

**Features of ecological half-lives of air dose rate reduction in Fukushima clarified by
least absolute shrinkage and selection operator regression analysis**

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Abstract

The two-component model with a fast-decay and a slow-decay component has been widely used to approximate the decreasing trend of air dose rates in contaminated areas. The adequacy of the two-component model is yet to be thoroughly validated. This study analyzed many car-borne survey data obtained after the Fukushima Daiichi Nuclear Power Plant accident from 2011 to 2016 using the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator regression with a high degree-of-freedom model to investigate the adequacy of the two-component model and the profiles of ecological half-lives. The results show that the two-component model can approximate the decreasing trend of air dose rates in the Fukushima area well in most cases. However, in approximately 20% of the cases, the one-component model can approximate the trend better. The fast-decay component in the two-component model has a sharp ecological half-life peak at less than 1 y, with a frequency distribution peaking at 0.3–0.4 y. However, in approximately half of the cases, the slow-decay component has a broad half-life peak with a frequency distribution covering several years to over 50 y. The reduction speed of the air dose rate was fast in the order of urban areas, paddy fields, croplands, deciduous forests, and evergreen forests and became slow as the initial air dose rate increased, which is explained by the weight given for the fast-decay component rather than the value of ecological half-life.

Keywords: Fukushima accident, air dose rate, car-borne survey, LASSO regression analysis, two-component model, ecological half-life

1. Introduction

The Fukushima Daiichi Nuclear Power Plant accident (Fukushima accident) in 2011 caused the deposition of large amount of released anthropogenic radionuclides over vast areas in Japan, significantly increasing environmental radiation levels (IAEA 2015). The radiation levels in the areas affected by the Fukushima accident have decreased with elapsed time, whereas the radiation levels in some areas are expected to remain high for a long time because of the long half-lives of radioactive cesium, mostly ^{137}Cs . Understanding the decreasing trend of radiation levels is essential for taking optimum measures for radiation protection, environmental remediation, social restoration, and future accident preparation.

After the Fukushima accident, many organizations performed numerous environmental monitoring activities, and an enormous amount of monitoring data has been accumulated (Saito and Onda, 2015; Sanada et al., 2014; Fukushima Prefecture, 2024; MAFF, 2014). The monitoring activities initiated by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology and inherited by the Nuclear Regulatory Authority have provided critical monitoring data (Saito and Onda, 2015) because the environmental monitoring was conducted systematically using reliable monitoring methods. The obtained data are publicly available through the specified database (JAEA, 2024; Seki, 2021).

Multiple researchers have analyzed the decreasing trend of ambient dose equivalent rates (air dose rates) in terms of ecological half-lives (Gale et al., 1964; Kinase et al., 2014, 2017; Andoh et al., 2018a, 2018b; Sanada et al., 2018; Wainwright et al., 2018). The ecological half-lives should indicate the velocity of air dose-rate reduction according to radiocesium migration and not include the dose reduction of physical decay. In many cases, the two-component model was employed when determining the ecological half-lives, assuming that

the air dose rate will decrease according to two exponential functions with short and long ecological half-lives.

The analyses after the Fukushima accident support the effectiveness of the two-component model. The decreasing tendency is frequently well-fitted using two exponential functions for different datasets. Most studies determined the short half-life to be less than one year, whereas the long half-life varied widely from several years to several tens of years, as summarized by Saito et al. (2019). It still needs to be thoroughly established if the two-component model best fits the observed data. Therefore, it is worth examining how many components are most suitable to fit the time series of monitoring data obtained after the Fukushima accident and how the ecological half-life profile changes according to land use and dose rate.

The least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) regression analysis (Tibshirani, 2011; Muthukrishnan and Rohini, 2016) with a model comprising many exponential functions with different ecological half-lives was employed to investigate how many components are most suitable for modeling the observed air dose rate trend. In the general regression for observed data with uncertainties, too many parameters result in overfitting, where the regression curve follows the fluctuated data excessively. LASSO analysis avoids overfitting by adding an L1 regulation term to the loss function. This method can determine the optimal number of basis functions and the parameters.

The purpose of this study was to examine the optimal number of components in the trend model for approximating the temporal change of air dose rates observed after the Fukushima accident and to clarify the characteristics of ecological half-lives. Therefore, LASSO regression analysis was applied to big car-borne survey data obtained after the Fukushima accident (Andoh et al., 2015; 2018b).

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Air dose rate data

The air dose rate data for the LASSO analysis were required to satisfy several fundamental conditions. The measurements must have started in the early phase after the accident. The data must have been obtained regularly with a specific frequency to follow the temporal trend appropriately. The measurements needed to have been performed over wide areas covering diverse conditions, such as different land uses, geological regions, and air dose rate levels, resulting in sufficient air dose rate data suitable for statistical analysis. Furthermore, the reliability and accuracy of the measurements are essential.

Considering these requirements, the car-borne surveys conducted in the Fukushima mapping project were selected (Andoh et al., 2015; 2018b). In the Fukushima mapping project, the air dose rates have been obtained using four methods. Among them, car-borne surveys have accumulated enormous air dose rate data. The first survey was launched in June 2011, and the surveys were performed twice a year. The car-borne surveys covered wide areas in eastern Japan (Ando et al., 2015; 2018b) employing the Kyoto University RAdiation MApping (KURAMA) system (Tanigaki et al., 2013; 2015).

The measurement performance of the system was evaluated using a standard irradiation facility for gamma energy, dose rate, and directional responses (Tsuda et al., 2015) to certify that the performance is subject to the Japan Industrial Standard (JIS) Z4333, the authorized standards for commercially available survey meters in Japan (JIS, 2006). Andoh et al. evaluated the overall uncertainty of the car-borne measurements using the KURAMA-II system as 15% (2015). In the mapping project, the car-borne survey data were averaged in a $100 \times 100 \text{ m}^2$ area to reduce the statistical fluctuation. Therefore, we analyzed the temporal change in the average air dose rate within each $100 \times 100 \text{ m}^2$ pixel.

The analysis used the car survey data obtained in Fukushima prefecture from the first (June 2011) to the thirteenth (December 2016) campaigns. The period of the analyzed data was selected so that it does not significantly differ from those in past studies to compare the obtained results in similar conditions. Table 1 outlines the 13 car-borne survey campaigns. The middle day of each campaign period was taken to be the measurement day for all data obtained. The uncertainty in the measurement day was a month at maximum, which is considered negligible compared to other uncertainties. The elapsed time after the accident was calculated from the midday of March 15, 2011. The following analysis was performed for the pixels with more than 11 data in the 13 campaigns. In other words, the pixel was not used in the analysis if the number of missing data within the 13 campaigns was zero or one. The total number of data to fulfill this condition was 21,341.

If a missing datum exists in a series of air dose rates, it is complemented using the random forest method (Breiman, 2001; Stekhoven and Bühlmann, 2012). The missing data can be estimated by learning from data at other locations where information is available or by learning from data at different time points at the same location. In this case, the former approach was more appropriate. Therefore, using the model based on learning from other locations, we applied random forest to the reference data from multiple locations and estimated the missing values to create a complete dataset without any missing.

2.1 LASSO analysis

In the LASSO analysis, the decreasing tendency of observed air dose rates at each pixel was fitted using a linear combination model of an arbitrary number of exponential functions with different ecological half-lives, and the optimal parameters were determined. The following equation was employed for the fitting.

$$D(t) = c_0 + \frac{k \exp(-\lambda_{134}t) + \exp(-\lambda_{137}t)}{k+1} \sum_{i=1}^{N_e} c_i \exp(-\lambda_i t) \quad (1)$$

where

$D(t)$: the air dose rate at time t ($\mu\text{Sv/h}$),

k : the ratio of the air dose rate between ^{134}Cs and ^{137}Cs at $t = 0$,

λ_{134} and λ_{137} : the radioactive decay constants of ^{134}Cs and ^{137}Cs (y^{-1}), respectively,

N_e : the number of assumed basis functions,

$\exp(-\lambda_i t)$: the basis function,

λ_i : the attenuation constant depending on each ecological half-life (y^{-1}),

c_i : the coefficient of each basis function ($\mu\text{Sv/h}$).

In this study, N_e was 50, and the 50 exponential functions with different attenuation constants were used. Here, c_0 corresponds to the background radiation level of each location, and c_i was assumed never to be negative (nonnegative LASSO). The ecological half-life $t_{1/2}$ is related to the attenuation constant λ by $\ln 2 / t_{1/2} = \lambda$.

The optimal combination of c_i was determined so that the following objective function becomes minimum.

$$f(\mathbf{C}) = \frac{1}{N_t} \sum_{s=1}^{N_t} (D_m(t_s) - D(t_s))^2 + \alpha \|\mathbf{C}\|_1 \quad (2)$$

where

\mathbf{C} : the vector representation for c_1, \dots, c_{N_e} ,

N_t : the number of sequential data,

$D_m(t_s)$: the observed air dose rate at t_s ,

α : the L1 norm coefficient.

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147 N_t was 13. The L1 norm term added to the objective function prevents selecting excessive
148 exponential functions. The LASSO analysis results depend on the value of α ; the larger α
149 tends to select a smaller number of exponential functions. This study determined the α value
150 objectively using a cross-validation method.

151 The L1 norm coefficient, called the hyperparameter α in LASSO, can be optimized using
152 cross-validation. In the validation scheme, the input data are divided into k-fold groups, and
153 one of the groups is chosen and used as the test data. Then, LASSO is applied using the
154 remaining k-1 group as the training data. Since k-1 LASSO solutions can be obtained for each
155 α , the error evaluation is performed on the test data, and α can be optimized (Shi et al., 2023).
156 In this study, k was taken to be five.

157 The shortest and longest ecological half-lives were assumed to be 0.1 y and 50 y,
158 respectively, considering the results of past studies. Then, the ecological attenuation
159 coefficients λ_i were given to cover the tendencies of air dose rate attenuation evenly between
160 those for half-lives of 0.1 y and 50 y (Fig. 1). Table 2 lists the ecological half-lives
161 corresponding to these λ_i .

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163 3. Results and discussion

164 A set of c_i was determined for each of the targeted 21,341 pixels classified by land-use
165 categories according to the Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency's (JAXA's) data Ver. 14.2
166 (JAXA, 2014): water, urban, paddy, crop, grass, deciduous forest, evergreen forest, and bare
167 surface. The following discussion addresses the five dominant land-use categories of urban,
168 paddy, crop, deciduous forest, and evergreen forest because each has sufficient pixels to
169 analyze statistically.

Furthermore, the pixels whose initial air dose rates in June 2011 were greater than 0.2 $\mu\text{Sv/h}$ were selected. It was judged that the decreasing tendency of air dose rates due to radiocesium would be challenging to analyze properly for pixels with initial air dose rates less than 0.2 $\mu\text{Sv/h}$ because the radiation levels were comparable to the background air dose rates evaluated from car-borne survey data (Andoh, et al., 2017). Table 3 shows the number of pixels belonging to the five dominant categories. The total number of pixels analyzed after the selection due to the initial dose rate was 18,694.

Figure 2 shows some examples of the decreasing trend of air dose rates calculated by Equation 1), with the determined parameters and the observed air dose rates. It is recognized that the LASSO analysis likely reconstructed the decreasing tendency.

3.1 Model component features

The number of components adequately representing the decreasing trend of the air dose rate was examined based on the LASSO analysis results. Here, we established the following rule to count the component number. If nonzero c_i 's were determined sequentially, they were recognized as one component. For example, if nonzero values were given for c_{11} , c_{12} , and c_{13} , the series of these coefficients was counted to be one component. In this analysis, the 50 discrete ecological half-lives were prepared; then, if the actual ecological half-life exists between two prepared half-lives, it is natural that the c_i 's are determined for the two exponential functions with the half-lives existing on both sides of the actual half-life.

Furthermore, radiocesium migration in the real environment is complex, and it is inferred that some radiocesium groups have similar migration characteristics. These groups are difficult to analyze separately and cannot avoid classifying into the same component.

The number of components representing the trend was within three for all cases. Table 4 lists the proportion of the component numbers of the selected models for the five land-use

categories. The difference due to land use was insignificant. The proportion of the three-component model was less than 1% for any land-use category. In approximately 80% of cases, the two-component model was selected, and in approximately 20%, the one-component model. This result indicates that the two-component model, which has been employed widely, would be an appropriate approximation for representing the radiation level trend in most cases.

Next, we examined how many exponential functions constitute each component of the models. Figures 3 and 4 give the statistics on the number of exponential functions constituting the two-component and one-component models, respectively. The fast-decay component of the two-component model has a sharp peak in terms of ecological half-life; the cases where the number of exponential functions is one or two occupied more than 90% of the total cases, and those where the number is one to three is approximately 98%. Thus, a single value or a narrow half-width peak represented the ecological half-life of the fast-decay component.

The slow-decay component of the two-component model indicated different features. Approximately 50% of the slow-decay component was expressed by one exponential function, whereas the other 50% comprised plural exponential functions rather evenly distributed up to 20 functions. The former cases include the ecological half-life determined to be 50 y. In these cases, the actual half-life can have widths of more than 50 y. Therefore, most ecological half-lives of the slow-decay component have some widths.

For the one-component model, two or three exponential functions are most probable, and 80% of the one-component model has less than seven basis functions, whereas the rest have basis functions distributed up to 25 functions. The half-lives of the one-component model were more than 1 y, corresponding to the slow-decay component of the two-component model.

The reasons for the specific features described above are unclear and remain future challenges to be clarified. However, it is speculated that the targeted period of five years after the accident was long enough to determine the exact half-life of the fast-decay component, which is mostly smaller than one year. However, it is too short to determine the half-life of the slow-decay component, which covers wide periods up to several tens of years.

Another possibility would be that radiocesium deposited on artificial surfaces, such as roads, parking places, and the roofs and walls of houses, is removed shortly after deposition, leading to an apparent similar short half-life after deposition. However, radiocesium with long ecological half-lives might include those with different migration properties. Radiocesium deposited on the ground penetrates the ground gradually, leading to a steady dose rate reduction due to the increment in the gamma-ray shielding effect. A small portion of radiocesium migrates horizontally, resulting in a further reduction in air dose rates. Human activities, such as cultivation, accelerate radiocesium migration. These radiocesium movements could be represented by a half-life peak with a broad width.

3.2 Average profile of ecological half-lives

The characteristics of the average profiles of ecological half-lives were investigated by normalizing a set of c_1 to c_{50} to their sum because their absolute values change with the radiation level. We would like to evaluate the relative relations among the coefficients. Next, each coefficient was averaged over whole pixels belonging to the same land-use category where the initial air dose rates were more than $0.2 \mu\text{Sv/h}$.

Figure 5 shows the average profiles of normalized coefficients of basis functions with different ecological half-lives for five land-use categories. The profile has a clear peak below a half-life of 1 y, corresponding to the fast-decay component regardless of land use. Furthermore, the profile shows a low and wide hump over a wide half-life range from 1 to

more than 10 years, corresponding to the slow-decay component. The coefficient c_{50} , which corresponds to a half-life of 50 y, has a specific value, even though it is not indicated in the figure. The peak height for the fast-decay component differs according to land use: high for urban, low for evergreen forests, and in between for the others. However, the position and shape of the peak do not differ according to land use. The average normalized coefficient values were summed over half-life ranges of less than 1 y and more than 1 y (Table 5).

The difference in the summed values of the coefficients is related to the variations in the dose rate reduction tendency. Figure 6 shows the decreasing tendency of air dose rates during the two years after the accident for different land uses. The fundamental features concerning land-use dependency are similar to those found in previous studies on car-borne survey data (Kinase et al., 2017; Andoh et al., 2018b). The decrease in air dose rates is fast in the order of urban, crop, paddy, deciduous forest, and evergreen forest, which is in the same order as the summed values of the coefficients below a half-life of 1 y. Therefore, the speed of the air dose rate reduction in the early stage is related to the weight (summed coefficients) given to the exponential functions with ecological half-lives below 1 y but not to the average value of the ecological half-life indicated in Table 6.

The mobility of radiocesium in the environment has explained the difference in the dose rate reduction. Radiocesium deposited on artificial structures, such as paved roads, paved parking places, and the walls and roofs of houses, is removed and washed off quickly after deposition (Yoshimura et al., 2017), leading to a fast air dose rate reduction. However, radiocesium deposited in forests moves slowly within the forest system (Kato et al., 2018a; Takahashi, 2018), and the discharge rate from the forest system is very small (Funaki et al., 2018). Consequently, the dose rate reduction in forests is generally slow. The air dose rate in evergreen forests was slower than that in deciduous forests, coinciding with the direct observation of air dose rates in forests (Kato et al., 2018b).

Since car-borne surveys were performed on paved roads where deposited radiocesium is removed quickly, the survey data show a faster reduction tendency than those measured on undisturbed fields. However, gamma rays from the surrounding environments outside of roads are also detected in car-borne surveys. Therefore, car-borne survey data reflect the air dose rate reduction tendency depending on land use.

To clarify the dose rate dependency of air dose rate reduction, the profiles of ecological half-lives were classified according to the initial air dose rate ranges in June 2011: 1) 0.2–0.5 $\mu\text{Sv/h}$, 2) 0.5–1.0 $\mu\text{Sv/h}$, 3) 1.0–1.9 $\mu\text{Sv/h}$, and 4) more than 1.9 $\mu\text{Sv/h}$.

Figure 7 shows the average profiles of ecological half-lives classified by the four initial dose rate ranges for evergreen forest, paddy, and urban. The three typical land-use categories were selected to avoid confusion by plotting too much data. The weights given to the fast-decay component decrease with the increasing initial air dose rate. Consequently, the weights given to the slow-decay components increase. Concerning the slow-decay component in high dose rate ranges, especially more than 1.9 $\mu\text{Sv/h}$, a clear peak is observed around the ecological half-lives of several years.

Figure 8 shows the decreasing tendency of air dose rates classified by the initial dose rate ranges. The decreasing tendency becomes slow as the initial air dose rate increases. The air dose rate decrease is noticeably slow above 1.9 $\mu\text{Sv/h}$. This result can be explained by the weight proportions for the fast- and slow-decay components shown in Table 5. The larger the proportion for the fast-decay component, the faster the dose rate reduction. As the initial dose rate increases, the proportion of the fast-decay component weight decreases, resulting in a slower dose rate reduction. There were many human activities in the low-radiation areas even after the accident, whereas, in highly contaminated areas, inhabitant residence was restricted and human activities were scarce. Human activities including official and voluntary

decontamination tend to accelerate the air dose rate reduction (Saito et al., 2019), indicating why the initial air dose level has a connection with the air dose rate reduction.

The average ecological half-lives for fast-decay and slow-decay components do not change much (Table 6). The ecological half-life of 50 y was not included in the calculation of the average half-life for the slow-decay component because the exponential function represents an ecological half-life of 50 y and a wider range of ecological half-life of more than 50 y. Most average half-lives for the fast-decay component fall between 0.3 y and 0.4 y, regardless of the initial dose rate and land use. The average half-life for the slow-decay component decreases slightly with the increasing initial dose rate; nevertheless, most average half-lives exist between 5 y and 8 y.

4. Conclusions

A LASSO regression analysis applied to enormous car-borne survey data in Fukushima clarified the features of air dose rate reduction trends after a large-scale nuclear accident. The two-component model, which has been employed widely, approximated the decreasing trend of air dose rates adequately in most cases. However, in some cases, the one-component model can approximate the trend better. The fast-decay component of the two-component model has a sharp peak of ecological half-life, and the frequency distribution peaks at 0.3–0.4 y. However, about half of the slow-decay component has a wide half-life peak, expressed by plural exponential functions. The half-life of the slow-decay component covered a wide period from several years to several tens of years. The reduction speed of the air dose rate for a few years after the accident is deeply related to the weight given to the fast-decay component of the two-component model but not to the absolute value of the half-life. Air dose rates have decreased faster in the order of urban, paddy, crop, deciduous forest, and evergreen forest. The radiocesium migration properties in the environment can explain this

result. As the initial air dose rate increased, the reduction speed slowed. This study's results should provide basic information on modeling temporal changes in contamination conditions.

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Figure captions

Fig 1. Tendency of the air dose rate reduction for different ecological half-lives assumed in the basis functions.

Fig 2. Examples of the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) analysis results with the observed air dose rate.

Fig 3. The distribution of the number of basis functions for a) the fast-decay and b) the slow-decay components in the two-component model.

Fig 4. The distribution of the number of basis functions in the one-component model.

Fig 5. The average profile of ecological half-lives for five land-use categories for pixels with an initial air dose rate of more than $0.2 \mu\text{Sv/h}$.

Fig. 6. The difference in the decreasing tendency of air dose rates due to land use

Fig. 7. The average profile of ecological half-lives classified by the initial dose rate.

Fig. 8. The difference in the decreasing tendency of air dose rates due to the initial dose rate

470 **Table captions**

471

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473 selection operator (LASSO) analysis. The pixels with more than 11 data in the 13 campaigns
474 were selected for the analysis.

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476 **Table 2** Ecological half-lives assumed in the basis functions for the least absolute shrinkage
477 and selection operator (LASSO) analysis. The fifty half-lives were given between 0.1 y and
478 50 y corresponding to the ecological attenuation coefficients λ_i to cover the tendencies of air
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481 **Table 3** The number of pixels classified by land use and initial dose rate.

482

483 **Table 4** Proportion of the selected model in terms of the component number.

484

485 **Table 5** The sum of the average normalized coefficients of the basis functions for the periods
486 less than 1 y and more than 1 y.

487

488 **Table 6** The average ecological half-lives for the periods less than 1y and more than 1 y.

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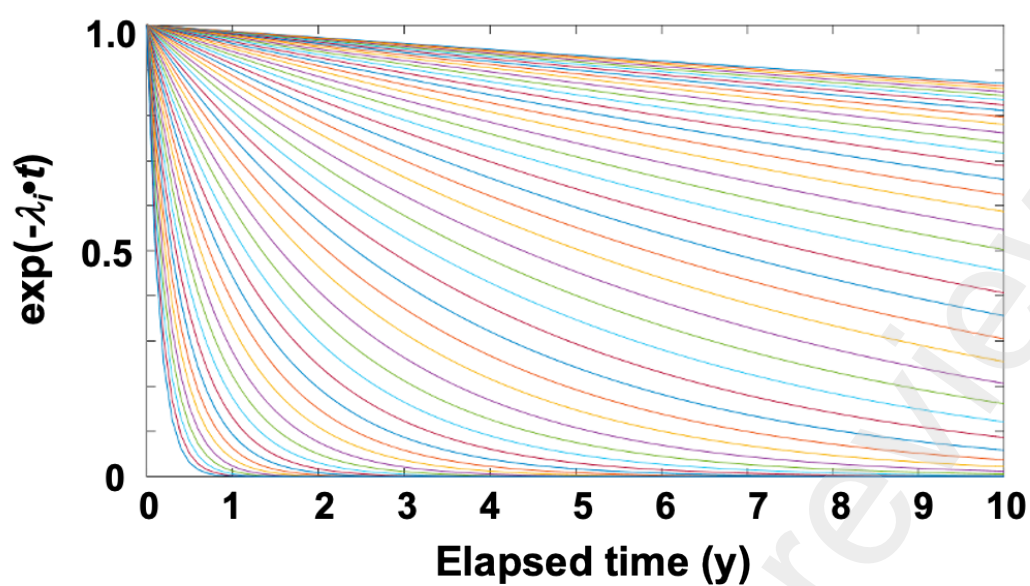


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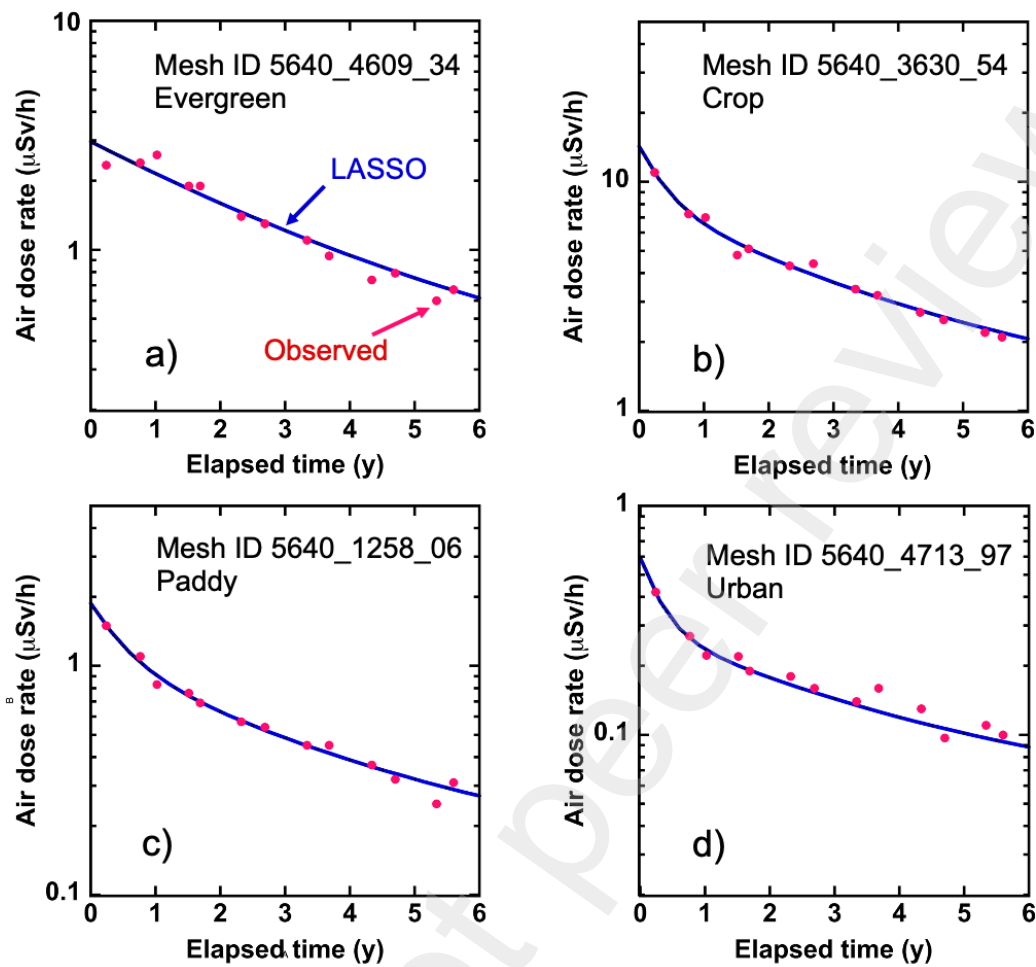


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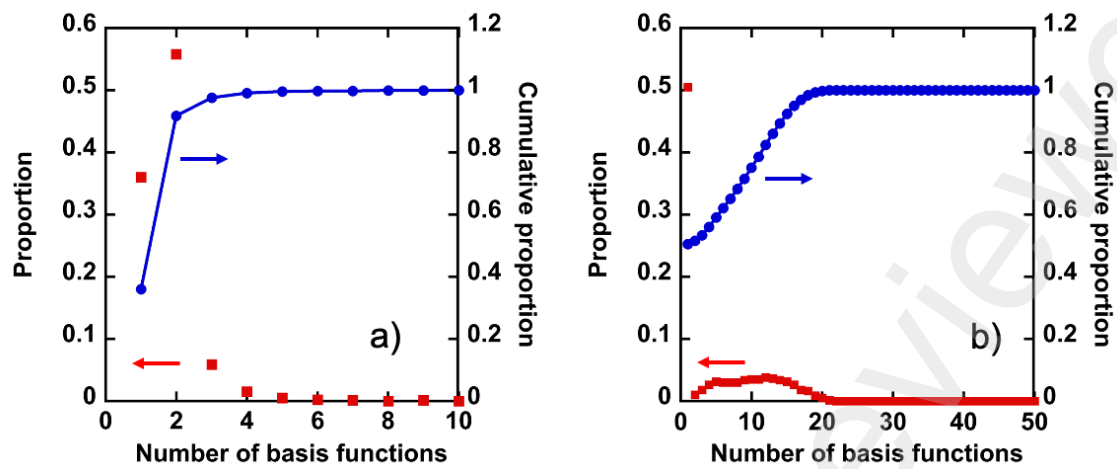


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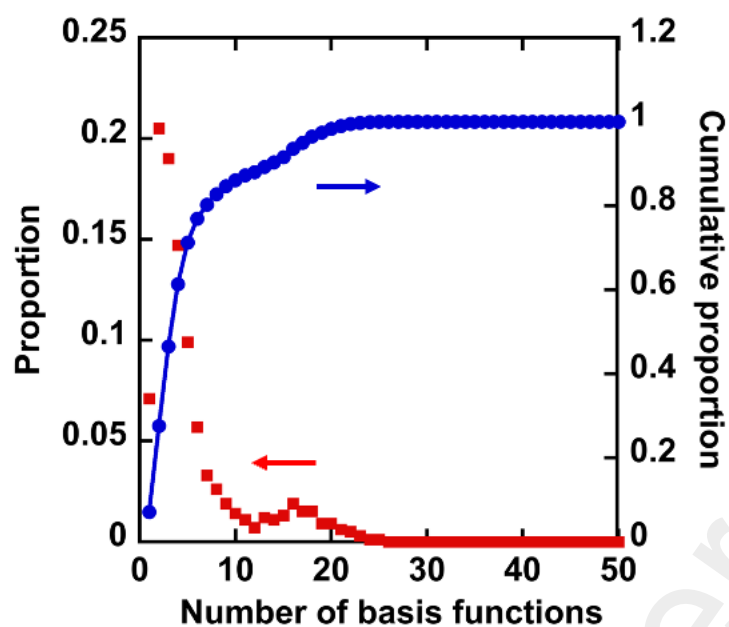


Fig. 4. The distribution of the number of basis functions in the one-component model.

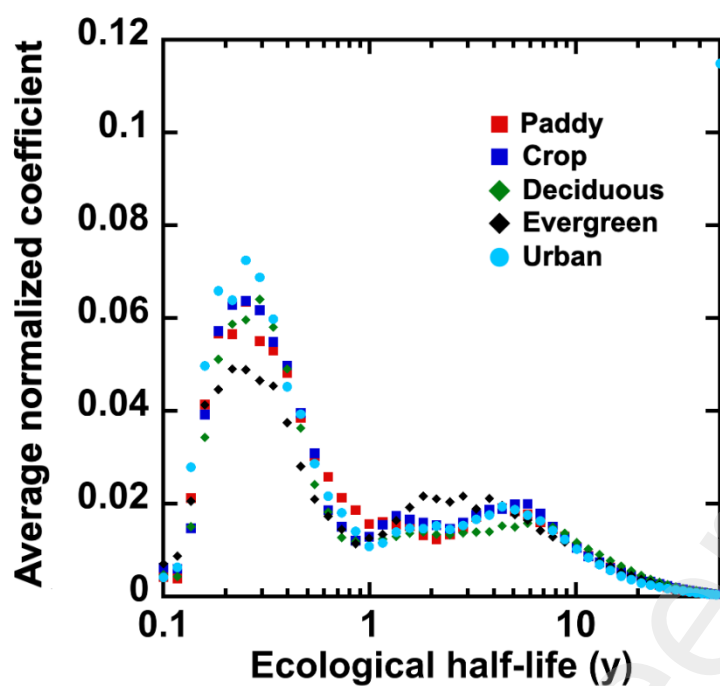


Fig. 5. The average profile of ecological half-lives for five land-use categories for pixels with the initial air dose rate of more than 0.2 mSv/h.

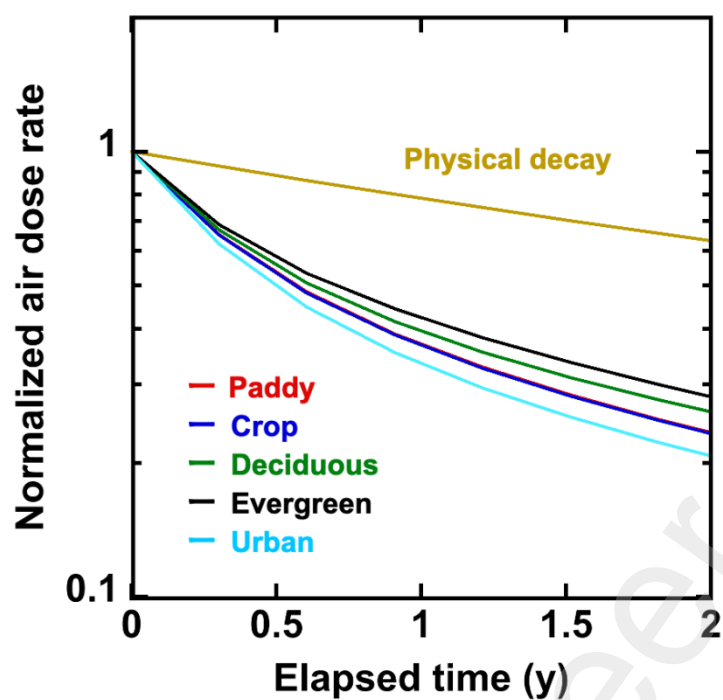


Fig. 6. The difference in the decreasing tendency of air dose rates due to land use.

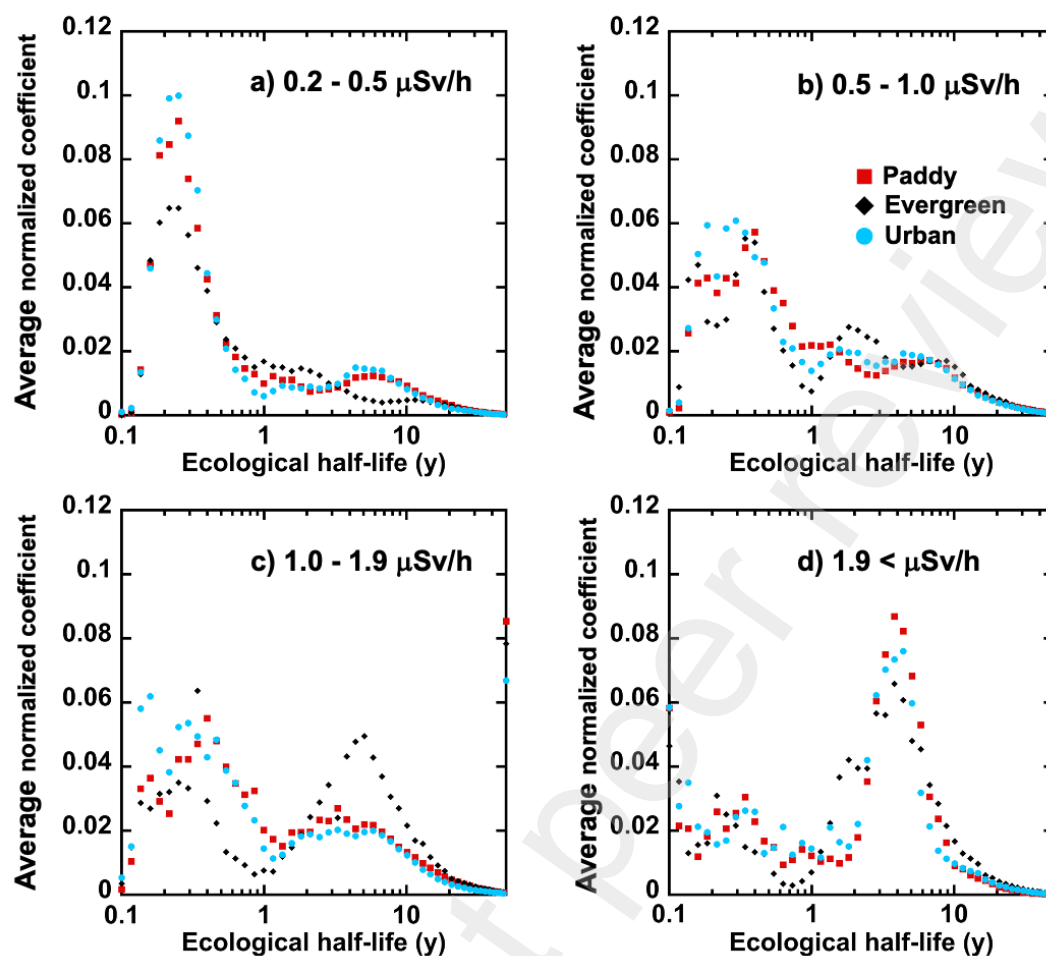


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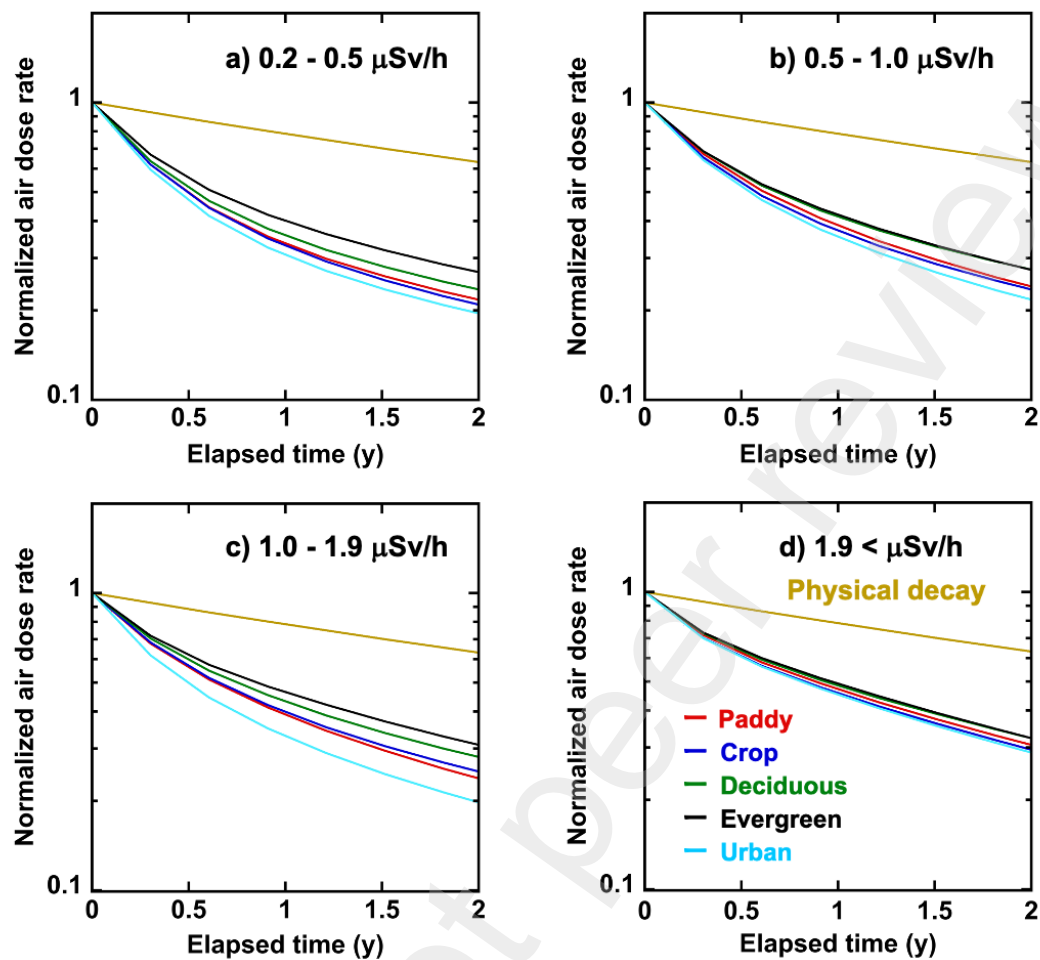


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Table 1

Information on the car-borne survey data used for the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) analysis. The pixels with more than 11 data in the 13 campaigns were selected for the analysis from these data.

Campaign No.	Duration (day/month/year)	Elapsed time after the accident (y)	Number of pixels
1	6/6/2011 - 13/6/ 2011	0.24	45,273
2	5/12/2011 - 28/12/2011	0.76	36,355
3	13/3/2012 - 30/3/2012	1.02	38,741
4	20/8/2012 - 12/10/2012	1.51	132,380
5	5/11/2012 - 10/12/2012	1.69	89,385
6	12/6/2013 - 8/8/2013	2.32	129,666
7	5/11/2013 - 12/12/2013	2.69	119,522
8	23/6/2014 - 8/8/2014	3.34	102,473
9	4/11/2014 - 5/12/2014	3.68	102,881
10	29/6/2015 - 4/8/2015	4.34	100,235
11	2/11/2015 - 18/12/2015	4.70	89,849
12	27/6/2016 - 5/8/2016	5.34	100,854
13	31/10/2016 - 16/12/2016	5.69	86,255

Table 2

Ecological half-lives assumed in the basis functions for the least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) analysis. The fifty half-lives were given between 0.1 y and 50 y corresponding to the ecological attenuation coefficients l_i to cover the tendencies of air dose rate attenuation evenly.

No.	Ecological half-life (y)									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0	0.10	0.12	0.14	0.16	0.18	0.22	0.25	0.29	0.34	0.40
10	0.46	0.54	0.63	0.73	0.85	0.99	1.15	1.34	1.56	1.81
20	2.11	2.44	2.83	3.28	3.80	4.39	5.07	5.84	6.71	7.70
30	8.82	10.1	11.5	13.0	14.7	16.5	18.5	20.7	23.0	25.4
40	27.9	30.4	33.0	35.6	38.2	40.8	43.3	45.6	47.9	50.0

Table 3

The number of pixels classified by land use and initial dose rate.

Land use	Number of pixels					Total
	Initial air dose rate (mSv/h)					
	0-0.2	0.2–05	0.5–1.0	1.0–1.9	1.9<	
Paddy	865	2,188	1,712	670	300	5,735
Crops	507	1,487	1,001	658	338	3,991
Deciduous forest	428	2,051	1,076	552	411	4,518
Evergreen forest	265	914	346	168	232	1,925
Urban	582	1,860	1,673	885	172	5,172
Total	2,647	8,500	5,808	2,933	1,453	21,341

Table 4

Proportion of the selected model in terms of the component number.

Land use	Proportion		
	Number of components		
	1	2	3
Paddy	0.21	0.78	0.006
Crops	0.18	0.81	0.007
Deciduous forest	0.17	0.82	0.006
Evergreen forest	0.24	0.75	0.004
Urban	0.19	0.81	0.005
Total	0.19	0.8	0.006

Table 5

The sum of the average normalized coefficients of the basis functions for the periods less than 1 y and more than 1 y.

Dose rate range (mSv/h)	Sum of normalized coefficients (-)									
	Paddy		Crop		Deciduous		Evergreen		Urban	
	< 1 y	1 y <	< 1 y	1 y <	< 1 y	1 y <	< 1 y	1 y <	< 1 y	1 y <
0.2 - 0.5	0.60	0.40	0.62	0.38	0.58	0.42	0.52	0.48	0.64	0.36
0.5 - 1.0	0.54	0.46	0.54	0.46	0.49	0.51	0.46	0.54	0.57	0.43
1.0 - 1.9	0.53	0.47	0.52	0.48	0.46	0.54	0.37	0.63	0.61	0.39
1.9 <	0.33	0.67	0.32	0.68	0.31	0.69	0.27	0.73	0.36	0.64

Table 6

The average ecological half-lives for the periods less than 1y and more than 1 y.

Dose rate range (mSv/h)	Average ecological half-live (y)									
	Paddy		Crops		Deciduous		Evergreen		Urban	
	< 1 y	1 - 50 y	< 1 y	1 - 50 y	< 1 y	1 - 50 y	< 1 y	1 - 50 y	< 1 y	1 - 50 y
0.2 - 0.5	0.32	7.4	0.34	6.7	0.33	7.2	0.35	6.6	0.30	7.0
0.5 - 1.0	0.40	7.1	0.34	7.4	0.35	8.9	0.35	6.9	0.36	6.7
1.0 - 1.9	0.42	6.9	0.39	8.0	0.38	8.4	0.32	7.1	0.36	6.6
1.9 <	0.32	5.1	0.26	4.8	0.29	6.7	0.26	5.4	0.33	5.0