

A random forest isoscape model of bioavailable Sr for South America: a focus on southern Brazil

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9

Abstract

11 In recent years, advances in machine learning have greatly improved the generation of maps showing
12 the geographic distribution of isotope ratios (isoscapes), which have become essential tools for
13 environmental, mobility and provenance studies in both modern and archaeological contexts. Among
14 the various isotopic systems employed, strontium (Sr) is particularly useful because its ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ratio
15 in the environment is largely controlled by the underlying geology through the composition of local
16 soils and rocks.

In this work, we present a new dataset of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios derived from $n = 233$ plant samples collected across southern Brazil, covering the states of Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do Sul (c.a. 370,000 km²). The measured ratios span from 0.70521 to 0.76039 and capture the bioavailable Sr isotope signatures over all major geological units in the region.

We combined these new data with an extensive compilation of published bioavailable Sr measurements from across South America (including plants, fauna, ancient human remains, shells, snails, lichens, water and soils) to construct three random forest Sr isoscapes using different subsets of the combined dataset at the regional and continental scales. The first model incorporates the entire dataset ('All' dataset, $n = 883$ sites), the second is based on plant+fauna+lichen+human ($n = 661$ sites) and the third is limited to plant+lichen samples ($n = 531$ sites). Among the three models, the full dataset model shows lower predictive power, while the plant+fauna+lichen+human and the plant+lichen models yield better results, with similar RMSE (0.0049 and 0.0054) and R^2 values (ca. 0.76). Compared to existing Sr isoscapes of South America, our models significantly enhance both spatial coverage and resolution of bioavailable Sr predictions, particularly in southern Brazil.

The new bioavailable Sr isotope dataset from Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do Sul states is available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17988601> (Scaggion et al., 2025a) and the compiled literature dataset is reported as supplementary material.

1 Introduction

Maps of isotopic variability through the landscape are powerful tools used for answering questions related to migration, trade, diet, provenance, forensic investigations, and environmental changes in both modern and ancient contexts (e.g. Hobson, 1999; Benson et al., 2006; Makarewicz and Sealy, 2015; Bataille et al., 2018, 2020; Hoogerwerff et al., 2019; Lugli et al., 2022; Gigante et al., 2023; Armaroli et al., 2024, Asrat et al., 2025; Dosseto et al., 2025; Scaggion et al., 2025b).

Among the various isotopic systems, strontium (Sr) isotopes play a central role in geotracing and provenance studies of biological materials because biota obtains Sr primarily from soils derived through weathering and disaggregation of local rocks. As a result, the so-called bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ act as a proxy for the underlying geology of a region.

Radiogenic ^{87}Sr originates by β -decay of rubidium-87 (^{87}Rb), while ^{86}Sr is stable. Consequently, the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio in rocks and minerals changes depending on their ^{87}Rb content, their ages and geological history providing characteristic isotopic signatures for different geological domains (Faure and Mensing, 2005; Dickin, 2018). Through alteration and pedogenetic processes, Sr ions are leached from rocks into soils and waters, where they mix with other Sr pools derived from rainfall, snow, groundwater, atmospheric deposition or anthropic activities (Vitousek et al., 1999; Voerkelius et al.,

2010). These processes can shift the local Sr isotopic signature away from the original bedrock. From soil and water, Sr enters the local ecosystem (Bullen et al., 1996; Capo et al., 1998). This bioavailable Sr is passively absorbed by plant roots and transported to leaves, where Sr^{2+} substitutes for calcium²⁺ (Ca) in metabolic processes (Poszwa, 2000; White and Broadley, 2003). From plants and water, the bioavailable Sr enters the local trophic chain. In vertebrates, Sr replaces Ca in the crystalline structure of carbonated-hydroxyapatite (Pors Nielsen, 2004; Bentley, 2006), the main inorganic constituent of bones and teeth (Weiner and Wagner, 1998; Hughes and Rakovan, 2002). Thus, the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios of bone and dental tissues reflect those of water, plants and animals consumed, which, in turn, mirror the bioavailable isotopic signature of the environment (Schwarcz et al., 2010; Crowley et al., 2017). Although isotopic fractionation can occur along the trophic chain and through metabolic processes, its enrichment is generally minimal (Lahtinen et al., 2020) and can be effectively corrected using standard normalization protocols during mass spectrometry analysis (Fietzke and Eisenhaure, 2006; Frei and Frei, 2011; Spies et al., 2025). For this reason, the isotopic composition of low-mobility fauna and plants represents a valuable, though not exclusive, *proxy* for estimating the local bioavailable Sr isotope signatures (Spies et al., 2025). However, deciphering environmental heterogeneity and trophic complexity is not always straightforward; therefore, integrating multiple isotopic and environmental datasets is crucial for constructing robust isoscapes.

Over the last decade, advances in spatial modelling and machine learning techniques such as kriging and random forest algorithms (e.g. Bataille et al., 2018, 2020; Hoogerwerff et al., 2019; Gigante et al., 2023; Armaroli et al., 2024; Scaggion et al., 2025b; Spies et al., 2025), have significantly increased the predictive potential of isoscapes models, by linking spatial isotopic variability to environmental predictors (Bataille et al., 2020). One of the main challenges, however, remains the acquisition of spatially representative and geologically diverse samples, making well designed sampling strategies crucial for developing accurate predictive models.

Brazil represents a particularly interesting case study for Sr isoscape research, due to its geological diversity and rich archaeological and ecological history. In southern Brazil, the states of the Santa Catarina (SC) and Rio Grande do Sul (RGS) encompass various geological formations, from ancient Precambrian crystalline rocks to younger sedimentary basins, which provide a good opportunity to test the spatial resolution, robustness, and applicability of Sr isoscapes. Despite the relevance of Brazil for provenance studies in archaeology, ecology, and food authentication, to date a comprehensive isoscape of bioavailable Sr has not been produced.

In this study, we present a newly generated dataset of $n = 233$ plant samples, collected across SC and RGS, representing all major geological units of the region (c.a. 370,000 km²). This dataset was integrated with a literature-based compilation of bioavailable Sr data from across South America to

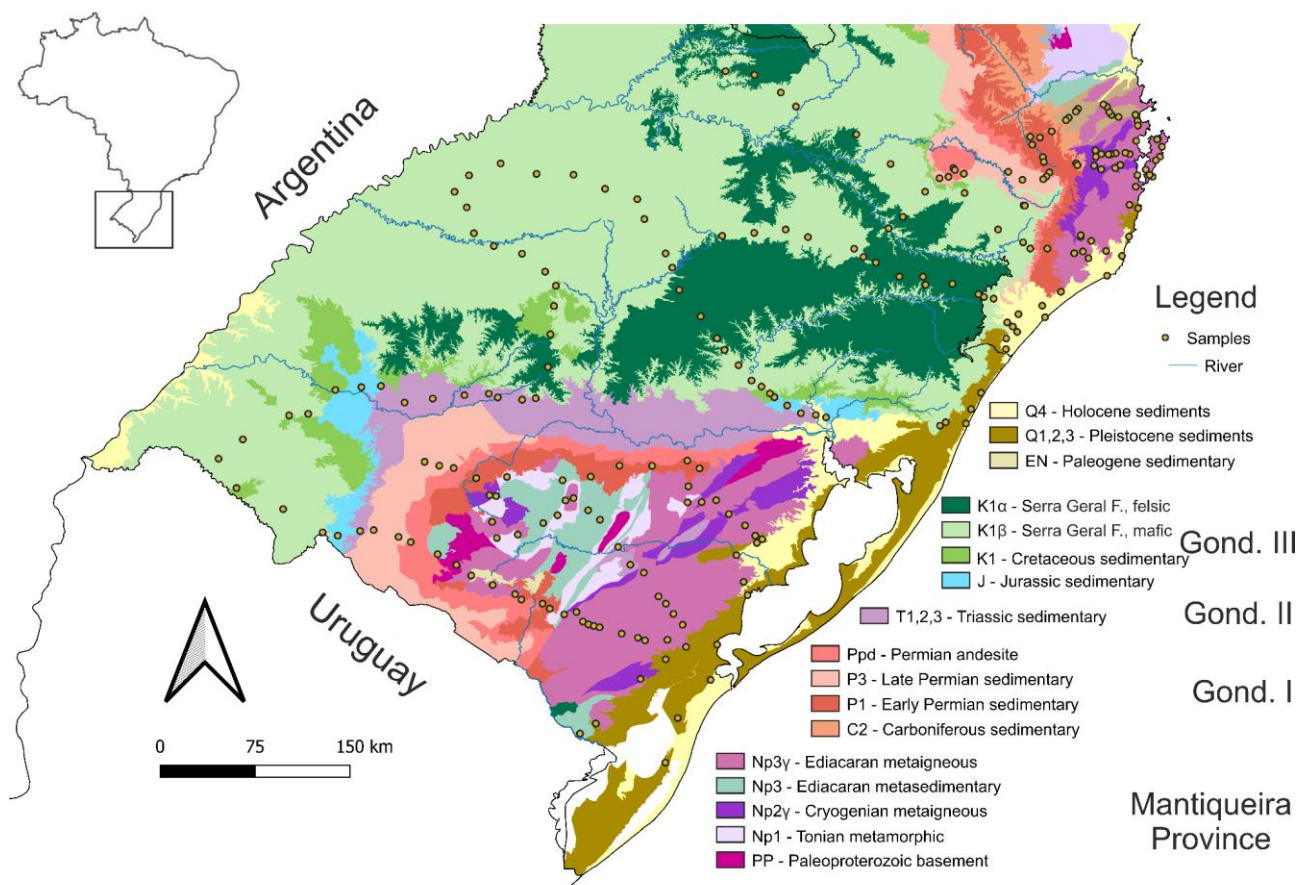
develop new isoscapes of bioavailable strontium ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$) for South America and southern Brazil, with a focus on SC and RGS. Using a random forest machine learning model following Bataille et al. (2020), we incorporated global environmental variables described in Bataille et al. (2018, 2020) and Reich et al. (2024) to estimate spatial patterns of bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios.

The sampled region represents a pivotal area for understanding the expansion of pre-Columbian populations, constituting pass-through areas that facilitated the spread of natives such as the Guaraní, who from approximately the 5th c. AD gradually occupied the continent from the Amazon to the Paraná Delta (Loponte et al., 2024) as well as the movements of Southern Brazilian Highland populations toward the coast. The geological heterogeneity of these states provides a unique natural context for investigating large-scale dynamics of mobility, settlement, and cultural interaction.

2 Geology

We focused our sampling on the southern portion of Brazil, targeting the main geological units in detail to increase the reliability and spatial resolution of the resulting Sr database and isoscape.

The study area, comprising the states of RGS and SC, represents a key segment of the South American continent. The region preserves a long and complex geological evolution, spanning from the Archean to the Cenozoic, encompassing processes of crustal growth, continental collision, sedimentary basin development, and large igneous province magmatism. A simplified overview of this geological complexity is provided in Fig. 1, modified from the 1:5000000 geological map of Brazil (Medeiros et al. 2025) downloaded from the Serviço Geológico do Brasil (<https://geosgb.sgb.gov.br/geosgb/downloads.html>) for use in QGIS software.



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107 Figure 1: simplified geological map of southern Brazil, modified from Medeiros et al. (2025) with
 108 sample locations collected in this study. The lithology codes are simplified from Medeiros et al.
 109 (2025) and grouped according to the two main geological domains of the area: the Mantiqueira
 110 Province and the Paraná Basin. The supergroups of the Paraná Basin are subdivided following Milani
 111 et al. (2007).

112

113 Two major geological provinces dominate this area: the southern Brazilian Shield, representing the
 114 Precambrian crystalline basement, and the Paraná Basin, a large Paleozoic-Mesozoic sedimentary
 115 and volcanic basin. In addition to these two major geological provinces, Pleistocene and Holocene
 116 sediments outcrop along the coast and the southern lagoons of RGS.

117 The southern Brazilian Shield, also known as the Mantiqueira Province (Heilbron et al., 2004) is
 118 composed of a mosaic of cratonic nuclei, accreted terranes, and mobile belts that were amalgamated
 119 during the Neoproterozoic, culminating with the Gondwana accretion (Brito Neves et al., 2014). In
 120 the state of RGS, the principal tectonic domains of the Mantiqueira Province are the Dom Feliciano
 121 Belt and the São Gabriel Terrane (Brito Neves et al., 2014; Philipp et al., 2018). The Dom Feliciano
 122 Belt extends in a NE-SW orientation and consists of high-grade metamorphic complexes, syn- to
 123 post-tectonic granitic intrusions (650-540 Ma), and metavolcanic-sedimentary sequences (2.35-0.78
 124 Ga). It is interpreted as a Neoproterozoic collisional orogen, developed during the closure of oceanic

domains between the Rio de la Plata Craton and the Kalahari-Congo Craton (Brito Neves et al., 2014; Philipp et al., 2018). The belt includes the voluminous granites of the Pelotas Batholith dated between 650 and 580 Ma. The São Gabriel Terrane, located west of the Dom Feliciano Belt, comprises volcanic-arc sequences, ophiolitic remnants, and accretionary complexes. Geochemical data indicate that it represents an intra-oceanic arc formed between 900 and 700 Ma, subsequently accreted to the continental margin during the Brasiliano Orogeny (Cerva-Alvez et al., 2021). The Dom Feliciano Belt is also exposed along the coast in the eastern part of SC where it includes the Florianópolis granitic batholiths and the metavolcanic-sedimentary sequences (Brito Neves et al., 2014; Philipp et al., 2018).

The Paraná Basin is one of the world's largest intracratonic sedimentary basins, covering approximately 1.4 million km² across Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Argentina (Holz et al., 2010; Scherer et al., 2023). It developed over the consolidated Precambrian basement during a long-lived post-orogenic to extensional tectonic regime that lasted from the Ordovician to the Cretaceous. Milani et al. (2007) divided the Paraná Basin succession into six different second-order supersequences (from oldest to youngest): Rio Ivaí, Paraná, Gondwana I, Gondwana II, Gondwana III (which includes the Serra Geral) and Bauru. In the studied area, the exposed units comprise: (1) Carboniferous-Permian volcanic-sedimentary units of the Gondwana I Supersequence (Itararé group and the Rio Bonito, Palermo and Irati formations); (2) Triassic sedimentary rocks of the Santa Maria Formation belonging to the Gondwana II Supersequence; and (3) Jurassic volcanic rocks of the Serra Geral Formation and aeolian sandstones of the Botucatu Formation, representing the Gondwana III Supersequence.

The volcanic-sedimentary units outcrop along the eastern margin of the basin, in contact with the rocks of Dom Feliciano Belt, while the volcanic rocks of Serra Geral Formation outcrop in the western part of the studied area (Fig. 1). The stratigraphic record documents alternating marine, glacial, and continental depositional environments. The major stratigraphic units include: the Itararé Group (Late Carboniferous-Early Permian) composed of glaciogenic diamictites, sandstones, and shales deposited during the Gondwanan glaciation (Holz et al., 2010); the Rio Bonito and Palermo formations (Permian) composed of coal-bearing strata deposited in deltaic and coastal-plain environments, marking post-glacial transgression (Holz et al., 2010); the Irati Formation (Late Permian) composed of organic-rich black shales and carbonates deposited under restricted marine conditions and considered one of the principal source rocks for hydrocarbons in the basin (Holz et al., 2010); the Santa Maria Formation (Triassic) composed of fluvial and aeolian sandstones (Scherer et al., 2023); and the Botucatu Formation (Jurassic) composed of cross-bedded aeolian sandstones indicative of an extensive desert environment prior to the onset of volcanism (Scherer et al., 2023).

One of the main geological domains in southern Brazil is the Serra Geral Formation which records the bimodal volcanism of the Paraná-Etendeka Large Igneous Province (LIP). This volcanic province covers an area of approximately 1,200,000 km² in South America, extending across Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay and Paraguay, and constitutes the upper volcanic portion of the Paraná Basin (e.g. Peccerillo and Melfi, 1988). The magmatism has a bimodal character, with tholeiitic basalts and andesites as the dominant lithologies coupled with subordinate more silicic rocks (rhyodacite and rhyolite, also occurring as high-grade ignimbrites; Peate et al., 1992; Luchetti et al., 2018). The eruptive history is short, with ages constrained between 135.0 ± 0.6 Ma and 132.0 ± 0.2 Ma, with a time span of 1.6-3.0 Ma for the extrusive activity (Gomes and Vasconcelos, 2021). The Sr isotopic composition of this magmatism is extremely variable (e.g. ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr₁₃₀ between 0.705-0.728; Peate et al., 1992), reflecting significant crustal contamination during magmas ascent and/or derivation from metasomatized mantle sources (e.g. Giovanardi et al., 2022). These volcanic rocks form a plateau in the western part of the studied area separated from other geological domains by a stiff cliff.

3 Material and Methods

3.1 Materials

A total of n = 233 samples of plant leaves were collected across the study area (Fig. 1), covering all of the geological units identified on state geological maps (downloaded from the Serviço Geológico do Brasil website https://geosgb.sgb.gov.br/geosgb/downloads_en.html; geological map of Santa Catarina from Wildner et al., 2014; Rio Grande do Sul map from Wildner et al., 2013).

Sampling was designed to minimize potential contamination from agriculture, waste disposal or other anthropogenic sources. To this end, leaves were taken from trees as far as possible from anthropic activities (Spies et al., 2025). The sampled taxa include: *Eucalyptus* sp., *Phytolacca dioica*, *Neltume nigra*, *Smilax campestris*, *Celtis australis*, *Fraxinus excelsior* (Common ash) and *Nerium oleander*. Different plant taxa were intentionally collected at each location to account for different rooting depths at each location.

3.2 Isotopic analyses

Chromatographic separation of Sr was conducted at the MeGic lab (<https://www.geochem.unimore.it/>) of the Department of Chemical and Geological Sciences (Unimore, Italy). Leaf samples were cleaned to remove major impurities using ultrapure MilliQ® water and then dried for 24 h on a hotplate at 50°C. Approximately 20 g of dried clean plant material was reduced to ash in a porcelain crucible in a muffle oven at 650 °C for 6 h. Five milligrams of ash were then dissolved in 0.5 ml of 3M HNO₃ and centrifuged prior to loading into the chromatographic

column. Sr separation was performed using a standard procedure in ~30 µl columns filled with the 100-150 µm bead size Eichrom Sr-spec Resin (Eichrom Technologies, LLC) as described in Argentino et al. (2021). The Sr was eluted with MilliQ® water. Through the chromatographic separation runs, n = 5 blanks were produced to monitor possible contamination during the procedure. Strontium isotope ratios ($^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$) of 197 samples were measured with the Thermo Scientific NEPTUNE Plus multi-collector ICP-MS (MC-ICPMS) at the HUN-REN Institute for Nuclear Research (ATOMKI), Debrecen, Hungary. Isotopic ratios were corrected for instrumental mass discrimination using $^{88}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 8.375209$ and by applying an interference correction for $^{87}\text{Rb}^+$, $^{84}\text{Kr}^+$ and $^{86}\text{Kr}^+$ with $^{85}\text{Rb}^+$ and $^{83}\text{Kr}^+$, respectively. The same method, shared between the two laboratories (Cavazzuti et al., 2021), was used to analyse n = 36 samples at the laboratory of the Centro Interdipartimentale Grandi Strumenti of Unimore using a Thermo Scientific NEPTUNE MC-ICPMS. Data reduction was performed with a modified version of the 'SrDR' spreadsheet (Lugli et al., 2020). Data are available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17988601> (Scaggion et al., 2025a).

3.3 - Quality assessment of isotopic data

Poor chromatographic removal of Rb from the sample could lead to overestimation of the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio due to the isobaric interference of ^{87}Rb on ^{87}Sr . Before isotopic analyses, the Rb and Sr concentration of the separated solutions were determined using a triple quadrupole ICPMS iCAP TQ (Thermo Fisher) at the laboratory of the Centro Interdipartimentale Grandi Strumenti of Unimore. A ^{115}In solution was employed as an internal standard. Calibration curves were obtained using the multi-element standard IVICP- MS-71A (Inorganic Venture), in the range of 1-1000 ppb. Samples containing Rb higher than 0.5 ppb and with Rb/Sr ratio higher than 0.005 were reprocessed through a second chromatographic separation.

Potential contamination during the chromatographic separation was evaluated with laboratory blank samples, which were monitored during the isotopic analyses at the Centro Interdipartimentale Grandi Strumenti of Unimore. The resulting signals were indistinguishable from the analytical blank (i.e. 4% suprapur HNO_3).

To ensure homogeneous reproducibility of the data, both laboratories followed the same analytical protocol, already used in previous publications (e.g. Cavazzuti et al., 2021). The international Sr carbonate isotope Standard Reference Material NBS987, produced by the National Institute of Standard and Technology (NIST), was used by both laboratories as an external standard for instrumental bias correction. Each session includes the analysis of three samples bracketed by the NBS-987 reference material. The instrumental bias was corrected independently for each analytical session by normalizing to the accepted NBS-987 value of 0.710248 (McArthur et al., 2001). The

227 average $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ value of the NBS-987 across all sessions was 0.710329 ± 0.000006 at the HUN-
228 REN laboratory and 0.710250 ± 0.000014 at Unimore.

229

230 *3.4 Statistical analysis and geospatial modelling*

231 We built the Sr isoscapes of South America by combining the new Sr isotope dataset of 233 plant
232 samples with literature data. The latter includes the Isoarch South America dataset (Salesse et al.,
233 2018, 2020), excluding rock samples, and additional published sources (see Supplement Table S1)
234 for a total of 1588 data points. For the continental-scale compilation, we included both environmental
235 samples (plants, lichens, soils, and water) and archaeological human and faunal samples identified as
236 local in the original publications. Non-local individuals were excluded. Metadata relating to
237 coordinates and material categories were harmonized, and duplicates were consolidated by site.
238 Uncertainty values not reported in the original publications or datasets were excluded. All primary
239 datasets used in the compilation, including the open-access IsoArch repository, Borges et al. (2021),
240 Plomp (2021), Stantis et al. (2024) and Seferidou (2025), have been integrated with all additional
241 sources and reported in Table S1. Overall data are from : Brass (1976), Palmer and Edmond (1989),
242 Edmond et al. (1995; 1996), Hieronymus (1995), Henry et al. (1996), Gaillardet et al. (1997), Négrel
243 and Lachassagne (2000), Grove et al. (2003), Knudson et al. (2004; 2013), Brunet et al. (2005),
244 Pasquini et al. (2005), Knudson and Price (2007), Knudson (2008), Martins et al. (2008), Andrushko
245 et al. (2009), Bastos (2009; 2014), Fiege et al. (2009), Hermenegildo (2009), Poszwa et al. (2009),
246 Bastos et al. (2011; 2014; 2015; 2016; 2019; 2021), Laffoon et al. (2012), Lee et al. (2013), Machado
247 (2013), Malaspinas et al. (2014), Pouilly et al. (2014), Santos et al. (2014), Oppitz (2015), Strauss et
248 al. (2016), Barberena et al. (2017; 2019; 2020; 2021), Chala-Aldana et al. (2018), Duran et al. (2018),
249 Slovak et al. (2018), Plomp et al. (2019), Moquet et al. (2020), Serna et al. (2020), Azevedo et al.
250 (2021), Washburn et al. (2021), Fernandez et al. (2022), Quaggio et al. (2022), Torres-Rouff et al.
251 (2022), Avigliano et al. (2023), Seferidou et al. (2023), Silva et al. (2023), Kafino et al. (2024),
252 Martinelli et al. (2025), Loponte et al. (2025), Scaggion et al. (2025a). The final dataset used for the
253 model includes 1821 data from 883 sites (i.e., same coordinate samples) divided in 9 categories as
254 follows: plant, fauna (archaeological remains, non-local excluded based on publication results),
255 human (archaeological remains, non-local excluded), shell, snail, lichen, water and soil. The dataset
256 is updated to September 2025. We constructed three different models, the first utilizing the whole
257 dataset (hereafter ‘All’ dataset), the second limited to plant+fauna+lichen+human (661 sites) and the
258 third using only the plant+lichen samples (531 sites). After a preliminary run of the random forest
259 model, we noticed remarkably large residuals for $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values higher than 0.900. We thus excluded
260 from the models $n = 5$ ‘anomalous’ values of river waters from the Parguaza Batholith (Venezuela;

261 $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} > 0.900$) from Edmond et al. (1995). In the main text, we mainly focus on the plant+lichen
262 isoscape, while the other models are reported in the Supplement Text S1. Note that the quantile colour
263 scale is the same for each model, but rescaled to the values of the highlighted areas.

264 The dataset was regressed using the random forest machine-learning model from Bataille et al. (2020)
265 in the R free software (version 4.0.5), which reconstructs the Sr isotopic ratio variability with a
266 resolution of 1 km². The method uses external predictors variables to generate multiple decision trees
267 using each time a random subset of data and covariates. For the models generation we used the global
268 variables presented in Bataille et al. (2018, 2020) and Reich et al. (2024) as external predictors (Table
269 1), filtering for each model the variables with high correlation ($-0.80 > r > 0.80$, Fig. 2) to avoid
270 multicollinearity in the model and inflation of the variables importance (Strobl et al., 2008), as in
271 Scaggion et al. (2025b). This resulted in the use of $n = 14$ external predictors, which were identical
272 for the three models: *r.elevation*, *r.bulk*, *r.fert*, *r.dust*, *r.pet*, *r.cec*, *r.meanage_geol*, *r.ssaw*, *r.ph*,
273 *r.srsrq1*, *r.clay*, *r.age*, *r.volc* and *r.GUM*.

274 We thus optimized the *mtry* parameter for the random trees construction at 5 random variables at the
275 time. The spatial-uncertainty map was generated with the *ranger* package of Wright and Ziegler
276 (2017), which calculates a quantile random forest regression, and then halving the random forest
277 q0.84 - q0.16 difference (i.e., lower and upper limits of a ~68% interval: Funck et al., 2021 and
278 Armaroli et al., 2024).

279 The models were evaluated with a 10-fold cross validation by calculating the Root Mean Squared
280 Error (RMSE). This method requires partitioning of the data into multiple subsets (folds) which are
281 used as unknown to train and test the model, ensuring that it is not biased by single subsets. Using
282 this approach, the model's accuracy and precision are tested across multiple subsets of data, providing
283 a comprehensive assessment of the model's predictive capabilities.

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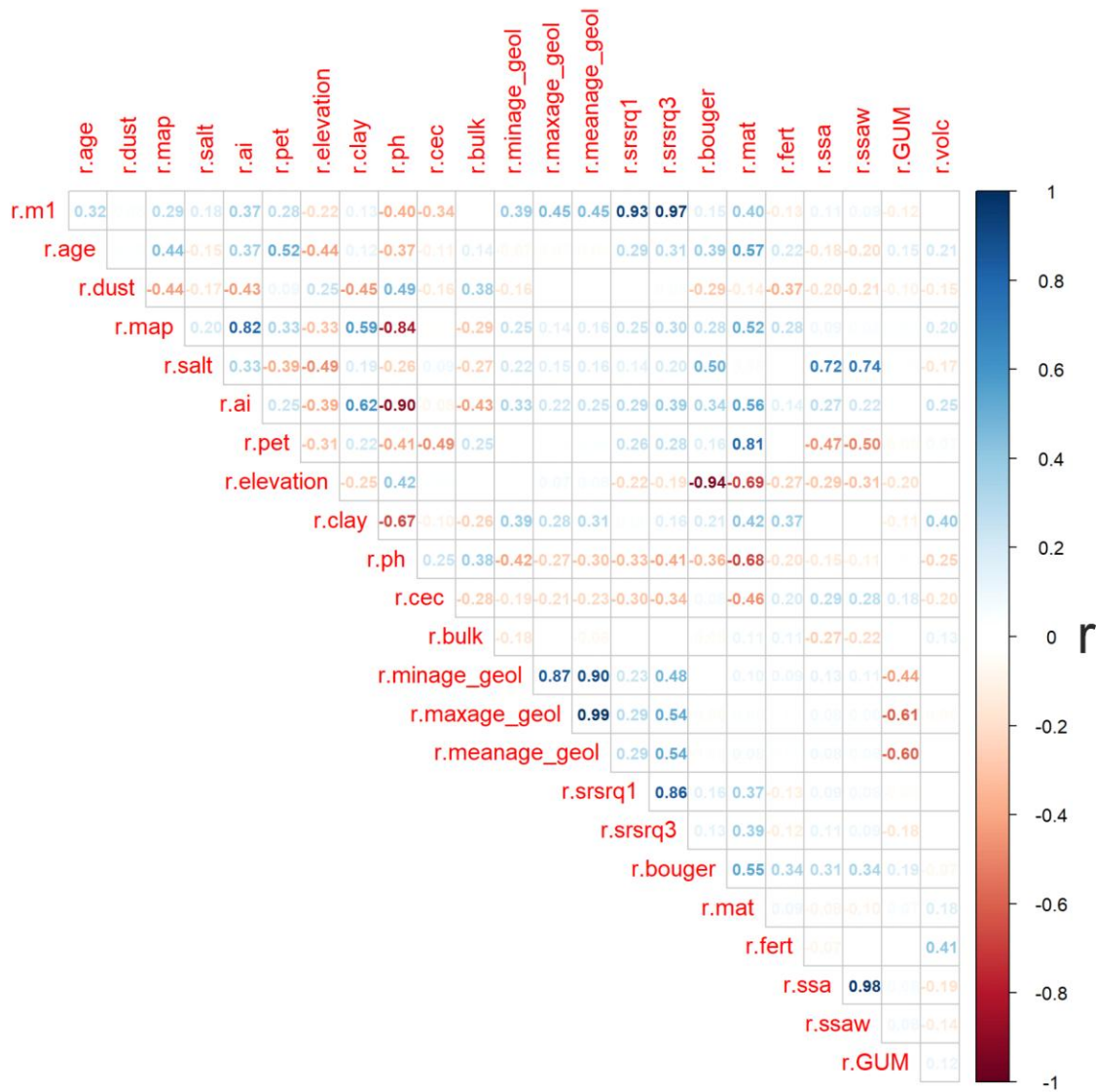
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Variables	Description	Resolution	Type	Source
r.m1	Median bedrock model	1 km	D	Bataille et al. 2018
r.srsrq1	1st quartile bedrock model	1 km	D	Bataille et al. 2018
r.srsrq3	3rd quartile bedrock model	1 km	D	Bataille et al. 2018
r.age	Terrane age attribute	1 km	D	Mooney et al. 1998

r.dust	Multi-models average (g.m-2.yr-1)	1°x1°	C	Mahowald et al., 2006
r.map	Mean annual precipitation (mm.yr-1)	30-arc sec	C	Hijmans et al., 2005
r.salt.t	CCSM.3 simulation	1.4°x1.4°	C	Mahowald et al. 2006
r.pet	Global Potential Evapo-Transpiration	30-arc sec	C	Zomer et al. 2008
r.ai	Global Aridity Index	30-arc sec	C	Zomer et al. 2008
r.elevation	SRTM (m)	90 m	C	Jarvis et al., 2008
r.ph	Soil pH in H ₂ O solution (x10)	250 m	C	Hengl et al., 2017
r.clay	Clay (weight %)	250 m	C	Hengl et al., 2017
r.bulk	Bulk density (kg m⁻³)	250 m	C	Hengl et al., 2017
r.GUM	Global unconsolidated sediment map	1 km	C	Börker et al., 2018
r.ssaw	Multi-models average sea salt wet deposition (kg.ha⁻¹.yr⁻¹)	1° x 1°	C	Vet et al., 2014
r.ssa	Multi-models average Sea salt wet+dry deposition (kg.ha⁻¹.yr⁻¹)	1° x 1°	C	Vet et al., 2014
r.cec	Cation Exchange Capacity	250 m	C	Hengl et al., 2017
r.bouguer	WGM2012_Bouguer	2 min	C	Balmino et al., 2012
r.mat	Mean annual temperature (°C)	30-arc sec	C	Hijmans et al., 2005
r.maxage_geol	GLiM age attribute (Myrs)	1 km	D	Hartmann and Moosdorf, 2012

r.minage_geol	GLiM age attribute (Myrs)	1 km	D	Hartmann and Moosdorf, 2012
r.meanage_geol	GLiM age attribute (Myrs)	1 km	D	Hartmann and Moosdorf, 2012
r.nfert	Global Nitrogen Fertilization	30-arc	C	Potter et al., 2010
r.volc	Atmospheric deposition of volcanic material (kg.m-2.s-1)	0.5°	C	Brahney et al. 2015

Table 1: list of global variables used in the model as external predictors before filtering.



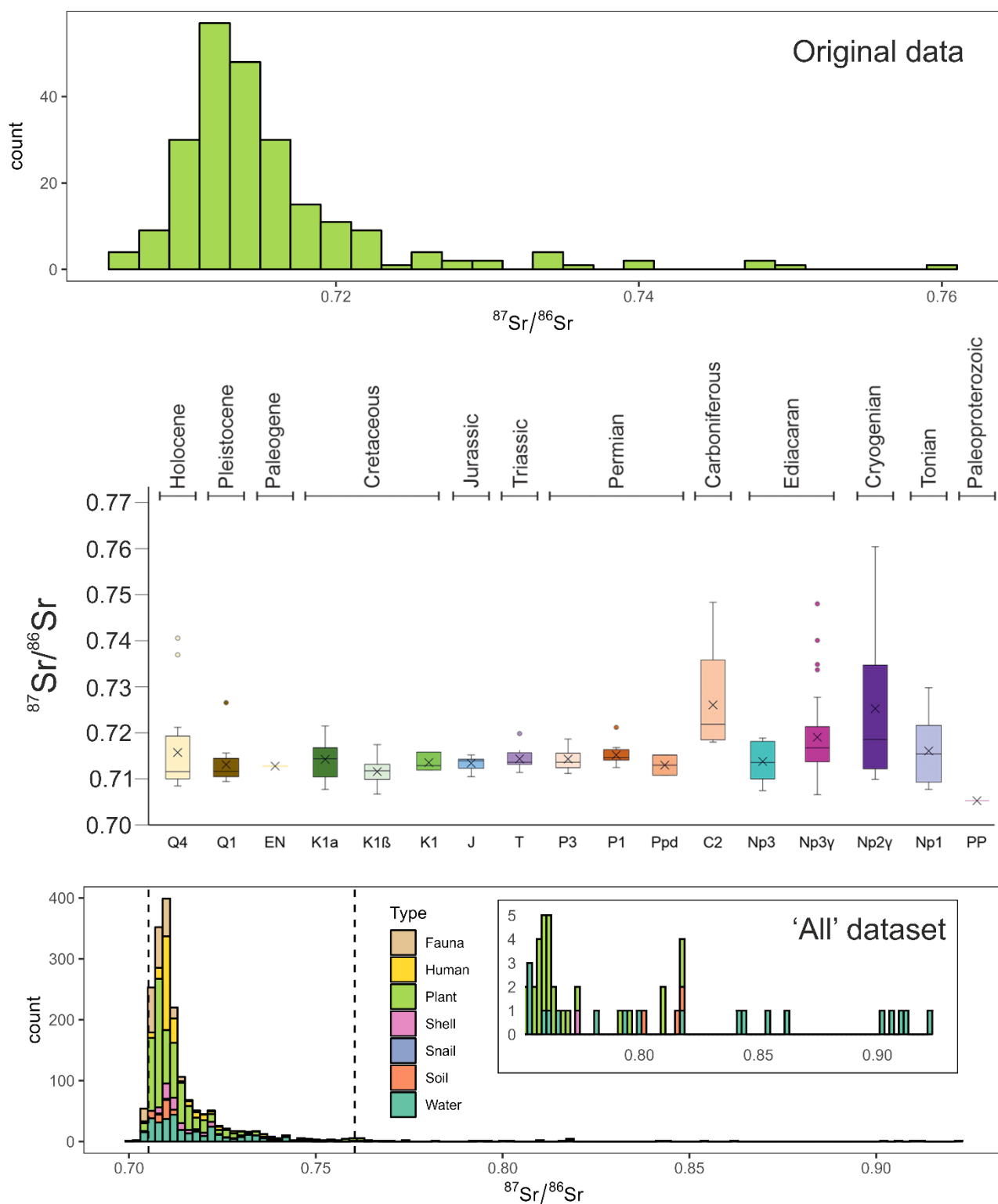
290 Figure 2: Pearson's correlation coefficients (r) of the external predictors used in the random forest
291 model.

292

293 **4 Results**

294 *4.1 $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ of novel plant samples*

295 Collected samples from the studied area yielded a broad range of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios, between 0.70521
296 and 0.76039 with a median of 0.71360 (Fig. 3). The dataset shows an asymmetric distribution
297 (kurtosis = 13.03, skewness = 2.77) with a long tail towards more radiogenic values (Fig. 3). A
298 Shapiro-Wilk test indicates significant deviation from normality ($W = 0.733$, $p < 0.01$). To facilitate
299 interpretation, results of novel plant samples are presented here according to the underlying
300 geological units or rock type as in Fig. 1 and Table 2. We stress however that plants were collected
301 from soils developed on these units.



302

303 Figure 3: histogram of the whole dataset utilized to construct the isoscape model and of the new plant
 304 data. Boxplots of the plant samples from SC and RGS clustered by geological units as in Fig. 1: Q4-
 305 Holocene sediments; Q1-Pleistocene sediments; EN-Paleogene sedimentary; K1 α -Serra Geral
 306 Formation, felsic; K1 β -Serra Geral Formation, basic; K1-Cretaceous sedimentary; J-Jurassic
 307 sedimentary; T-Triassic sedimentary; P3-Late Permian sedimentary; P1-Early Permian sedimentary;
 308 Ppd-Permian andesite; C2-Carboniferous sedimentary; Np3-Ediacaran metasedimentary; Np3 γ -

309 Ediacaran metaigneous; Np2 γ -Cryogenian metaigneous; Np1-Tonian metamorphic; PP-
 310 Paleoproterozoic basement.

311

Geological Unit	Sample Number	$^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ avg	St. dev.	Median	Lithology	Age
Q4	21	0.71569	0.00870	0.71155	Sediments	Holocene
Q1	11	0.71306	0.00481	0.71156	Sedimentary	Pleistocene
EN	1	0.71273	0.00002	0.71273	Sedimentary	Paleogene
K1 α	15	0.71421	0.00412	0.71436	Magmatic - felsic	Cretaceous
K1 β	46	0.71156	0.00226	0.71173	Magmatic - basic	Cretaceous
K1	3	0.71351	0.00202	0.71284	Sedimentary	Cretaceous
J	8	0.71335	0.00151	0.71387	Sedimentary	Jurassic
T	15	0.71432	0.00203	0.71359	Sedimentary	Triassic
Ppd	2	0.71336	0.00309	0.71336	Magmatic	Permian
P3	13	0.71429	0.00292	0.71358	Metasedimentary	Permian - Late
P1	14	0.71516	0.00204	0.71456	Metasedimentary	Permian - Early
C2	5	0.72604	0.01263	0.72181	Metasedimentary	Carboniferous
Np3 γ	51	0.71892	0.00830	0.71659	Metaigneous	Ediacaran
NP3	8	0.71364	0.00428	0.71345	Metasedimentary	Ediacaran
NP2 γ	10	0.72522	0.01727	0.71850	Metaigneous	Criogenian
Np1	9	0.71601	0.00732	0.71537	Metamorphic	Tonian
PP	1	0.70521	0.00002	0.70521	Metamorphic	Paleoproterozoic

312 Table 2: bioavailable Sr isotopic average composition of this work plant samples divided for the
 313 different geological super-units of the region as reported in Fig. 1. The order follows the stratigraphic
 314 order.

315

316 Plants from Holocene sediments (Q4) show values between 0.70843 and 0.74054, with an average of
 317 0.71569 ± 0.00870 (n = 21; error calculated as standard deviation; Fig. 3; Table 2) while those from
 318 Pleistocene sediments (Q1, Q2, and Q3) have a narrower range from 0.70940 to 0.72650, with an
 319 average of 0.71306 ± 0.00481 (n=11), similar to only one Paleogene sample (EN) with a value of
 320 0.71273 ± 0.00002 (Table 2). Plants from both these sedimentary groups include anomalous values,
 321 as outliers of the distribution (Fig. 3).

322 Samples from the Cretaceous felsic volcanics units of the Paraná LIP (K1 α) show higher values
 323 (between 0.70766 and 0.72147; average of 0.71421 ± 0.00412 , n =15) than those from the basic
 324 volcanics units (K1 β ; between 0.70666 and 0.71741; average of 0.71156 ± 0.00226 , n =46; Fig. 3,
 325 Table 2). Plants from Cretaceous sediments of the Paraná Basin (K1) have similar K1 α values,

(0.71191 and 0.71578; average of 0.71351 ± 0.00202 ; $n=3$; Table 2), almost indistinguishable from those from Jurassic sediments (J; between 0.71045 and 0.71515; average of 0.71335 ± 0.00151 ; $n=8$; Fig. 3, Table 2). Plants from other sedimentary units of the Paraná Basin (i.e., T, P1, and P3 units) show progressive radiogenic enrichment over time (averages at 0.71432 ± 0.00203 ; 0.71429 ± 0.00292 ; 0.71516 ± 0.00204 , respectively). Samples from Permian volcanics (Ppd) have comparable values, between 0.71118 and 0.71554 with an average of 0.71336 ± 0.00309 ($n=2$; Table 2). In contrast, plants from Carboniferous sedimentary rocks (C2), have a distinct and more radiogenic signature between 0.71796 and 0.74832, average at 0.72604 ± 0.01263 ($n=5$; Fig. 3, Table 2). Samples collected from units of the Mantiqueira Province show broader ranges and generally higher values than those from Paraná Basin samples (except for C2 unit; Fig. 3). Plants from Ediacaran sediments of the Dom Feliciano Belt (Np3) yielded $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values between 0.70733 and 0.71871, with an average of 0.71364 ± 0.00428 ($n=8$), while plants from metagneous units (Np3 γ) show higher and more variable values (0.7064 to 0.74790, with an average of 0.71892 ± 0.00830 ; $n=51$; Fig. 3, Table 2). Samples from Cryogenian metagneous units from the São Gabriel Terrane (Np2 γ) show the widest range in the dataset (from 0.70987 to 0.76039; average of 0.72522 ± 0.01727 ; $n=10$; Fig. 3, Table 2). Plants from the Tonian metasedimentary units (Np1) show values between 0.70769 and 0.72978 with an average of 0.71601 ± 0.00732 ($n=9$; Fig. 3, Table 2). Finally, the sample from the Paleoproterozoic basement (PP) yielded the lowest value of the entire dataset (0.70521 ± 0.00002 ; Table 2).

345

346 *4.2 Random forest models*

347 The presence of isotopic outliers in our plant dataset, with ratios higher than those expected for
 348 unconsolidated coastal deposits, can be explained by the heterogeneity of the Holocene and
 349 Pleistocene deposits (fluvial, marine, aeolian) on which the plants grew, and the characteristics of the
 350 parental lithologies. Since these values reflect geological variability, they were retained in the model.
 351 In contrast, the extremely radiogenic values for river waters (>0.900) were excluded.

352 The three constructed isoscape models clearly distinguish the most radiogenic areas of the SC and
 353 RGS, which often correspond to the oldest geological units in the region (Figs 4 and 5). In all models,
 354 the associated errors are higher in these radiogenic areas (Figs 4 and 5), indicating lower predictive
 355 power of the models in these regions.

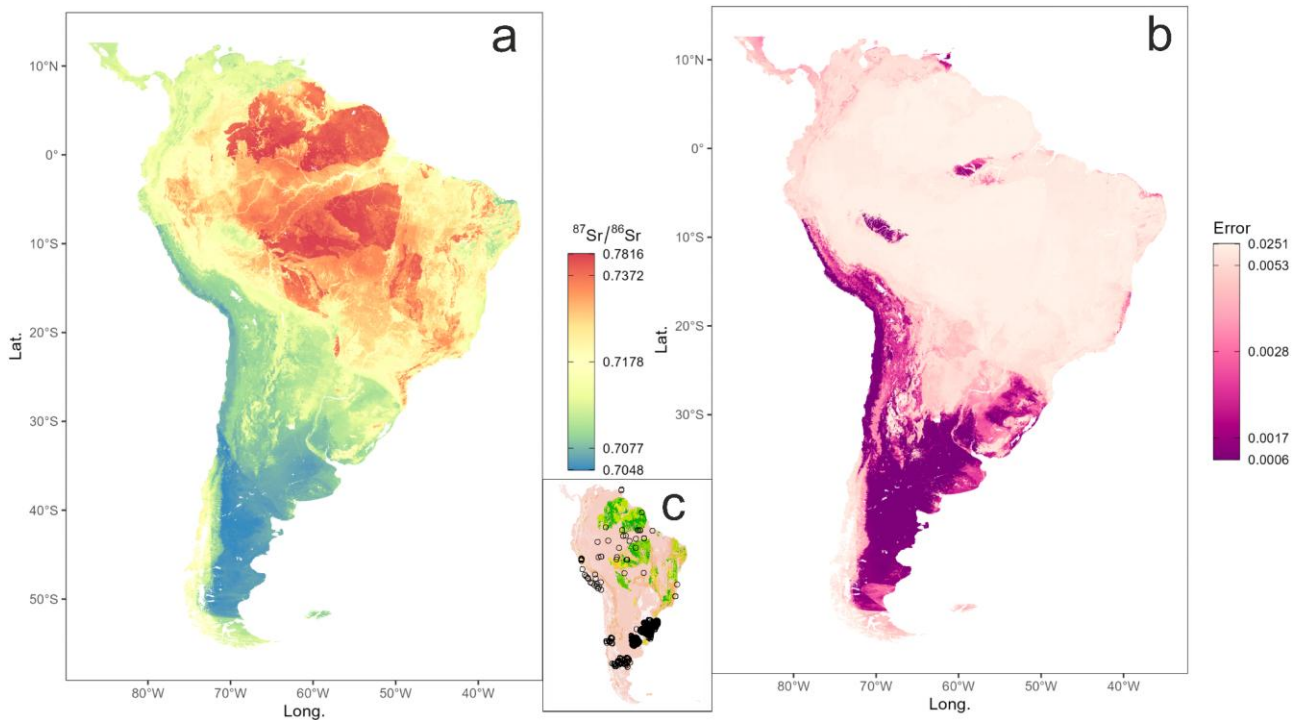


Figure 4: Spatial distribution of strontium isotopes in South America based on plant+lichen samples (n = 531 sites). Isoscape random forest model (a), associated spatial uncertainty map (b) and sample distribution (c).

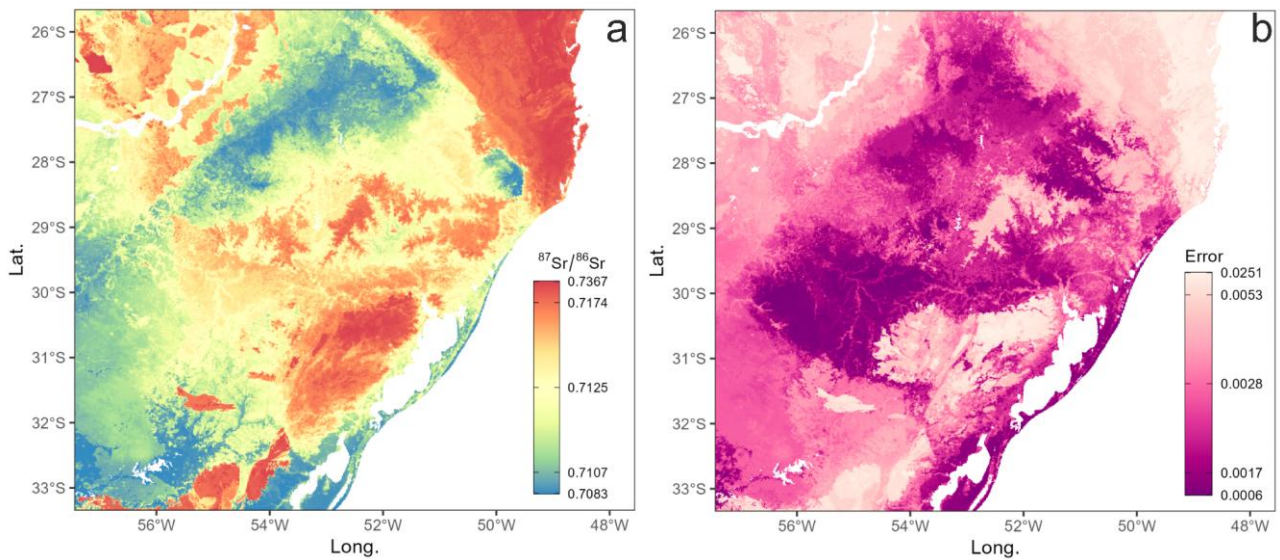


Figure 5: Spatial distribution of strontium isotopes in Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do Sul states based on plant+lichen samples (n = 531 sites). Isoscape random forest model (a) and associated spatial uncertainty map (b).

366 Evaluation metrics reported in Table 3 show significant differences between the datasets: the model
 367 based on the ‘All’ dataset exhibits the lowest predictive power, with a RMSE of 0.0086 and an R^2 of
 368 0.639, while the models built on the plant+fauna+lichen+human and the plant+lichen datasets show
 369 similar RMSE values of 0.0049 and 0.0054 respectively, and an R^2 of c.a. 0.76 each. The lower
 370 variance observed in these latter models likely reflects the smaller number and lower variability of
 371 samples compared to the ‘All’ dataset, which includes outliers with $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ higher than 0.818 in
 372 water samples (Fig. 3).

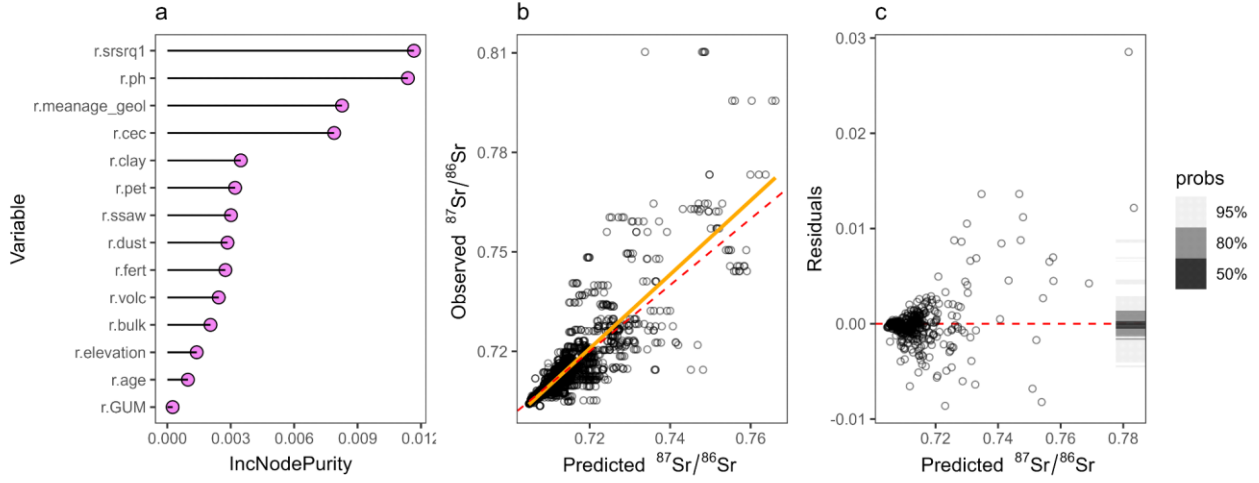
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Model	n. of sites	n. of predictors	RMSE	R^2	MAE
‘All’ dataset	883	14	0.0086	0.639	0.0037
Plants+Fauna+Human	661	14	0.0049	0.760	0.0023
Plants+lichens	531	14	0.0054	0.764	0.0027

374 Table 3: evaluation metrics of the models.

375

376 The evaluation of the predictive power of the independent variables using the Increase in Node Purity
 377 (IncNodePurity; Fig. 6; Supplement Text S1), shows that in the plant+fauna+lichen+human and
 378 plant+lichen models, the most relevant variables are *r.srsrq1* (predicted first quartile of the global
 379 $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ bedrock model; Bataille et al., 2018) and *r.ph* (soil pH in H_2O solution x10; Bataille et al.,
 380 2020), both with IncNodePurity values just below 0.012 (Fig. 6), followed by *r.meanage_geol* (GLiM
 381 age attribute in Myrs; Bataille et al., 2020) and *r.cec* (cation exchange capacity; Bataille et al., 2020)
 382 with values of around 0.009, while all other variables have a contribution lower than 0.004 (Fig. 6).
 383 Notably, a 2D-Partial Dependence Plot (PDP, Fig. 7) shows a nonlinear interaction between *r.ph* and
 384 *r.srsrq1*, and indicates that the RF model predicts higher $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios when pH is low and - as
 385 expected - when the *r.srsrq1* bedrock model value is high. (Fig. 7).

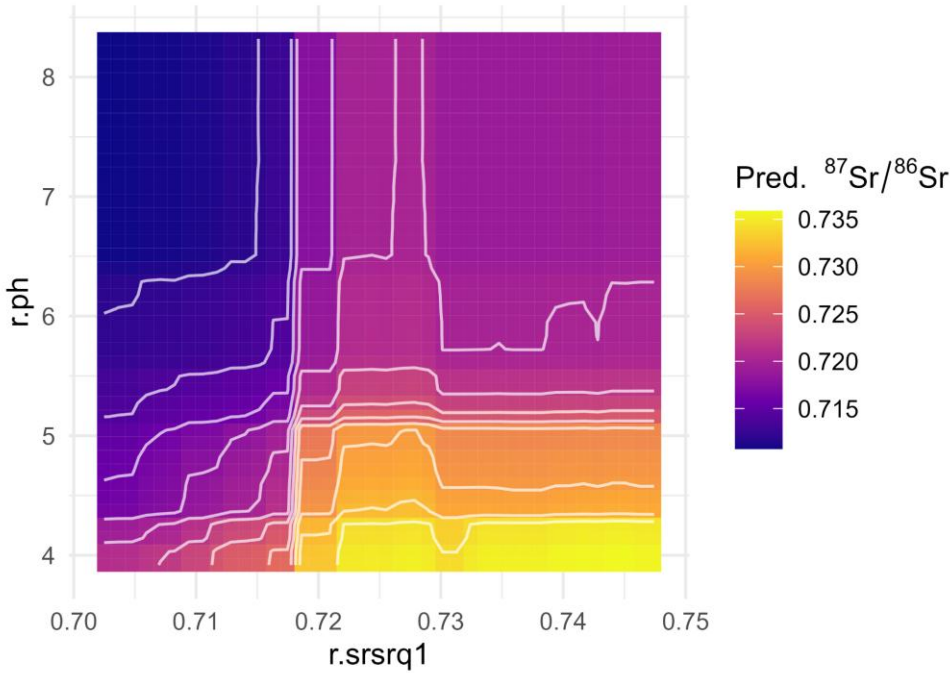


386

387 Figure 6: Predictive variables and model accuracy for random forest model based on plant+lichen
 388 samples. Increase in Node Purity (IncNodePurity) of the $n = 14$ external predictors (a); cross-
 389 validation scatterplot of observed vs. predicted $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values for the test-validation sample splits
 390 (b); model residuals vs. predicted $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios (c).

391

392



393

394 Figure 7: 2D Partial Dependence Plot for predictive variables *r.srsrq1* and *r.ph* for random forest
 395 model based on plant+lichen samples.

396

397 In contrast, within the ‘All’ model the most predictive variable is *r.pet* (global potential evo-
 398 transpiration; Bataille et al., 2018) with an IncNodePurity value equal to 0.038, followed by *r.ph* at

0.020, *r.age* (Terrane age attribute in Myrs; Bataille et al., 2020) at 0.018, and *r.cec* and *r.srsrq1* at 0.015 (Supplement Text S1).

401

402 **5 Discussion**

403 *5.1 Validation of the novel dataset against bedrock geology*

404 Several inputs and processes govern the bioavailable Sr isotopic signature of local areas. However,
405 considering a regional dataset, the bedrock geology is one of the main factors which govern the
406 isotopic distribution (Vitousek et al., 1999; Voerkelius et al., 2010), and thus its relationship with the
407 dataset could be a useful proxy to validate it.

408 The asymmetric statistical distribution of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values observed in the novel dataset (Fig. 3),
409 characterized by a long tail toward more radiogenic ratios, reflects the geological complexity of the
410 area and the variety of contributing lithologies (Cryogenian igneous rocks, Ediacaran sedimentary
411 sequences, Cretaceous volcanic flows, etc.). The presence of anomalous values, i.e., ratios higher than
412 those expected for unconsolidated coastal deposits and identified as outliers of the distribution, among
413 plants growing on Holocene and Pleistocene sediments can be explained by the heterogeneity of the
414 deposits (fluvial, marine, aeolian) and the characteristics of the parental lithologies.

415 The more radiogenic values of plants samples growth on soils from felsic igneous and metamorphic
416 units compared to igneous basic and sedimentary units (e.g. units K1 α , magmatic felsic, and K1 β ,
417 magmatic basic with the same age), are consistent with well-known geological differentiation
418 processes, as Rb commonly behaves as a more incompatible element in magmatic and metamorphic
419 processes than Sr, thus becoming enriched during fractionation, forming rocks with higher or lower
420 Rb content, which over time produce higher or lower $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios, as in K1 α and K1 β , respectively.
421 Another aspect related to geology, is the increase of the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio in rocks with time, which we
422 expect to be reflected in the derived soil and then in the local vegetation. The plant dataset presented
423 here follows this rule, with a general increase of the $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratio as the bedrock is older in age (Fig.
424 3; Table 2) as observed for the Paranà Basin samples vs. Mantiqueira Province ones.

425 All this evidence suggests that the dataset is in overall agreement with bedrock geology which is the
426 primary source of bioavailable Sr in nature.

427

428 *5.2 Limits, advantages and predicting variables of the random forest models*

429 Across the developed models, higher spatial uncertainties are associated with the most radiogenic
430 areas of SC and RGS, generally corresponding to the oldest geological units in the area (Figs. 4, 5).
431 This pattern, also reported in random forest models from the literature (e.g., Bataille et al., 2018;
432 Gigante et al., 2023; Scaggion et al., 2025b), reflects the pronounced contrast in isotope composition

433 between radiogenic bedrock and less radiogenic end-members such as aerosols, seawater, and
 434 precipitation. Such contrast complicates the mixing relationships processes that govern the
 435 bioavailable Sr isotope signature. Another parameter that influences model accuracy and associated
 436 errors is the uneven distribution of samples on a continental scale. Nonuniform sampling tends to
 437 introduce bias towards specific geological contexts, thereby limiting the ability to generalize
 438 predictions in unrepresented areas.

439 The improved performance observed in the plant+fauna+lichen+human and plant+lichen models,
 440 compared to the ‘All’ dataset, can be attributed to the reduced variability of the data, which limits the
 441 influence of outliers and improves the overall model stability. We reiterate that these differences in
 442 RMSE and R^2 more accurately reflect the isotopic range and internal heterogeneity of the training
 443 datasets, rather than intrinsic differences in model quality. The absence of significant differences in
 444 the predictiveness between these two best performing models may reflect i) nonuniform and
 445 incomplete geographic coverage associated with water and soil sampling strategies, and ii) the limited
 446 representativeness of inorganic samples compared to biological and bioderived materials in
 447 representing the local terrestrial bioavailable Sr signature, as recently reported by Spies et al. (2025).
 448 In this regard, for random forest models, a smaller but more geologically representative dataset of
 449 biological samples is preferable over a larger but uneven dataset. Indeed, the latter reduces the
 450 representativeness of the isotopic variability and, consequently, compromises the accuracy and
 451 reliability of the models. Conversely, a smaller dataset anchored to the local geological context is
 452 more stable, robust, and useful for modelling (Marsh et al., 2025).

453 The predicted distribution map of the bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ isotope ratio shows a consistent
 454 correlation with the data obtained as a function of the variables *r.srsrq1* and *r.ph*. The combined
 455 marginal effect (Fig.7) between these two independent variables reveals that isotopic predictions are
 456 influenced by non-linear interactions between strontium isotope ratios (*r.srsrq1*) and soil pH (*r.ph*).
 457 Higher $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios correlate with more acidic soils, a pattern consistent with pedogenesis on
 458 ancient silicate igneous-metamorphic rocks. In the Amazon region, low pH values result from intense
 459 decomposition of organic matter, which leads to strong leaching of the bedrock and, consequently,
 460 increases Sr availability in the soil. The PDP (Fig. 7) explains how the geological context, pedogenic
 461 processes, and environmental conditions shape the spatio-temporal distribution of Sr isotope values.
 462 Compared to existing Sr isoscapes, this study substantially improves both the spatial coverage and
 463 resolution of bioavailable predictions for South America, particularly southern Brazil. Although
 464 global or continental-scale isoscapes are essential for broader applications, developing regional
 465 models based on dense, geologically informed sampling offer much higher resolution and are
 466 essential for fine-scale provenance studies, such as intra-site archaeological mobility or ecological

467 habitat use. Despite being focused on SC and the RGS regions, our dataset allowed us to obtain a
468 reasonably robust continental-scale model with an R^2 of 0.764 (Fig.4). Our model compares
469 positively with other continental-scale isoscapes (e.g. the bioavailable Sr isoscape of Australia, with
470 an R^2 of 0.590; Dossetto et al., 2025). With this comparison, we do not intend to downplay the
471 importance of large-scale modeling approaches, which are essential for global applications, but rather
472 to highlight how carefully planned sampling strategies at the local level can provide robust, useful,
473 and informative models at larger scales.

474 This highlights how carefully designed local sampling strategies not only strengthen regional
475 provenance studies but also provide a reliable base for modeling at broader geographical scales.

476

477 **6 Data availability**

478 The bioavailable Sr plant isotope dataset of Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do Sul states analysed in
479 this work, the R script and the raster files of the plant+lichen model are available at
480 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17988601> (Scaggion et al., 2025a), The literature dataset is reported
481 in the Supplement Table S1.

482

483 **7 Conclusion**

484 This work presents a comprehensive dataset of 233 bioavailable $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ values from plant samples
485 collected across the main geological units of Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do Sul states (southern
486 Brazil). The measured $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ratios in the terrestrial biosphere are consistent with lithological
487 patterns, reflecting the pronounced geological heterogeneity of the region.

488 By integrating these new data with a multi-material dataset of literature data, we developed three
489 isoscapes of bioavailable Sr distribution for South America and the studied region (c.a. 370,000 km²)
490 using advanced random forest modelling. Among the tested approaches, the
491 plant+fauna+lichen+human and plant+lichen models achieved the best predictive performance, while
492 the addition of water and soil reduced model performance due to their lower representativeness of
493 locally bioavailable Sr.

494 Despite the limited dataset, the resulting models show robust predictive performance even at the
495 continental scale. This result demonstrates how well-designed local sampling strategies can ensure
496 reliable regional models that maintain their relevance and applicability at larger spatial scales. Beyond
497 providing a new baseline for environmental, archaeological, and palaeoecological research in
498 southern Brazil, our study highlights an important methodological insight: strategically constructed
499 regional datasets can play a key role in refining continental-scale isoscapes. Future efforts should
500 focus on expanding high resolution datasets across underrepresented geological domains.

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Author Contribution

C.S. was in charge of Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Roles/Writing - original draft and Writing - review & editing;
T.G. was in charge of Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Visualization, Roles/Writing - original draft and Writing - review & editing;
L.P. was in charge of Data curation, Formal analysis;
D.L. was in charge of Data curation;
M.C. was in charge of Data curation;
S.B. was in charge of Formal analysis;
S.B. was in charge of Data curation;
G.M. was in charge of Data curation;
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F.L. was in charge of Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Data curation, Investigation, Methodology, Software, Visualization, Roles/Writing - original draft and Writing - review & editing;

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1080 **Supplement**

1081 Supplement Table S1: literature dataset of $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ from South America used to construct the random
1082 forest models. The dataset is updated in September 2025.

1083

1084 Supplement Text S1: models and parameters for the ‘All’ and plant+fauna+lichen+human dataset.