

The total release of xenon-133 from the Fukushima Dai-ichi nuclear power plant accident

Abstract

The accident at the Fukushima Dai-ichi nuclear power plant (FD-NPP) on 11 March 2011 released large amounts of radioactivity into the atmosphere. We estimate the total emission of the noble gas xenon-133 (^{133}Xe) using global atmospheric concentration measurements. We estimate the emissions using three different methods, one using a multi-box model, the other a dispersion model driven with two different meteorological input data sets. The three methods yield total ^{133}Xe releases of $16.7 \text{ EBq} \pm 1.9 \text{ EBq}$, $14.2 \pm 0.8 \text{ EBq}$ and $19.0 \pm 3.4 \text{ EBq}$, respectively. These values are substantially larger than the entire ^{133}Xe inventory of FD-NPP of 12.2 EBq derived from calculations of nuclear fuel burn-up. Additional release of ^{133}Xe due to the decay of iodine-133 (^{133}I), which can add another 2 EBq to the ^{133}Xe FD-NPP inventory, is required to explain the atmospheric observations. Two of our three methods indicate even higher emissions, but this may not be a robust finding given the uncertainties.

Keywords: nuclear accident, Fukushima, Xenon-133

1. Introduction

2 On 11 March 2011, an extraordinary magnitude 9.0 earthquake occurred
3 about 130 km off the Pacific coast of Japan's main island Honshu, followed
4 by a large tsunami (*USGS*, 2011). One of the consequences was a station
5 blackout at the Fukushima Dai-ichi nuclear power plant (FD-NPP), which de-
6 veloped into a disaster leaving four of the six FD-NPP units heavily damaged.
7 The result was a massive discharge of radionuclides. In the atmosphere, the
8 radionuclides were transported throughout the Northern Hemisphere (*Stohl*
9 *et al.*, 2012) and could be detected at many stations (e.g. *Bowyer et al.*,
10 2011).

11 The total amount of radioactivity released into the atmosphere is still

12 uncertain. It can be estimated based on calculations of the radionuclide
13 content of the nuclear reactors combined with accident simulations, or using
14 ambient atmospheric monitoring data together with some sort of inverse
15 modeling. Japanese authorities used both approaches and provided estimates
16 for many radionuclides (*NERH*, 2011).

17 Of all the radionuclide emissions, the radioactive noble gas releases can
18 be quantified most accurately, since it is almost certain that the entire noble
19 gas inventory of the heavily damaged reactor units 1-3 was set free into the
20 atmosphere. This was also assumed by the Japanese authorities (*NERH*,
21 2011) who estimated a release of 12.2 EBq of ^{133}Xe , the most important
22 radioactive noble gas with a half-life of 5.25 days. Surprisingly, using mea-
23 sured atmospheric concentrations at many stations in the Northern Hemi-
24 sphere (NH) together with inverse modeling, *Stohl et al.* (2011) obtained a
25 much higher release of 16.7 (13.4-20.0) EBq ^{133}Xe . In a revision of their
26 discussion paper, more accurate decay corrections for the measurement data
27 resulted in a slightly reduced estimate of 15.3 (12.2-18.3) EBq ^{133}Xe (*Stohl*
28 *et al.*, 2012), but this is still a substantially higher value than the calculated
29 ^{133}Xe inventory. This discrepancy has prompted a discussion with nuclear
30 engineers whether such a high ^{133}Xe release is possible at all, given that the
31 ^{133}Xe inventory is thought to be known with high accuracy (*Di Giuli et al.*,
32 2011). A partial explanation was given by *Seibert* (2011): The decay of
33 ^{133}I (half-life of 20.8 h), another radionuclide present in the reactor cores,
34 into ^{133}Xe effectively adds about 16.5% to the ^{133}Xe inventory of FD-NPP.
35 This would increase the fuel burn-up estimates of *NERH* (2011) to 14.2 EBq
36 ^{133}Xe . Assuming that all the ^{133}Xe produced from ^{133}I decay is released into
37 the atmosphere, this value is consistent, within error bounds, with the revised
38 inverse modeling result of 15.3 (12.2-18.3) EBq ^{133}Xe by *Stohl et al.* (2012).
39 However, based on the mean value, the discrepancy is not fully resolved, and
40 this motivated us to use independent methods to calculate the total ^{133}Xe
41 release.

42 In this study, we take advantage of the low minimum detectable activity
43 concentration in ambient ^{133}Xe concentration measurements, which allowed
44 quantification of the FD-NPP-related concentrations at all stations in the NH
45 over a period of three months, despite the short half-life of ^{133}Xe of 5.25 days.
46 Since the emissions become relatively well mixed in the atmosphere after
47 a few weeks, we can use a very simple multi-box model to estimate the
48 atmospheric ^{133}Xe inventory.

49 2. Measurements of Xe-133

50 To verify compliance with the Comprehensive Nuclear-Test-Ban Treaty
51 (CTBT), a global international monitoring system is currently being built
52 up, which includes measurements of several radioactive isotopes of the no-
53 ble gas xenon (*Wernsberger and Schlosser, 2004; Saey and de Geer, 2005*).
54 Currently, up to 25 stations are delivering noble gas data to the Preparatory
55 Commission for the CTBT Organization (CTBTO). We have used data from
56 all stations in the NH and Tropics with good data availability and without
57 major influence from local sources, as shown in Fig. 1. The collection period
58 of the xenon samples is 12 or 24 hours, depending on the station. The isotope
59 ^{133}Xe is measured with an accuracy of about 0.1 mBq m^{-3} .

60 Even without the FD-NPP emissions, observed levels of ^{133}Xe in the at-
61 mosphere are highly variable due to small releases from medical isotope pro-
62 duction facilities and nuclear power plants. The CTBTO network records
63 ^{133}Xe “pollution episodes” regularly, especially at stations downwind of the
64 known sources of radioxenon (*Wotawa et al., 2010*). This known background
65 is on the order of some mBq m^{-3} and was determined here by averaging
66 all measured concentrations for each station for the period 1 January till 11
67 March 2011.

68 Figure 2 shows three examples of the ^{133}Xe concentrations measured at
69 Yellowknife, Ashland and Darwin. At Yellowknife (Fig. 2, top), the concen-
70 trations (red squares) reach a peak of some 2 Bq m^{-3} about two weeks after
71 the Japanese earthquake and tsunami. After that peak, the measured concen-
72 tration decline follows almost exactly the 5 d half-life exponential radioactive
73 decay of ^{133}Xe (which would appear as a linear graph in the logarithmic plot).
74 The measured values return to the detection limit as late as early June. The
75 ^{133}Xe background at Yellowknife is very low and, thus, the enhancements
76 over the background, denoted as $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}$ in the following (blue plus signs),
77 are nearly identical to the observed values. Only in late May and early June
78 a small effect of the background subtraction can be seen, when $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}$ values
79 are slightly lower than ^{133}Xe values. Assuming that the ^{133}Xe enhancements
80 over the background are entirely due to the emissions from FD-NPP, we can
81 correct them for the radioactive decay since the time of the earthquake. The
82 corrected values, $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_c$ (black crosses), increase until early April. After
83 that, $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_c$ values show little variability but a slow decline by less than a
84 factor of two until early June. Three points are remarkable: 1) The lack of
85 variability in $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_c$ after early April suggests that the FD-NPP ^{133}Xe emis-

86 sions were nearly uniformly mixed in the midlatitude troposphere. 2) The
87 slow decline suggests a leak of ^{133}Xe from the midlatitudes into the Tropics
88 and the Southern Hemisphere (SH) and possibly also into the stratosphere.
89 It is also possible that vertical mixing in the troposphere was not complete
90 in early April. 3) Substantial new ^{133}Xe emissions from FD-NPP in April
91 or May can be ruled out, since, depending on the emission time, even emis-
92 sions on the order of about 0.1-1% of the emissions that had occurred during
93 the first week after the earthquake (*Stohl et al.*, 2012), would be clearly de-
94 tectable. This finding is relevant on the background of speculations about a
95 possible recriticality in the damaged reactors.

96 At Ashland (Fig. 2, middle), the ^{133}Xe behavior is similar to Yellowknife,
97 but this site encounters more regional ^{133}Xe pollution events, which are in-
98 flated by the decay correction and add noise to the FD-NPP signal in late
99 May and early June. Subtraction of the background helps to avoid a system-
100 atic increase of $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_c$ from late May.

101 At Darwin in the SH (Fig. 2, bottom), the signal from FD-NPP is rel-
102 atively weak compared to the NH sites. Air masses containing FD-NPP
103 emissions arrived in late March and early April but ^{133}Xe concentrations
104 declined back towards the detection limit in May. The small rise in ^{133}Xe
105 concentrations in June is likely caused partly by other sources than FD-NPP.

106 Summarizing these and the other observations, we find that the FD-NPP
107 $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_c$ emission pulse is observable at all NH stations until at least late May.
108 The small variability from about 10 April to 15 May at all stations suggests
109 that the plume at that time was already well-mixed in the troposphere in
110 broad zonal bands. These findings are consistent with current understanding
111 of the time scales of intercontinental pollution transport in the middle lati-
112 tudes. After 25-30 days in the atmosphere, an emission pulse from East Asia
113 is typically mixed quite homogeneously both zonally as well as vertically in
114 the troposphere (see Figs. 2-4 in *Stohl et al.*, 2002). Mixing into the Tropics
115 and the SH results in a slow decrease of $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_c$ values in the NH and the
116 arrival of $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_c$ signals at Panama and Darwin.

117 Figure 3 shows $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_c$ at the various stations averaged over four 20-day
118 periods. The latitudinal variability is strongest for the first interval when
119 the emitted ^{133}Xe was not yet well mixed in the troposphere, and for the last
120 interval when measured concentrations return to their background levels and
121 the inflation by the decay correction of pollution events from regular nuclear
122 industry sources becomes important.

123 3. A simple multi-box model

124 The findings of section 2 suggest that it is possible to estimate the total
125 ^{133}Xe release by inventorying the ^{133}Xe activity in the atmosphere using the
126 CTBTO measurement data. If we assume that measured $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_c$ concen-
127 trations at the ground are representative for the depth of the tropospheric
128 column and for the latitude band a certain station is located in, the total
129 release R of ^{133}Xe from FD-NPP (decay-corrected to the time of the earth-
130 quake) follows from

$$R = \sum_{i=1}^N A_i \times H_i \times \Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_{c,i} \quad (1)$$

131 where N is the number of stations (latitude bands) used, A_i the area of
132 latitude band i , H_i its tropospheric scale height, and $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_{c,i}$ the decay-
133 corrected enhancement over the background at station i , averaged over a
134 suitable time interval. Using meteorological analysis data from the Global
135 Forecast System (GFS) model of the National Centers for Environmental
136 Prediction (NCEP), monthly mean tropospheric scale heights were obtained
137 by dividing the air column density up to the last pressure level below the
138 tropopause height with the surface density. Northern and southern bound-
139 aries of our latitude bands are located at mid-points between station latitudes
140 and at 20° S and 90° N. The results are not sensitive to changes of the south-
141 ern boundary, since the measured concentrations in the Tropics remain very
142 low until the end of May (see Fig. 2).

143 Figure 4 shows values of R for 16 five-day intervals. Each value is a
144 largely independent estimate of the FD-NPP emissions, however, with dif-
145 ferent quality. During the first three intervals, the plume is not yet well
146 dispersed and measurements at all stations are still highly variable. The in-
147 crease of the inventory estimate during that period is due to a large fraction of
148 the emissions initially escaping detection by the measurement network. The
149 last three estimates are also quite variable due to the inflation of noise by the
150 decay correction. After 15 June, release estimates become entirely unrealistic
151 (not shown). Estimates using the central ten 5-day intervals show relatively
152 little variability, suggesting that the method works best during that period.
153 The overall negative trend during that period can be explained by leakage
154 of ^{133}Xe to areas south of our southernmost station as well as mixing into
155 the tropopause region and the stratosphere. This would mean that values in

156 late May underestimate the total atmospheric $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_c$ inventory. It is also
 157 possible that ^{133}Xe is not yet well mixed vertically in early April and the first
 158 few estimates are too high but it is not certain that surface concentrations
 159 should be systematically higher than those aloft, given the initial lifting of
 160 the plume (*Stohl et al.*, 2012) and the climatological transport characteristics
 161 of surface emissions from Asia (*Stohl et al.*, 2002). For the 45 d period from
 162 11 April to 25 May, we obtain an average $R = 16.7$ EBq with a standard
 163 deviation of 1.9 EBq.

164 4. Dispersion model calculations

165 We performed simulations of the ^{133}Xe dispersion from FD-NPP with the
 166 Lagrangian particle dispersion model FLEXPART (*Stohl et al.*, 2005) using
 167 the detailed time-varying source term with a total emission of 16.7 EBq ^{133}Xe
 168 determined by *Stohl et al.* (2011). This source term contains ^{133}Xe releases
 169 primarily from 11-15 March, only minor emissions were identified after 16
 170 March. Two alternative calculations using meteorological input data from
 171 ECMWF (European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts) and GFS
 172 were performed. Details of the simulations, extended here until 15 June 2011,
 173 are given in *Stohl et al.* (2011).

174 From the model results and the CTBTO measurement data, we can esti-
 175 mate R as

$$R = R_s \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_{c,i}}{\sum_{i=1}^N {}^{133}\text{Xe}_{s,i}} \quad (2)$$

176 where R_s is the total ^{133}Xe release used in the model simulation (16.7 EBq)
 177 and ${}^{133}\text{Xe}_{s,i}$ is the simulated decay-corrected ^{133}Xe concentration at station i .
 178 This means that we scale the original source term to best fit our observations,
 179 leaving its temporal shape unmodified. Compared to the simple box model,
 180 this approach, within the error bounds of the simulation, properly considers
 181 effects such as loss into the SH and the stratosphere.

182 The results, again averaged over 5-day intervals, are shown in Fig. 4.
 183 Using model results based on ECMWF data, the release estimates until early
 184 May are slightly lower than but well correlated with those obtained from
 185 the purely observation-based multi-box model. From 18 May, the ECMWF
 186 estimates become highly variable. Using the GFS data, the release estimates
 187 are continuously lower than the multi-box model but they are remarkably
 188 stable from mid-April to end of May. If we again average over the period 11

189 April to 25 May, we obtain total releases of 14.2 ± 0.8 and 19.0 ± 3.4 EBq for
190 the calculations using GFS and ECMWF meteorological data, respectively.
191 The results are surprisingly different, mainly due to stronger vertical lifting
192 of the emissions in the ECMWF-driven simulation compared to the GFS-
193 driven simulation. This was already seen during the first 1-2 weeks after the
194 earthquake, with the GFS-driven simulation appearing more realistic (*Stohl*
195 *et al.*, 2012). Thus, the lower total ^{133}Xe release derived using the GFS data
196 are likely to be a better estimate than the higher value derived using the
197 ECMWF data.

198 5. Discussion and conclusions

199 Using the observation-based multi-box model, and the comparison of dis-
200 persion model results driven with GFS and ECMWF meteorological data
201 with observation data, we have obtained total ^{133}Xe releases from FD-NPP of
202 16.7 ± 1.9 EBq, 14.2 ± 0.8 EBq and 19.0 ± 3.4 EBq, respectively. Error bounds
203 are the standard deviations from independent estimates based on nine sub-
204 sequent 5-day periods. These values compare well to the inverse-modeling
205 estimate by *Stohl et al.* (2012) of 15.3 ± 3.1 EBq but it is difficult to say which
206 estimate is most reliable.

207 All three of our estimates are higher than the calculated ^{133}Xe inventory
208 of FD-NPP of 12.2 EBq (*NERH*, 2011), suggesting that either the inventory
209 estimate is too low, or an additional source of ^{133}Xe is required. Adding
210 the ^{133}Xe produced from the decay of ^{133}I , increases the effective FD-NPP
211 ^{133}Xe inventory to 14.2 EBq ^{133}Xe , which corresponds to the lowest of our
212 estimates. Our other two estimates and the result of *Stohl et al.* (2012) are,
213 however, larger.

214 The findings of our study corroborate that the whole ^{133}Xe inventory of
215 FD-NPP must have been released into the atmosphere. Furthermore, all
216 the additional ^{133}Xe produced by the decay of ^{133}I must have been released
217 as well. It seems that so far this has not been taken into account in other
218 release estimates, except our own paper by *Stohl et al.* (2012). Our results
219 provide some indication that even more ^{133}Xe might have been released, as
220 two of our estimates and the result of *Stohl et al.* (2012) are higher than what
221 can be explained by the combined inventories of ^{133}Xe and ^{133}I . Given the
222 uncertainties of and differences between our estimates, this is not a robust
223 finding, however. Nevertheless, one may wish to explore the possibility that
224 additional ^{133}Xe sources either at FD-NPP or at other nuclear power plants

225 in Japan where the earthquake has triggered emergency shutdown. Another
226 possibility is that the ^{133}Xe inventory estimates for FD-NPP are too low.

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231 SOGG-EA project.

Figure 1: Figure 1: Map showing the locations of stations used in this study. The location of FD-NPP is marked with a black rectangle.

Figure 2: Figure 2: Time series of observed ^{133}Xe concentrations at Yellowknife (top), Ashland (middle) and Darwin (bottom). Shown are the observed concentrations of ^{133}Xe (red squares), the observed concentrations with background subtracted $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}$ (blue plusses), and the decay-corrected enhancements over the background $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_c$ (black crosses). Measurements below the detection limit have been set to a constant value of 0.1 mBq m^{-3} for displaying purposes.

Figure 3: Figure 3: Decay-corrected enhancements over the background, $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}_c$ measured at the surface stations as a function of latitude and averaged over four 20-day intervals (dates in figure legend refer to interval mid-points).

Figure 4: Figure 4: Estimates of total $\Delta^{133}\text{Xe}$ emissions from FD-NPP corrected to the time of the earthquake using all measurement data averaged over five-day intervals (dates refer to interval mid-points) as a function of time. Calculations are based on a box model using tropospheric scale heights (black line), and comparisons with dispersion model simulations driven with ECMWF (red line) and GFS (blue line) meteorological data.

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