importance 14 of these biological transport mechanisms will be a function of the oceanic biomass at any 15 given location (Fowler and Fisher, 2004).

16 Consequently, the effective consideration of all these factors implies that the modelling 17 approach of radionuclide transfer to marine biota should be driven by an ecosystem model 18 describing different ecological and physical processes and transfers between organisms in the 19 food web (Erichsen et al., 2013; Koulikov and Meili, 2003; Kryshev and Ryabov, 2000; 20 Kumblad et al., 2006; Sandberg et al., 2007).

In this study, we developed a generic radioecological model to estimate the <sup>137</sup>Cs 21 concentration in marine plankton populations. This model was applied to study <sup>137</sup>Cs transfer 22 23 to plankton populations in the western North Pacific after the FNPP accident and to compare 24 it with the pre-accident steady state situation. The NEMURO ecosystem model (Kishi et al., 25 2007) was used to simulate the planktonic population dynamics in the area and to estimate 26 different ecological fluxes. It was coupled to the hydrodynamic SYMPHONIE model 27 (Marsaleix et al., 2008) in order to account for the impact of hydrodynamic and hydrologic conditions on the dynamics of organic and inorganic materials. The <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations in 28 29 seawater after the accident were obtained from dispersion numerical simulations.

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#### 31 2 Material and methods

The modelling method used in this study aims to estimate the activity concentration of <sup>137</sup>Cs in different plankton populations, to analyse its sensitivity to the model parameter uncertainties, and to understand the transfer mechanism and its relation with the ecological functioning of the living organisms. It is based on three different models: (1) a 3D hydrodynamic model simulating the movement of dissolved and particulate state variables of the ecosystem model and estimating the physicochemical characteristics of seawater (temperature, salinity), (2) an ecosystem model simulating the plankton biomasses and their different metabolic rates and fluxes (e.g. primary production, excretion, grazing, mortality, etc.), and (3) a mechanistic radioecological model simulating the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in different plankton populations.

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#### 2.1 Hydrodynamic modelling

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We used the three-dimensional SYMPHONIE ocean circulation model (Marsaleix et al., 2009a, 2009b, 2012). This model has been widely used in the Mediterranean Sea to study different marine processes related to coastal circulation (Estournel et al., 2003; Petrenko et al., 2008), sediment transport (Ulses et al., 2008), larval dispersal (Guizien et al., 2012) and plankton population dynamics (Auger et al., 2011; Herrmann et al., 2014). This model has also been used, for the first time, in the western North Pacific Ocean to study the <sup>137</sup>Cs dispersion after the FNPP accident (Estournel et al., 2012).

The numerical configuration used in this study was the same as the one reported in detail by (Estournel et al., 2012), with 30 vertical irregular levels based on the sigma coordinate system and characterized by an increase of resolution near the surface. The horizontal grid (Fig. 1) corresponds to an orthogonal curvilinear system, with variable resolution increasing linearly with the distance from FNPP (0.6 x 0.6 km near FNPP and 5 x 5 km at the open lateral boundaries off Japan).

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## 25 2.2 Ecosystem modelling

26 To properly represent the dynamics of the plankton populations exposed to the radioactive 27 contamination in our study area, the NEMURO (North-Pacific Ecosystem Model for 28 Understanding Regional Oceanography) biogeochemical model (Kishi et al., 2007) was 29 applied. This model, which has been extensively used in the western North Pacific region 30 (Aita et al., 2003; Hashioka and Yamanaka, 2007; Komatsu et al., 2007), consists of 11 state 31 variables with two size-classes of phytoplankton: small phytoplankton (PS) representing 32 small species such as coccolithophorids and flagellates, and large phytoplankton (PL) 33 representing diatoms. It includes three size-classes of zooplankton: small zooplankton (ZS) 34 such as ciliates and foraminifera, large zooplankton (ZL) (copepods), and predatory zooplankton (ZP) such as krill and/or jellyfish. The other model state variables are: nitrate
(NO<sub>3</sub>), ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub>), silicate (Si(OH)<sub>4</sub>), particulate organic nitrogen (PON), biogenic
silica (Opal) and dissolved organic nitrogen (DON). The model structure and the different
parameter values are presented in detail in (Kishi et al., 2007).

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## 2.3 Radioecological modelling

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#### 8 2.3.1 Phytoplankton

9 The knowledge of the <sup>137</sup>Cs accumulation mechanisms in aquatic primary producers, mainly 10 phytoplankton, is still vague. However, previous studies underlined that it is mostly 11 transported into the cell by active absorption since it is an alkali metal analogue of potassium 12 (Fukuda et al., 2014). Therefore, the dynamics of radionuclide concentration in phytoplankton 13 populations is determined by a balance between radionuclide concentration in seawater, the 14 biological half-life of clearance, and different processes affecting the population biomasses:

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16 
$$\frac{d[Cs]_p}{dt} = \mu_p [Cs]_w - (m_p + m_p^G) [Cs]_p - \frac{1}{B_p} \frac{dB_p}{dt} [Cs]_p - (\lambda_{p_B} + \lambda_{p_P}) [Cs]_p$$
(1)  
17

18 Where  $[Cs]_p$  is the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in the phytoplankton population (Bq g<sup>-1</sup> wet weight), 19  $[Cs]_w$  is the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in the seawater (Bq L<sup>-1</sup>),  $B_p$  is the phytoplankton biomass 20 (µmolN L<sup>-1</sup>),  $m_p$  and  $m_p^G$  are, respectively, the natural mortality rate and the rate of mortality 21 due to the grazing (d<sup>-1</sup>),  $\lambda_{p_B}$  and  $\lambda_{p_P}$  are, respectively, the biological depuration rate of <sup>137</sup>Cs 22 from phytoplankton and the <sup>137</sup>Cs physical decay rate (d<sup>-1</sup>), and  $\mu_p$  is the <sup>137</sup>Cs accumulation 23 rate by the phytoplankton (L g<sup>-1</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>).

In the NEMURO ecosystem model, the phytoplankton population growth rate is given by theequation:

26 
$$\frac{1}{B_p} \frac{dB_p}{dt} = pp - exc_p - R_p - m_p - m_p^G$$
 (2)

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Where  $exc_p$  and  $R_p$  are, respectively, the phytoplankton excretion and respiration rates (d<sup>-1</sup>), and *pp* the gross primary production rate (d<sup>-1</sup>). After rearrangement we obtain from Eq. (1) and Eq. (2) :

31 
$$\frac{d[Cs]_p}{dt} = \mu_p [Cs]_w - (pp - exc - R + \lambda_p) [Cs]_p$$
(3)

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## 33 2.3.2 Zooplankton

The dynamics of radionuclide concentration in consumers reflects the variation over time of the radionuclide intake from both water and food. Therefore, the differential equation describing the dynamics of <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in the zooplankton populations can be written as:

$$6 \qquad \frac{d[Cs]_z}{dt} = \mu_z \ [Cs]_w \ + \ AE_z \ \sum_{j=1}^N IR_{j\to z} [Cs]_j \ - \left(m_z + \ m_z^G + \ \lambda_{z_B} + \lambda_{z_P} + \ \frac{1}{B_z} \frac{dB_z}{dt}\right) [Cs]_z \tag{4}$$

Where  $[Cs]_z$ ,  $[Cs]_i$  and  $[Cs]_w$  represent, respectively, the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations in 8 zooplankton, in prey index j (Bq g<sup>-1</sup> ww) and in seawater (Bq L<sup>-1</sup>),  $B_z$  is the zooplankton 9 biomass (µmolN L<sup>-1</sup>),  $\mu_z$  is the <sup>137</sup>Cs accumulation rate by zooplankton population (d<sup>-1</sup>),  $AE_z$ 10 is the assimilation efficiency of <sup>137</sup>Cs by zooplankton,  $IR_{j\rightarrow z}$  is the ingestion rate of prey index 11 12 *j* by the zooplankton, *N* represents the number of prey populations present in the area that are available for the zooplankton,  $\lambda_{z_{B}}$  and  $\lambda_{z_{P}}$  are, respectively, the biological depuration rate 13 (d<sup>-1</sup>) of the <sup>137</sup>Cs by the zooplankton and the <sup>137</sup>Cs radioactive physical decay rate (d<sup>-1</sup>), and 14  $m_z$  and  $m_z^G$  are, respectively, the zooplankton natural and grazing mortality rates (d<sup>-1</sup>). 15

16 The zooplankton population growth rate is modelled in the NEMURO model as follows:

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18 
$$\frac{1}{B_z} \frac{dB_z}{dt} = \left(\sum_{j=1}^N IR_{j\to z}\right) - exc_z - ege_z - m_z - m_z^G$$
 (5)  
19

Where  $exc_z$  and  $ege_z$  are, respectively, the excretion and egestion rates (d<sup>-1</sup>). After rearrangement of equations modelled in the NEMURO model we obtain:

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23 
$$exc_z + ege_z = (1-b)\sum_{j=1}^N IR_{j\to z}$$
 (6)

24

Where *b* is the growth efficiency of zooplankton. By inserting Eq. (5) into Eq. (4), and considering Eq. (6), we can write:

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28 
$$\frac{d[Cs]_z}{dt} = \mu_z [Cs]_w + AE_z \left( \sum_{j=1}^N IR_{j \to z} [Cs]_j \right) - \left( \lambda_z + b \sum_{j=1}^N IR_{j \to z} \right) [Cs]_z$$
(7)  
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#### 30 2.4 Model simulation

The ocean circulation model (OCM) was run from February 2010 to January 2013. The currents, vertical diffusivities and temperature fields were then used to force the ecosystem model and spun-up for 3 years by repeating the same forcing data for the first two years. For
this study, we used the results of the two last simulated years (February 2011 to December
2012), when a quasi-steady state was reached.

4 To assess the effect of the accident on the planktonic populations, two different simulations 5 were carried out: 1) the real (accidental) situation with presence of contaminated waters due 6 to the accident occurred on 11 March 2011, and 2) a non-accidental situation by assuming 7 homogeneous <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in seawater over the whole simulation period.

- Before the accident date (11 March 2011), the seawater <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration for the western 8 North Pacific Ocean ranged from 1 to 2 mBg  $L^{-1}$  (Povinec et al., 2013). For the purposes of 9 the modelling, a constant <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in seawater of 2 mBq L<sup>-1</sup> is assumed throughout 10 the study area. In the accidental situation, we used, as of 11 March 2011, the <sup>137</sup>Cs 11 12 concentrations in seawater obtained from the dispersion simulation carried out by Estournel et 13 al. (2012), in which the amount of atmospheric deposition included was 0.26 PBq within a radius of 80 km. The direct leakage was about 5.5 PBq released between 12 March and 14 15 30 June 2011. The simulation was extended until 31 December 2012, The inverse method 16 described in Estournel et al., (2012) and used to calculate the source term in the first 17 three months after the accident was applied to the whole period. After June 2011, the concentrations at the two outlets of the nuclear power plant were simplified to a linear 18 decrease from 40 and 20 Bg L<sup>-1</sup> on 1<sup>st</sup> July 2011 to 8 Bg L<sup>-1</sup> for both outlets at the end of 19 2011 and then remained constant at this value for 2012. However, no other additional 20 21 source (e.g. terrestrial runoff, rivers flow, etc) has been considered in this simulation.
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#### 23 **2.5 Model calibration and sensitivity analysis**

The radioecological parameters related to plankton are very scarce, and are often associated with considerable uncertainties. In this study, a temporal series of the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in zooplankton collected at Sendai Bay between June 2011 and December 2013 **and reported in Kaeriyama et al. (2015)** was used to calibrate the model and estimate the different radioecological parameters. **However, because of non-indication of the zooplankton taxa composition, we used for the purpose of modelling a weighted average of** <sup>137</sup>Cs **concentrations in the three zooplankton groups**.

To assess the sensitivity of the calibrated parameters, we investigated a sensitivity analysis of the radioecological model using the classical one-parameter-at-a-time analysis (OAT). The choice of this quantitative method can be justified by its simplicity and by the absence of any interactive effects among parameters. In this local approach, the single parameter variation effect is estimated by increasing and decreasing each parameter in equations (3) and (7) by 10%, while keeping all the others fixed at their nominal values. The sensitivity  $S_p$  associated with each parameter p was computed as the percentage of change in activity generated by the parameter variation:

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$$S_p(\%) = \frac{E(p) - E}{E} * 100$$

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7 Where E(p) is the prognostic variable value (here, the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in plankton 8 populations) when the parameter p is set to its changed value (10% higher or lower than its 9 calibrated value), and E is the value of the prognostic variable in the baseline run (i.e., all 10 parameters at their calibrated values).

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#### 12 **2.6 Absorbed dose rate**

To assess the biological effects of the <sup>137</sup>Cs ionizing radiation on the plankton populations, we 13 14 calculated the absorbed dose rate from internal and external pathways using the ERICA graded approach (Brown et al., 2008). This approach consists in converting the <sup>137</sup>Cs 15 concentration in plankton populations and in seawater to the internal and external absorbed 16 17 dose rates, respectively, using the so-called "Dose Conversion Coefficients", which are 18 specific for each radionuclide-organism combination. The different dose rates are calculated 19 as follows, assuming that the organisms are freely floating in the water column without 20 any contact with sediment:

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$$D = D_{int} + D_{ext}$$
$$D_{int} = DCC_{Cs-pk} [Cs]_{pk}$$
$$D_{ext} = DCC_{Cs-w-pk} [Cs]_{w}$$

22

Where D,  $D_{int}$ ,  $D_{ext}$  are, respectively, the total, the internal and the external dose rates ( $\mu$ Gy h<sup>-1</sup>), [Cs]<sub>pk</sub> and [Cs]<sub>w</sub> are, respectively, the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in plankton population and seawater (in Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>),  $DCC_{Cs-pk}$  is the dose conversion coefficient for the internal exposure, and  $DCC_{Cs-w-pk}$  represents the dose conversion coefficient for external exposure (in  $\mu$ Gy h<sup>-1</sup> per Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>).

The DCC parameter values for phytoplankton and zooplankton used in this study are obtained
 from the coastal aquatic ecosystem DCCs reported in (Vives i Batlle et al., 2004). The values
 of these parameters are summarized in Table 1.

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#### 3 Results and discussions

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## 7 3.1 Validation of the ecosystem model, and zooplankton taxonomic

#### compositions

9 The seasonal variations in phytoplankton and zooplankton biomasses were presented for three 10 different areas classified according to latitude: the subtropical region (latitude <  $35^{\circ}$ N), the 11 transition region ( $35^{\circ}$ N < Latitude <  $39^{\circ}$ N), and the subarctic region (Latitude >  $39^{\circ}$ N) (Fig. 12 1). The ecosystem model outputs are expressed in µmol N L<sup>-1</sup>, their conversion to the 13 chlorophyll-a unit is carried out using a typical C:chl ratio of 50, and a C:N ratio of 133/17 14 (Kishi et al., 2007).

15 The monthly medians of the spatial chlorophyll-a concentration averaged over a 50 m deep 16 layer were used to compare model results for the period (2011-2012) with the twenty years of 17 climatology field data (1990-2010) (Fig. 2: A, C, E) derived from the Japan 18 Oceanographic Data Center (JODC) dataset (available at: http://www.jodc.go.jp). In all 19 areas, the temporal evolution of the chlorophyll standing stocks showed a seasonal cycle with 20 higher median values in spring (April-May) and autumn (October-November). This seasonal cycle is less marked in the subtropical region than in the two other regions. The simulated 21 chlorophyll-a concentration medians varied from less than 0.5 mg.m<sup>-3</sup> in all regions in winter 22 to approximately 1, 1.5 and 3 mg  $m^{-3}$  in spring in the subtropical, the transition and the 23 subarctic regions, respectively. These values of the chlorophyll-a concentrations are in 24 25 general consistent with the field data, and show the same seasonal variability [Wilcoxon ranksum test ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ): P = 0.88]. 26

The total zooplankton biomass and its taxonomic composition are presented in Fig. 2 (B, D, F) for the three regional areas described above. The simulated zooplankton biomasses showed an annual seasonality in the three regions, with minimum values in winter and peaks in spring and autumn. The zooplankton biomasses showed latitudinal variations with greater biomass in the subarctic region (from 200 mg m<sup>-3</sup> wet weight in winter to about 700 mg m<sup>-3</sup> wet weight in late spring), followed by the transition region (from 150 mg m<sup>-3</sup> ww to about 500 mg m<sup>-3</sup> ww) and the subtropical region (from 100 mg m<sup>-3</sup> ww to about 300 mg m<sup>-3</sup> ww). In the subtropical region, the taxonomic composition of zooplankton biomass was dominated
 by large zooplankton with about 40%, followed by small and predatory zooplankton each
 accounting for 30% of the total biomass.

In the transition region, the seasonal cycle of zooplankton composition was more pronounced.
In winter, the zooplankton was represented by 40% of large zooplankton, and 30% of small
and predatory zooplanktons. In spring, the zooplankton biomass was dominated by large
zooplankton (60% ZL and 20% for both ZS and ZP). From late spring until early autumn, the

8 zooplankton composition changed progressively with a decrease of the ZL proportion, to be
9 composed of 40% ZP and 30% of ZS and ZL in early autumn.

- 10 In the subarctic region, the proportions of small zooplankton, large zooplankton and predatory
- 11 zooplankton were, respectively, 25%, 35% and 40% in winter, 10%, 70% and 20% in spring,

12 and 20%, 35% and 45% in late summer and early autumn.

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## 14 **3.2 Model calibration**

The result of the calibration is shown in Fig. 3, and the final estimated radioecological parameters are summarized in Table 2. The phytoplankton elimination rates estimated from this calibration  $(0.5 d^{-1})$  were very similar to that calculated using the allometric relationship reported by Vives i Batlle et al. (2007) (0.58  $d^{-1}$ ). For the zooplankton, the obtained values

19 ranged from 0.03 to 0.11  $d^{-1}$ , and are also in good agreement with the literature values [

Thomann (1981): 0.03  $d^{-1}$ ; Vives i Batlle et al. (2007): 0.056  $d^{-1}$ ].

The <sup>137</sup>Cs assimilation efficiency by zooplankton calibrated in this study was 0.75. This value is similar to that used by Brown et al. (2006), and is slightly higher than 0.63 observed by Mathews and Fisher (2008) for the crustacean zooplankton *Artemia salina*.

The rates of <sup>137</sup>Cs direct accumulation from water by zooplankton found in this study were about  $5 \times 10^{-4} L g^{-1}$  for small and large zooplankton, and about 0.001  $L g^{-1} d^{-1}$  for predatory zooplankton. The accumulation rate corresponding to phytoplankton was 0.015 for both groups.

However, for the calibration we used zooplankton data from coastal areas presented in (Kaeriyama et al., 2014). According to these authors, zooplankton gut content in these areas may contain particles with high <sup>137</sup>Cs levels, which could affect the calibrated values. Consequently, over-estimations in <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations in these populations could be generated especially in the open ocean where the particles contribution is generally negligible.

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## 3 3.3 Sensitivity analysis

The sensitivity of the estimated <sup>137</sup>Cs activity concentrations in different plankton groups to uncertainty in the parameters of equations (3) and (7) calibrated to field data at Sendai Bay was tested using the OAT method, and the results are shown in Fig. 4.

7 For all plankton groups, the <sup>137</sup>Cs activity estimates showed a great sensitivity to the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in seawater, with an activity change of 10% for a 10% change in the seawater 8 <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration. The <sup>137</sup>Cs activity in seawater used in this study was obtained from the 9 numerical simulations of the <sup>137</sup>Cs dispersion using the SYMPHONIE circulation model. One 10 11 can imagine that all potential biases associated with this simulation would generate the same ranges of error in the results concerning the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in plankton. It is, therefore, 12 13 clearly important to take into consideration all these errors when interpreting the results of the 14 radioecological model.

The <sup>137</sup>Cs activity estimates in the phytoplankton groups are very sensitive to the accumulation rate from water (10% change for a 10% change in the parameter), and are moderately sensitive to the elimination and primary production rates (5-7% change in the opposite sense), whereas the sensitivity to the daily respiration rate did not exceed 1%. The primary production rate is, therefore, the most important ecological parameter in the estimation of <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations in phytoplankton. It allows dilution of the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations in phytoplankton by promoting the growth of its populations.

For all zooplankton groups, the activity estimates were most sensitive to the change in the <sup>137</sup>Cs assimilation efficiency (AE), with an activity change of about 9% for both small and large zooplankton. For predatory zooplankton, the activity change was slightly above 10%, which can be explained by the direct effect of the AE parameter on ZP and the indirect effect due to the change in ZS and ZL that are preyed on by ZP.

The sensitivity to the population growth efficiency (*b*) was also significant with about 7% of change. This ecological parameter, which affects the zooplankton population growth and consequently plays a role in the dilution of their  $^{137}$ Cs concentrations, is associated with substantial uncertainty. Sushchenya (1970) reported values ranging from 4.8 to 48.9%. The value used in this study was 30% (Kishi et al., 2007). One can expect, therefore, an overestimation of up to 45% or an underestimation of up to 60% in the estimates of zooplankton  $^{137}$ Cs concentrations. 1 The sensitivity to the direct accumulation rate of <sup>137</sup>Cs from water by zooplankton ( $\mu_z$ ) was 2 relatively low (< 4% for the three groups of zooplankton). This can be related to the lower 3 proportion of contamination coming from water compared to that coming from food. The 4 variation in the depuration rate induced a relatively moderate change of 5%.

5 The sensitivity to the food ingestion rate was also very low, with a proportion of change not 6 exceeding 2% for small zooplankton and 1% for both large and predatory zooplankton. This 7 is due to the dual role played by the food ingestion, which contributes both to the <sup>137</sup>Cs 8 incorporation into consumers and to its dilution by promoting the growth of consumers 9 (equation (7)).

10 The sensitivity of the <sup>137</sup>Cs activity estimates in the three groups of zooplankton to parameters 11 related to their different preys is also not negligible. The proportions of change varied from 12 1% to 9% depending on the zooplankton group and the parameter in question. For example, 13 the sensitivity of the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in ZS to the PS accumulation rate ( $\mu_{ps}$ ), the 14 elimination rate ( $\lambda_{ps}$ ), and the primary production rate (pp) were 9%, 5% and 7%, 15 respectively.

16 This sensitivity analysis showed that the parameters related to the two groups of 17 phytoplankton are very important for the estimation of the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in all plankton 18 groups. Therefore, these parameters are key determinants of the radionuclide concentration in 19 all marine animals of the pelagic food chain (Mathews and Fisher, 2008). Consequently, the 20 experimental determination of these parameters, often neglected due to the difficulties 21 characterizing the measurement of radionuclides in phytoplankton, is of the greatest 22 importance.

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## 24 3.4 Radioecological model validation

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The simulation results corresponding to the spatial distribution of the weighted average of <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations in the three-zooplankton groups (ZS, ZL, ZP) are presented in Fig. 5. These results are shown for 6 different dates from June 2011 to August 2012, and are compared to the few field observations available in the area (Buesseler et al., 2012; Kaeriyama et al., 2014; Kitamura et al., 2013). Some field data reported in the unit of Bq kg<sup>-1</sup> dry weight are converted to Bq kg<sup>-1</sup> wet weight using dry to weight ratio of 0.2 (Buesseler et al., 2012).

In general, these results illustrated the good agreement between measured and
 simulated results, which is confirmed by the Wilcoxon rank-sum statistical test (P > 0.05

1  $\rightarrow$  non-significant difference). Nevertheless, some points showed significant 2 discrepancies between measured and simulated concentrations, as in the case of (36°N, 3 144°W) on 3-18 June 2011 (Fig. 5 a) where the observed concentration was two orders of magnitude higher than the simulated one. A large part of this difference could be due to 4 5 a spatial shift of the contaminated plume in the dispersion model. Indeed, the coastal 6 waters off Japan are very energetic, especially with the interaction between the cold 7 Oyashio current moving southward and the warm Northward Kuroshio current, 8 generating very complex physical structures (eddies, tidal forces, etc), which are 9 generally less well represented by the hydrodynamics models leading to some spatial shifts between the simulated <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations in seawater used in this simulation and 10 11 the real field concentrations.

12

# 13 3.5 Amplification of the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in plankton populations following 14 the FNPP accident

To assess the contamination level of plankton populations in 2011, we calculated a ratio (**R**) of the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in phytoplankton (the weighted average of PS and PL) and zooplankton (the weighted average of ZS, ZL and ZP) in the accidental situation to its concentration in these populations in the non-accidental situation. The results of the temporal evolution of these ratios for different distances from FNPP are shown in Fig. 6.

20 The ratios for phytoplankton and zooplankton are very similar spatially and temporally. After 21 the accident, the ratio increased rapidly until reaching a maximum, whose the value and the 22 time required to reach it are variable following the distance from FNPP. The results showed 23 that the time, calculated from the accident date, required to reach the maximum value increase 24 with distance from FNPP, going from about 1 month for the populations located at less than 25 30 km from FNPP to about 6 months for those located at 500 m from FNPP. The maximum value, in turn, decreased with the distance from FNPP (about 10<sup>4</sup> at 0-30 km from FNPP to 26 slightly lower than  $10^2$  at 400-500 km from FNPP). 27

After reaching the peak, the ratios progressively decreased over time but remained relatively high at the end of 2011 especially in the sectors situated at less than 50 km from FNPP where the ratio was still higher than 10.

The rapid decrease of <sup>137</sup>Cs in planktonic populations one year after the accident in the major parts of the study area can be explained by the different processes related to both population ecological functioning (cells growth and death, biological elimination) and the surrounding environment conditions especially by the horizontal and vertical mixing due to the ocean hydrodynamics. Indeed, FNPP is located in an area where the east-flowing Kuroshio current
and the southwest-flowing Oyashio current mix, generating complicated nearshore currents
and mesoscale eddies (Buesseler, 2014), thereby favouring dispersion, regeneration, and thus
dilution, of the contaminated planktonic populations in the area.

5 Referring to the biogeochemical cycle in the pelagic environment, part of the contaminated 6 populations would be transferred to the pelagic higher trophic levels (planktivorous fishes, 7 squids, etc.) by predation leading to transfer of this contamination along various trophic 8 chains. The other part will generate, after dying, large aggregated particles, known 9 collectively as marine snow, which can reach the deep waters (Asper et al., 1992) and thus 10 contribute to the contamination of sediment and benthic organisms, especially in the coastal 11 area. This phenomenon was observed in the Mediterranean Sea a few days after the 12 Chernobyl accident, generating a rapid transport of some radionuclides from surface waters to a depth of 200 m (Fowler et al., 1987) . This process could be expected in the Japanese 13 14 coastal area characterized by very high levels of contamination especially around FNPP.

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## 17 **3.6** Apparent concentration ratio (aCR)

The concentration ratio (L kg<sup>-1</sup>) is defined as the ratio of radionuclide in the organism (Bq kg<sup>-1</sup> wet weight) divided by its concentration in the water (Bq L<sup>-1</sup>). The dynamics of the calculated apparent concentration ratios (aCR) for small phytoplankton, small zooplankton and predatory zooplankton populations throughout the study area and for populations located within a radius of 30 km from FNPP over the year 2011 are shown in Fig. 7. These apparent concentration ratios are estimated for the two different situations described above (see Section 2.4).

25 The spatial median of the apparent concentration ratios in the non-accidental situation (i.e. the steady state situation) was between 20 and 30 L kg<sup>-1</sup> wet weight for small phytoplankton and 26 between 10 in winter to slightly more than 30 L kg<sup>-1</sup> during the rest of the year for small 27 28 zooplankton. In the case of predatory zooplankton, the concentration ratio was a little higher, ranging from 10 to about 40 L kg<sup>-1</sup> wet weight. These values are in good agreement with the 29 30 reported data on plankton concentration ratios in marine ecosystems, which generally range from 6 to 40 L kg<sup>-1</sup> wet weight in steady state conditions (Fowler, 1977; IAEA, 2004; 31 Kaeriyama et al., 2008). In the sector situated at less than 30 km from FNPP (Fig. 7), the 32 33 concentration ratio was almost constant and seasonal variability was very less pronounced, with about 25 L kg<sup>-1</sup> for PS and 30-40 for ZS and ZP. This constancy in the estimated 34

1 concentration ratios for the populations located at less than 30 km compared to those 2 estimated for the whole study area, where a substantial decrease in the concentration ratio was 3 observed during winter, can be related to the clear differences in food ingestion rates observed 4 in this period between the two locations (Fig. 8). In winter, the zooplankton ingestion rates 5 estimated for the populations located at less than 30 km were higher than those estimated for 6 the whole study area, due essentially to the spatial heterogeneity characterizing the whole 7 study area in terms of food availability, with presence of some less productive regions such 8 as the subtropical zone where the planktonic biomasses were generally very low (see Section 9 3.1).

10 At the time of the releases and immediately after the accident, the concentration ratio 11 decreased rapidly for all plankton groups signifying the collapse of the steady state situation. 12 This is mainly due to the sudden arrival of highly contaminated waters in these areas where 13 the living plankton populations were not yet contaminated. This phase was less marked for 14 small phytoplankton compared to the groups of zooplankton, due to the fact that phytoplankton accumulates <sup>137</sup>Cs only from water whereas in the case of zooplankton an 15 16 important part of the contamination arises from food, a process requiring some time. For the 17 populations located at less than 30 km from FNPP the dramatic decrease in the concentration ratio in March was even more intense and longer. The estimated time needed for these 18 19 populations to regain the equilibrium was about 5-10 days for PS, 30 days for ZS and about 20 50 days for ZP. The decreasing phase in concentration ratio was directly followed by an increasing phase reflecting the progressive accumulation of <sup>137</sup>Cs by plankton organisms. 21

22

## 23 **3.7** Relative accumulation of <sup>137</sup>Cs from diet by zooplankton

The dynamics of <sup>137</sup>Cs fraction accumulated from diet by zooplankton populations is 24 25 estimated for both accidental and non-accidental situations and in the two spatial scales (Fig. 26 9). This fraction remained stable in the case of zooplankton living at less than 30 km from FNPP and represented more than 80% in the case of ZS, 90% in the case of ZL, and 98% in 27 the case of ZP. These results indicated that the major part of accumulated <sup>137</sup>Cs by these 28 29 populations is coming from food, which is consistent with the research conducted by 30 Baumann et al. (2015), who postulated that the dietary route could be largely responsible for the <sup>137</sup>Cs bioaccumulated by the zooplankton collected off Japan three 31 32 months after the accident.

33 The accident effect was only briefly apparent with a slight decrease of this proportion.

1 Conversely, the proportion estimated for zooplankton populations living in the whole area 2 revealed a decline in winter, especially in the case of ZS for which this proportion decreased 3 to 30%. Because of the non-decrease in the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in PS during this period (Fig. 4 10), the decrease in the relative accumulation by ZS from diet could be related to the decrease 5 in the food ingestion rate (Fig. 8). No apparent effect of the accident on the <sup>137</sup>Cs fraction 6 accumulated from diet was observed at this large spatial scale.

7

#### 8 **3.8 Trophic transfer factor**

9 The trophic transfer factor (TTF), defined as the ratio of radionuclide concentration in the 10 predator to its concentration in prey, was calculated for each zooplankton group. The small 11 zooplankton (ZS) has only one prey (small phytoplankton), therefore the TTF was calculated 12 directly by dividing the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in the ZS by its concentration in the PS. In the 13 case of large and predatory zooplanktons that have more than one prey (3 for each one), we 14 considered the weighted average of the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in preys related to each 15 zooplankton group.

Boxplots of predicted TTFs over 2011 for the three zooplankton groups in the accident andsteady state situations are shown in Fig. 11 for the two spatial scales described above.

The predicted TTF medians in the steady state situation for ZS, ZL and ZP were, respectively, 18 19 about 1.5, 1.7 and 1.2 in the sector 0-30 km from FNPP, and about 1.2, 1.45 and 1.1 in the 20 whole study area. The TTF values calculated for the whole study area were slightly lower 21 than those of the 0-30 km sector, reflecting the variability in ingestion rate and diet 22 composition between the two spatial scales (Fig. 8). The lower values of ZP TTFs compared 23 to the two other zooplankton groups may also be due to differences in their respective 24 ingestion rate values. The correlation coefficient r between the modelled TTF related to each 25 zooplankton group in the steady state conditions and their corresponding ingestion rates 26 showed a good correlation for the three groups of zooplankton and in both considered spatial 27 scales (Table 3).

The predicted TTFs in the accident situation were similar to those predicted in the steady state situation when considering the whole study area. This is due to the fact that, in the farthest sites from FNPP, where the contamination was not very high, the return to equilibrium occurred more rapidly, leading to TTFs similar to those observed before the accident although the concentrations in the predator and its preys were higher than during the pre-accident period. In the sector 0-30 km from FNPP, the predicted TTFs in the accidental situation were lower than those predicted in the steady state situation (non-accidental situation). This is due to the persistence of the non-equilibrium state and the high <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations in seawater in
this area, and to the fact that zooplankton accumulates <sup>137</sup>Cs mainly from food leading to a
delay in its contamination compared to its preys.

In turn, the correlation coefficients between predicted TTFs and ingestion rates in the accident situation showed a very slight decrease when considering the whole study area, and a considerable decrease when considering only the sector 0-30 km from FNPP. This means that the instability and the non-steady state conditions characterizing the post-accident period had significant effects on this correlation.

9 Previous works suggested that radiocesium is the only trace element apart from Hg that may 10 be potentially biomagnified along food chains (Harmelin-Vivien et al., 2012; Heldal et al., 11 2003; Zhao et al., 2001). In our study, the modelled TTFs were generally higher than the 12 unity for all zooplankton groups, showing evidence of biomagnification potential at this 13 trophic level. Mathews and Fisher (2008) reached the same general conclusion for the crustacean zooplankton Artemia salina feeding on phytoplankton, and reported that TTFs are 14 15 directly related to the food ingestion rates, and that a consistent capacity for biomagnification 16 exists when the food ingestion rate is high.

17

#### 18 **3.9 Absorbed dose**

19 The estimation of the absorbed dose rate ( $\mu$ G h<sup>-1</sup>) is an essential step enabling media/biota 20 activity concentrations to be interpreted in terms of potential effect (Beresford et al., 2007).

The calculated dose rates received by phytoplankton and zooplankton populations located at less than 30 km from FNPP over 2011 are shown in Fig. 12. The external dose rate was about 7 times higher than the internal dose rate for phytoplankton, and about 5 times higher than the internal dose rate in the case of zooplankton, resulting in similarity between the total and the external dose rates. The total dose rates for phyto- and zooplankton were also very similar, whereas the internal dose was higher for zooplankton than for phytoplankton.

For both phyto- and zooplankton, in the steady state conditions before the accident, the dose 27 rates were about  $10^{-6} \mu \text{Gy h}^{-1}$ . The maximum value was reached one month after the accident 28 with about 0.05  $\mu$ Gy h<sup>-1</sup>. From this date, the dose rates decreased progressively to reach about 29  $5 \times 10^{-5} \mu$ Gy h<sup>-1</sup> at the end of 2011. The calculated internal dose rates for zooplankton in June 30 2011 were about  $10^{-4} \mu \text{Gy h}^{-1}$ , and were, therefore, about 5 times greater than those reported 31 32 by Fisher et al.(2013) for copepods and euphausiids collected 30-600 km off Japan. This 33 difference is mainly due to the fact that in this study the dose rates were calculated for the populations located at 0-30 km from FNPP, where the activity level of <sup>137</sup>Cs was higher. 34

1 The maximum dose rates calculated here were very low relative to the benchmark value corresponding to 10  $\mu$ Gy h<sup>-1</sup> as suggested by the ERICA approach (Beresford et al., 2007), 2 signifying that the <sup>137</sup>Cs levels were too low to cause a measurable effect on these plankton 3 populations. However, this conclusion concerns only <sup>137</sup>Cs, we ignore whether the ionizing 4 radiation doses due to the other radionuclides released in high quantities following the FNPP 5 accident, such as short-lived nuclides <sup>132</sup>Te, <sup>131</sup>I and <sup>90</sup>Sr, can generate any effect on these 6 7 populations. Finally, it is important to note that this finding may be more representative 8 of the average conditions characterizing the area located up to 30 km from FNPP, 9 however in close vicinity to the FNPP (e.g. FNPP Port), the planktonic populations could have been exposed to more intense and more persistent doses that could generate higher 10 11 deleterious effects on these populations.

12

## 13 4 Conclusions

We presented a modelling approach based on an ecosystem model to estimate the <sup>137</sup>Cs activity in marine plankton populations following the Fukushima nuclear power plant (FNPP) accident, and to understand the effect of this accident on the different processes related to the radiocesium transfer in the planktonic trophic levels. This kind of model enables calculation of the non-equilibrium dynamic processes of radionuclide transfer for the biological compartments taking into account the dynamics of the biomass and the spatio-temporal variability in the ecological parameters and environmental conditions (Sazykina, 2000).

The radioecological parameters were estimated by calibration, and the model was validated 21 with observed <sup>137</sup>Cs data in zooplankton two months and ten months after the accident. This 22 study showed that the maximum values of the <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations in phytoplankton and 23 zooplankton populations were mainly reached one month after the accident and were about 24 25 two to four orders of magnitude higher than those observed before the accident depending on the distance from FNPP. On the other hand, It should be important to note that although 26 the model results indicate that the spatio-temporal dynamics of <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations in 27 28 zooplankton populations in non-accidental conditions are mainly depending on the food 29 availability (i.e. phytoplankton biomasses in the area), with an apparent decrease of 30 cesium concentrations in these populations during the limited-food conditions (e.g. 31 winter), this finding has to be verified and validated by multi-years field observations 32 once these data are available.

Contrary to Baumann et al. (2015) who did not observe any biomagnification between
 phytoplankton and zooplankton collected three months after the accident, our study

1 highlighted a modest biomagnification potential between the zooplankton groups, since the 2 calculated trophic transfer factors were slightly higher than unity. The result obtained by 3 Baumann et al. (2015) could be due to the fact that, three months after the accident, the 4 equilibrium has not been reached (Kaeriyama et al., 2014) resulting in some delay in predator (zooplankton) contamination compared to its preys (phytoplankton) since the 5 major part of the bioaccumulated <sup>137</sup>Cs by zooplankton is coming from food. Further 6 analysis covering a longer time series of contamination levels in zooplankton and 7 8 phytoplankton are therefore required to better understand the biomagnification 9 potential of these species. In our study, the TTF has been calculated over the full year 10 2011, but one has to be carful in interpretation of this result since it is not yet validated 11 using the field data.

12 Although the contamination degrees characterizing the seawater and the plankton populations following the FNPP accident were high, the maximum <sup>137</sup>Cs dose rates calculated for both 13 phyto- and zooplankton were about  $5 \times 10^{-2} \mu \text{Gy h}^{-1}$ , they remained lower than the benchmark 14 15 value considered in this study, which corresponds to the incremental screening dose rate of 10  $\mu$ Gy h<sup>-1</sup> defined in the ERICA assessment approach (Beresford et al., 2007). However, it is 16 important to note that the dose rate calculated in this study concerns only <sup>137</sup>Cs, and that we 17 ignore, at this stage, whether the ionizing radiation doses due to the other radionuclides 18 19 released in high quantities following the FNPP accident can generate any effect on these 20 populations, even though all previous studies have shown that the radioactivity levels in 21 marine biota have generally been below the levels necessary to cause a measurable effect on 22 populations (e.g. Vives i Batlle, 2015).

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1 Table 1. Parameter values used in the absorbed dose calculation. All units are in  $\mu$ Gy h<sup>-1</sup> per

2 Bq kg<sup>-1</sup>

Parameter	Definition	Phytoplankton	Zooplankton
DCC <sub>Cs-pk</sub>	Dose conversion coefficient for internal exposure	4.7 x 10 <sup>-6</sup>	4.6 x 10 <sup>-4</sup>
DCC <sub>Cs-w-pk</sub>	Dose conversion coefficient for external exposure	1.1 x 10 <sup>-4</sup>	3.6 x 10 <sup>-4</sup>

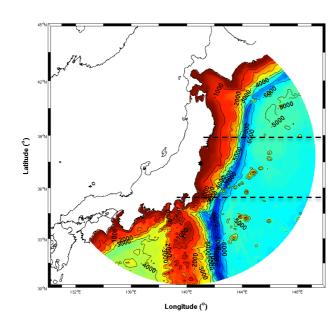
6 Table 2. Apparent radioecological parameters obtained from the model calibration.

Parameter		Unit	Value
$\mu_{ps}$	Accumulation rate from water for PS	$L g^{-1} d^{-1}$	0.015
$\mu_{pl}$	Accumulation rate from water for PL	$L g^{-1} d^{-1}$	0.015
$\mu_{zs}$	Accumulation rate from water for ZS	$L g^{-1} d^{-1}$	$5x10^{-4}$
$\mu_{zl}$	Accumulation rate from water for ZL	$L g^{-1} d^{-1}$	$5x10^{-4}$
$\mu_{zp}$	Accumulation rate from water for ZP	$L g^{-1} d^{-1}$	10 <sup>-3</sup>
$\lambda_{ps}$	Small phytoplankton elimination rate	$d^{-1}$	0.5
$\lambda_{pl}$	Large phytoplankton elimination rate	$d^{-1}$	0.5
$\lambda_{zs}$	Small zooplankton elimination rate	$d^{-1}$	0.11
$\lambda_{zl}$	Large zooplankton elimination rate	$d^{-1}$	0.07
$\lambda_{zp}$	Predatory zooplankton elimination rate	$d^{-1}$	0.03
AEz	<sup>137</sup> Cs assimilation efficiency by zooplankton	No dim	0.75

10 Table 3. Correlation coefficients (r) between the ingestion rates and the TTF of different

- 11 zooplankton groups.

Parameter	TTF	Non-accidental		Accidental	
		Whole area	0-30 km	Whole area	0-30 km
IR <sub>ZS</sub>	ZS	0.94	0.91	0.88	0.68
IR <sub>ZL</sub>	ZL	0.85	0.84	0.77	0.46
IR <sub>ZP</sub>	ZP	0.83	0.79	0.76	0.37



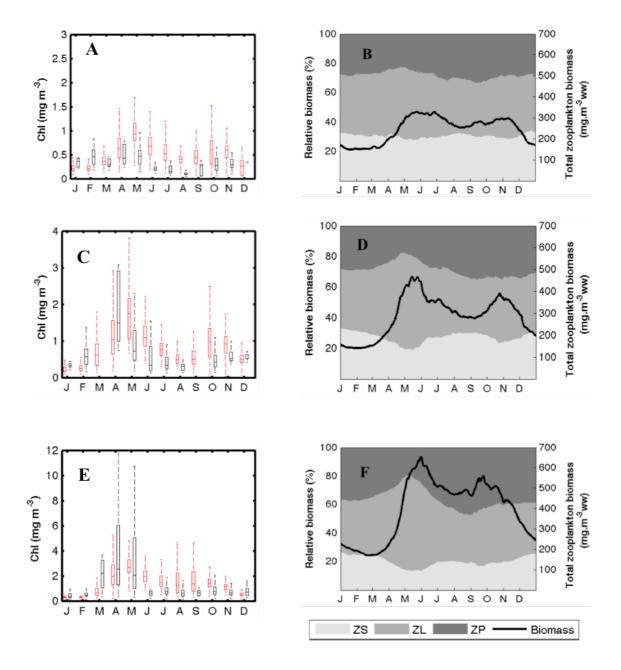


3

4 Figure 1. Numerical domain and its bathymetry. The dashed lines indicate the limits of the

5 three regional areas: the subtropical region (latitude  $< 35^{\circ}$ N), the transition region ( $35^{\circ}$ N <

6 Latitude  $< 39^{\circ}$ N), and the subarctic region (Latitude  $> 39^{\circ}$ N).





3 Figure 2. Left (A, C, E): climatological seasonal cycle of integrated chlorophyll from in situ 4 data (in black) and model results (in red) aggregated as monthly medians. In situ climatology 5 data is derived from the Japan Oceanographic Data Center (JODC) dataset for the period 6 (1990-2010). Model outputs are monthly medians for the period 2011-2012 and represented 7 for the three regional areas described in Figure 1. Right (B, D, F): results of the two-year 8 simulation of the total zooplankton biomass represented as the spatial median (dark line) and 9 its taxonomic composition in the three regional areas described above: subtropical region (A, 10 B), transition region (C, D), subarctic region (E, F).

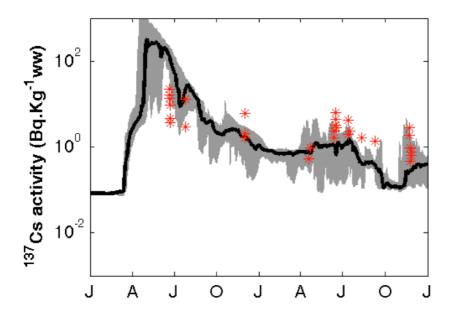


Figure 3. Results of the model calibration represented as the spatial median of the weighted
average of <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in the three zooplankton groups situated in the Sendai Bay.
The red stars represent the field data of <sup>137</sup>Cs activity in zooplankton in the same location
(Kaeriyama et al., 2015).

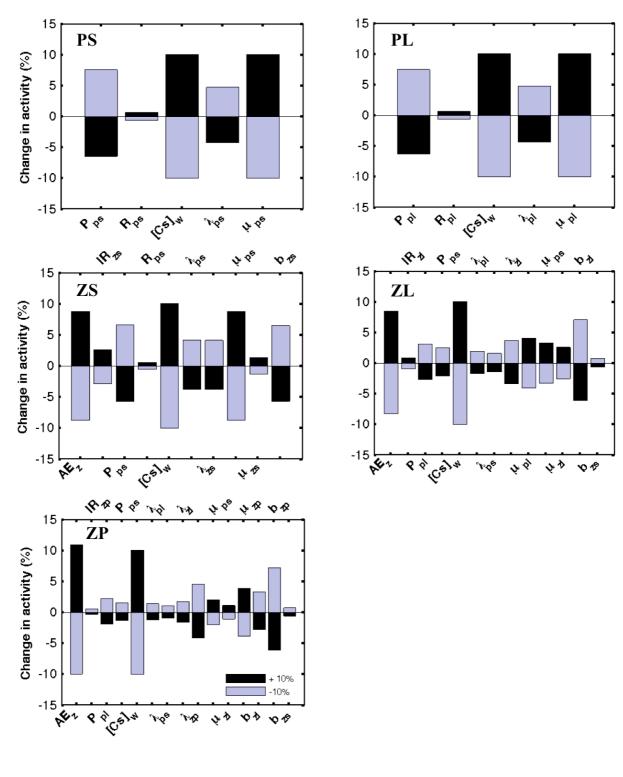


Figure 4. Sensitivity of activity estimates to a 10% change in the parameters of equations (3)
and (7) for all plankton groups considered in this study.



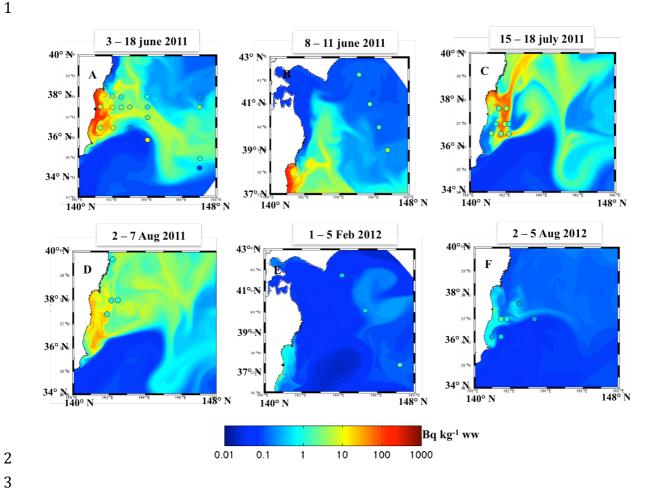


Figure 5. Spatial and temporal comparisons between the weighted average of simulated <sup>137</sup>Cs concentrations in the three zooplankton groups (**Bq kg**<sup>-1</sup> **ww**) and the field observations (colored rounds) reported by (A) Buesseler et al. (2012), (B,C,D,F) Kaeriyama et al. (2014) and (E) Kitamura et al. (2013).

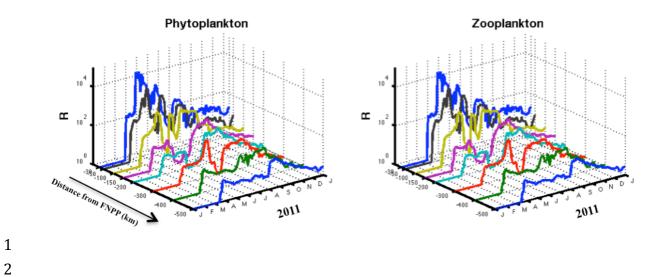
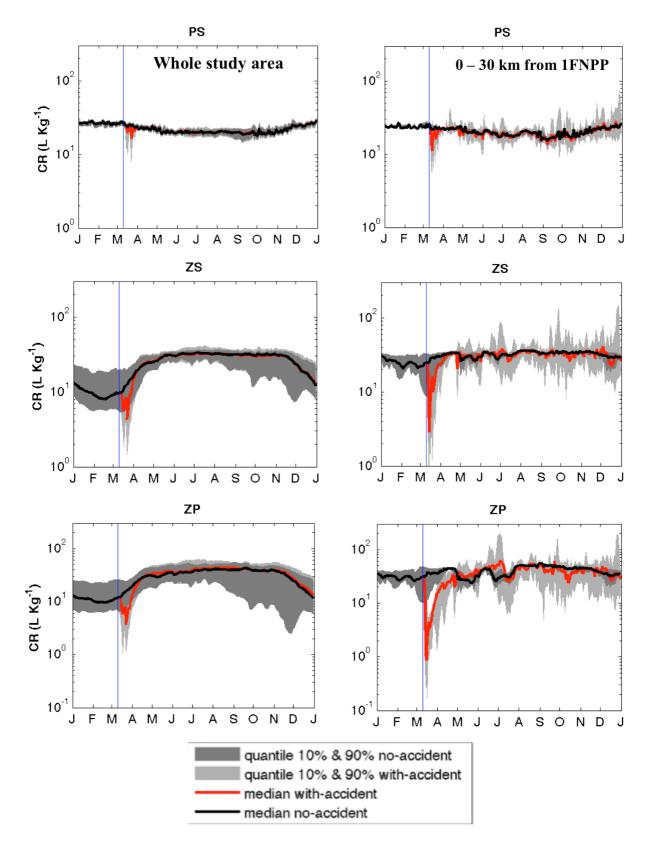


Figure 6. Calculated ratios (R) of <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in phytoplankton and zooplankton in
the accident situation to its concentration in the same population in the no-accident situation.
The ratio was calculated for different sectors at various distances from FNPP.





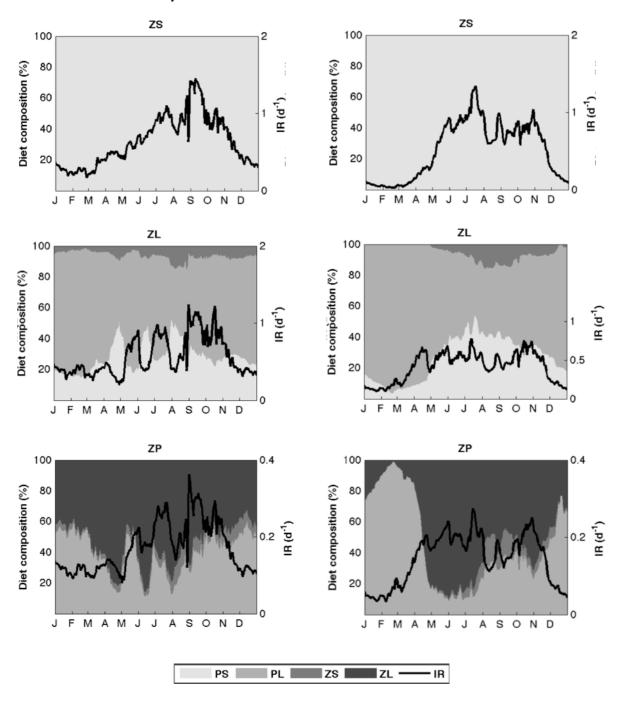
3 Figure 7. Results of concentration ratio estimated for small phytoplankton (PS), small

zooplankton (ZS) and predatory zooplankton (ZP) in the whole study area (left) and for those
populations located at less than 30 km from FNPP (right). The blue vertical line separates the

- 6 pre- and post-accident periods.
- 7

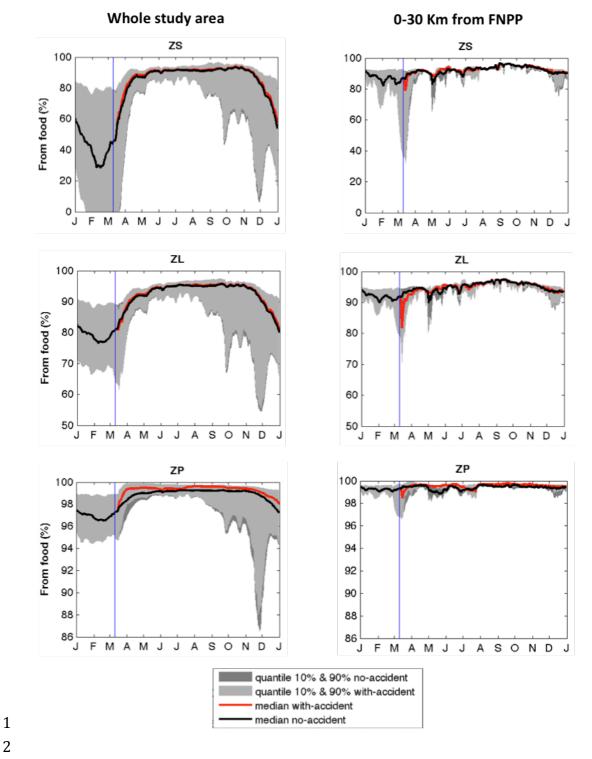
Whole study area

0-30 Km from FNPP



1 2

Figure 8. Food ingestion rate associated with the diet composition for the three groups of
zooplankton in the areas located between 0-30 km (left) and for the zooplankton of the whole
study area (right).



2

Figure 9. Relative fraction of <sup>137</sup>Cs accumulated from diet for the three groups of 3 zooplankton calculated as the spatial median and quantiles of the whole study area (left) and 4 in the sector located at less than 30 km from FNPP (right). The vertical blue line separates the 5 6 pre- and post-accident periods.

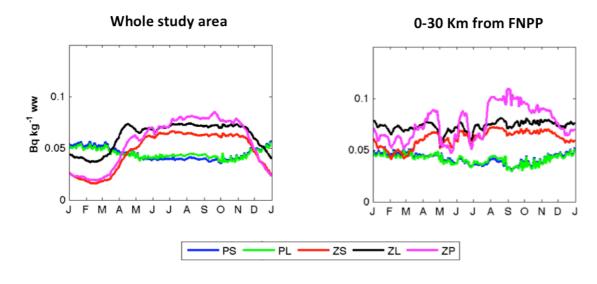




Figure 10: Dynamics of <sup>137</sup>Cs concentration in all plankton groups in the no-accident situation.

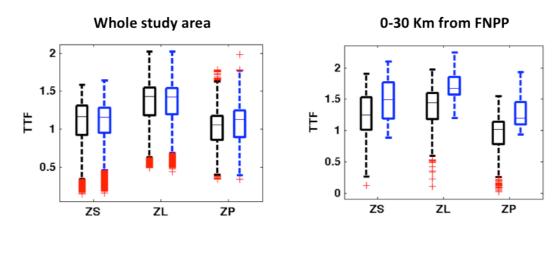
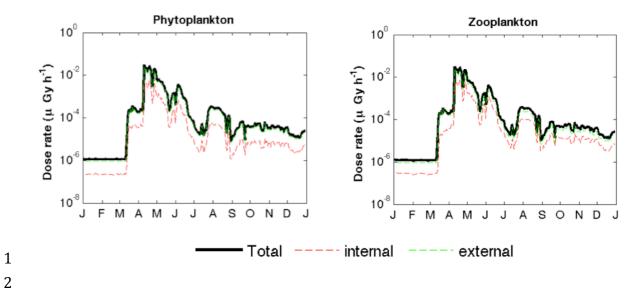


Figure 11. Boxplots of the Trophic Transfer Factor (TTF) calculated over 2011 for the three groups of zooplankton and for the two different spatial scales. The dark colour represents the accident situation and the blue colour represents the no-accident situation. On each box, the central mark is the median, the edges of the box are the 25th and 75th percentiles, the whiskers extend to the most extreme data points not considered outliers, and outliers are plotted individually (the red marks).



3 Figure 12. <sup>137</sup>Cs dose rates received by plankton populations located at less than 30 km from

- 4 FNPP
- 5