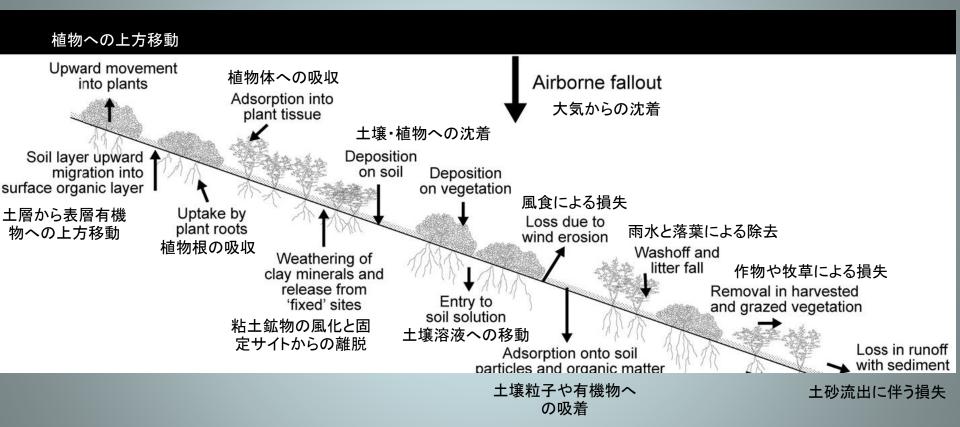
Movement of ¹³⁷Cs by water on hillslopes

斜面の水移動にともなう137Csの動き

¹³⁷Cs pathways

137Csの移動経路

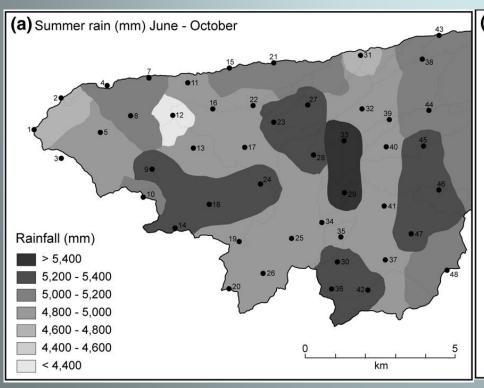


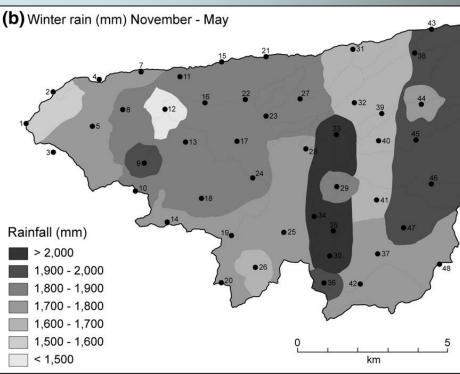
Key points

- Some fallout ¹³⁷Cs is adsorbed onto soil particles
- The timing of the adsorption is variable depending on cycling through other pathways
- Even once adsorbed onto soil particles, it may be de-adsorbed and re-enter the other pathways
- IT'S COMPLICATED!

Both dry and wet deposition. Dry deposition favours deposition onto plants — and subsequent cycling. Wet deposition affected by spatial pattern of rainfall

※Dry deposition: 乾性沈着
Wet deposition: 湿性沈着





However,

I'm not going to talk about the these complications.

I'm going to talk about the processes of sediment movement by water on hillslopes. These processes will determine how and why ¹³⁷Cs is able to move from hillslopes into river channels, but rates of sediment movement do not tell you rates of ¹³⁷Cs movement.

3 basic processes of sediment entrainment and transport (地面から剥離すること)

(運搬)

Entrainment and transport by raindrops (雨滴)

Entrainment by raindrops and transport by shallow flow

(薄層流)

Entrainment and transport by shallow flow

All require water at the surface — so start by examining rainfall and infiltration (浸透能)

Table 2.1 Efficiency of forms of water erosion

Form	Mass*	Typical velocity (m s ⁻¹)	Kinetic energy† (運動エネルギー)	Energy for erosion‡	Observed sediment transport§ (g cm ⁻¹)
Raindrops	<i>R</i>	6.0	18 <i>R</i>	$0.036R$ $7.5 \times 10^{-7}R$ $0.12R$	20
Overland flow	0.5 <i>R</i>	0.01	2.5 × 10 ⁻⁵ <i>R</i>		400
Rill flow	0.5 <i>R</i>	4¶	4 <i>R</i>		19,000

^{*} Assumes rainfall mass of R of which 50 per cent contributes to runoff.

(流出)

§ Totals observed in mid-Bedfordshire, England, on an 11° slope, on sandy soil, over 900 days. Most of the energy of raindrops contributes to soil particle detachment rather than transport.

¶ Estimated using the Manning equation of flow velocity for a rill, 0.3 m wide and 0.2 m deep, on a slope of 11°, at bankfull, assuming a roughness coefficient of 0.02.

[†] Based on $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$.

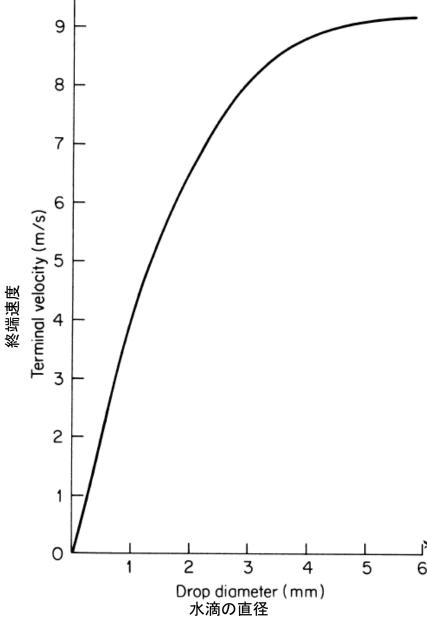


Figure 4.1. Terminal velocities of water droplets in stagnant air (after Gunn and 停滞空気 Kinzer, 1949)

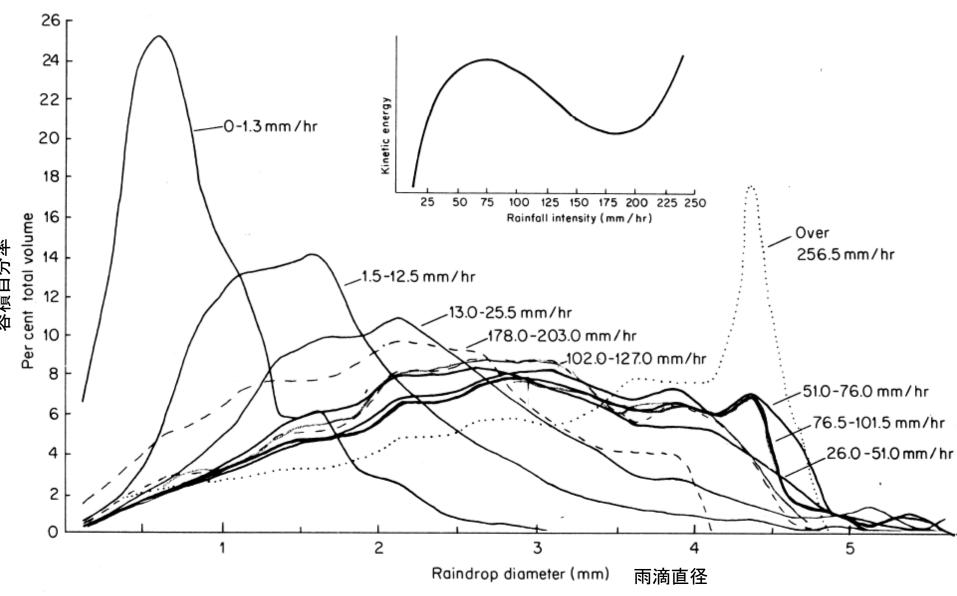
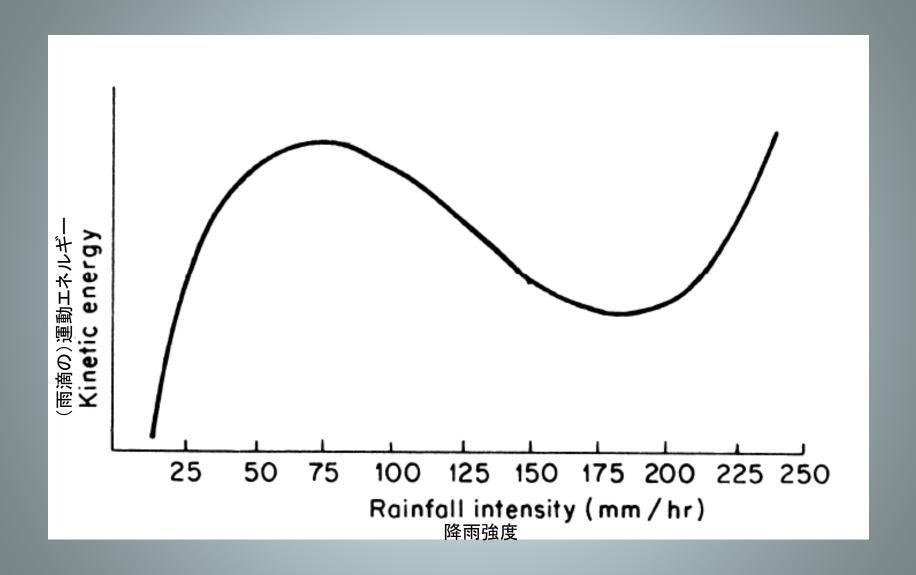


Figure 4.2. Raindrop size distribution and rainfall intensity (after Carter, et al., 1974) (降雨強度)



Basis of relationship between rainfall intensity and kinetic energy:

For individual raindrop:
$$KE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

For storm KE, sum over all raindrops. According to Marshall & Palmer (1948), for a storm of intensity i, the number N of drops of size D is given by

$$N(D) = N_0 e^{-\Lambda D}$$

where

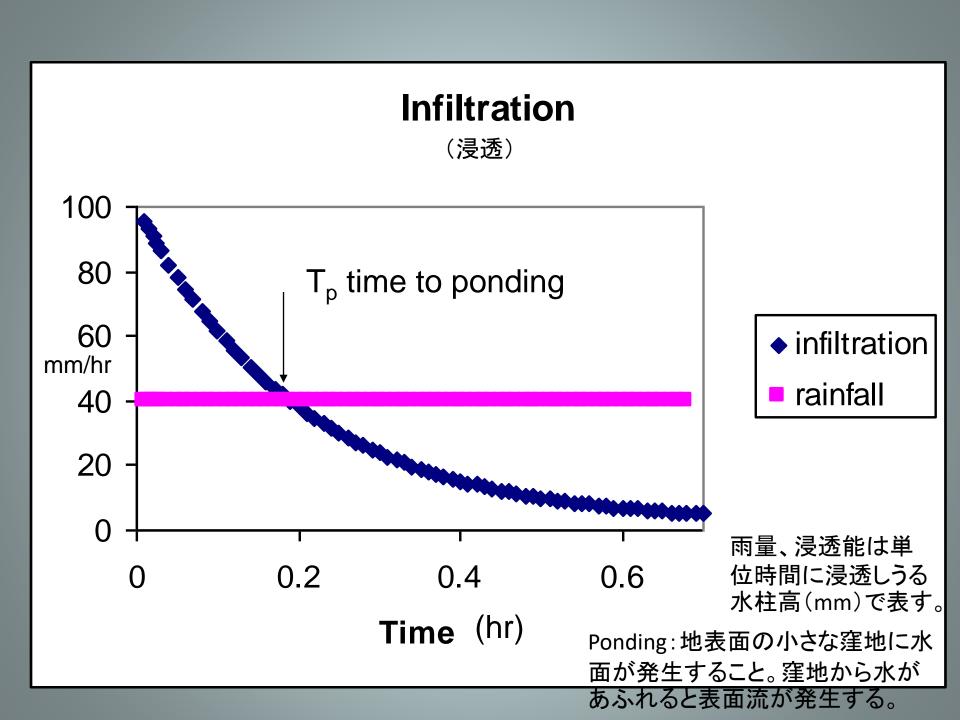
$$\Lambda = 4.1i^{-0.21}$$

Why does drop size distribution (and hence KE) vary with rainfall intensity?

a) Processes of rainfall generation – cyclonic/convective

(対流性)

b) Drop coalescence and break-up



Horton infiltration equation:
 (ホートン: 人の名前)

$$f = f_c + (f_0 - f_c)e^{-kt}$$

Where f is maximum instantaneous infiltration rate; f_c is the limiting steady infiltration rate, assumed to be a constant for a given soil type; f_0 is the initial infiltration rate at the start of the storm (t=0); k is a positive constant of permeability for a given soil; t is time

(透水性)

Other equations for infiltration give similar exponential decay rates

e.g. Philip (1957)

$$f = A + Bt^{-0.5}$$

Where $A \approx f_c$; and $B \approx f_0$