



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

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9

10 **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 <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr ratio  
15 in the environment is largely controlled by the underlying geology through the composition of local  
16 soils and rocks.



17 In this work, we present a new dataset of bioavailable  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratios derived from  $n = 233$  plant  
18 samples collected across southern Brazil, covering the states of Santa Catarina and Rio Grande do  
19 Sul (c.a. 370,000 km<sup>2</sup>). The measured ratios span from 0.70521 to 0.76039 and capture the  
20 bioavailable Sr isotope signatures over all major geological units in the region.

21 We combined these new data with an extensive compilation of published bioavailable Sr  
22 measurements from across South America (including plants, fauna, ancient human remains, shells,  
23 snails, lichens, water and soils) to construct three random forest Sr isoscapes using different subsets  
24 of the combined dataset at the regional and continental scales. The first model incorporates the entire  
25 dataset ('All' dataset,  $n = 883$  sites), the second is based on plant+fauna+lichen+human ( $n = 661$   
26 sites) and the third is limited to plant+lichen samples ( $n = 531$  sites). Among the three models, the  
27 full dataset model shows lower predictive power, while the plant+fauna+lichen+human and the  
28 plant+lichen models yield better results, with similar RMSE (0.0049 and 0.0054) and  $R^2$  values (ca.  
29 0.76). Compared to existing Sr isoscapes of South America, our models significantly enhance both  
30 spatial coverage and resolution of bioavailable Sr predictions, particularly in southern Brazil.

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

34

## 35 **1 Introduction**

36 Maps of isotopic variability through the landscape are powerful tools used for answering questions  
37 related to migration, trade, diet, provenance, forensic investigations, and environmental changes in  
38 both modern and ancient contexts (e.g. Hobson, 1999; Benson et al., 2006; Makarewicz and Sealy,  
39 2015; Bataille et al., 2018, 2020; Hoogerwerff et al., 2019; Lugli et al., 2022; Gigante et al., 2023;  
40 Armaroli et al., 2024, Asrat et al., 2025; Dosseto et al., 2025; Scaggion et al., 2025b).

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

45 Radiogenic  $^{87}\text{Sr}$  originates by  $\beta$ -decay of rubidium-87 ( $^{87}\text{Rb}$ ), while  $^{86}\text{Sr}$  is stable. Consequently, the  
46  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratio in rocks and minerals changes depending on their  $^{87}\text{Rb}$  content, their ages and  
47 geological history providing characteristic isotopic signatures for different geological domains (Faure  
48 and Mensing, 2005; Dickin, 2018). Through alteration and pedogenetic processes, Sr ions are leached  
49 from rocks into soils and waters, where they mix with other Sr pools derived from rainfall, snow,  
50 groundwater, atmospheric deposition or anthropic activities (Vitousek et al., 1999; Voerkelius et al.,



51 2010). These processes can shift the local Sr isotopic signature away from the original bedrock. From  
52 soil and water, Sr enters the local ecosystem (Bullen et al., 1996; Capo et al., 1998). This bioavailable  
53 Sr is passively absorbed by plant roots and transported to leaves, where  $\text{Sr}^{2+}$  substitutes for calcium<sup>2+</sup>  
54 (Ca) in metabolic processes (Poszwa, 2000; White and Broadley, 2003). From plants and water, the  
55 bioavailable Sr enters the local trophic chain. In vertebrates, Sr replaces Ca in the crystalline structure  
56 of carbonated-hydroxyapatite (Pors Nielsen, 2004; Bentley, 2006), the main inorganic constituent of  
57 bones and teeth (Weiner and Wagner, 1998; Hughes and Rakovan, 2002). Thus, the  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratios  
58 of bone and dental tissues reflect those of water, plants and animals consumed, which, in turn, mirror  
59 the bioavailable isotopic signature of the environment (Schwarcz et al., 2010; Crowley et al., 2017).  
60 Although isotopic fractionation can occur along the trophic chain and through metabolic processes,  
61 its enrichment is generally minimal (Lahtinen et al., 2020) and can be effectively corrected using  
62 standard normalization protocols during mass spectrometry analysis (Fietzke and Eisenhaure, 2006;  
63 Frei and Frei, 2011; Spies et al., 2025). For this reason, the isotopic composition of low-mobility  
64 fauna and plants represents a valuable, though not exclusive, *proxy* for estimating the local  
65 bioavailable Sr isotope signatures (Spies et al., 2025). However, deciphering environmental  
66 heterogeneity and trophic complexity is not always straightforward; therefore, integrating multiple  
67 isotopic and environmental datasets is crucial for constructing robust isoscapes.  
68 Over the last decade, advances in spatial modelling and machine learning techniques such as kriging  
69 and random forest algorithms (e.g. Bataille et al., 2018, 2020; Hoogerwerff et al., 2019; Gigante et  
70 al., 2023; Armaroli et al., 2024; Scaggion et al., 2025b; Spies et al., 2025), have significantly  
71 increased the predictive potential of isoscapes models, by linking spatial isotopic variability to  
72 environmental predictors (Bataille et al., 2020). One of the main challenges, however, remains the  
73 acquisition of spatially representative and geologically diverse samples, making well designed  
74 sampling strategies crucial for developing accurate predictive models.  
75 Brazil represents a particularly interesting case study for Sr isoscape research, due to its geological  
76 diversity and rich archaeological and ecological history. In southern Brazil, the states of the Santa  
77 Catarina (SC) and Rio Grande do Sul (RGS) encompass various geological formations, from ancient  
78 Precambrian crystalline rocks to younger sedimentary basins, which provide a good opportunity to  
79 test the spatial resolution, robustness, and applicability of Sr isoscapes. Despite the relevance of Brazil  
80 for provenance studies in archaeology, ecology, and food authentication, to date a comprehensive  
81 isoscape of bioavailable Sr has not been produced.  
82 In this study, we present a newly generated dataset of  $n = 233$  plant samples, collected across SC and  
83 RGS, representing all major geological units of the region (c.a. 370,000 km<sup>2</sup>). This dataset was  
84 integrated with a literature-based compilation of bioavailable Sr data from across South America to



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

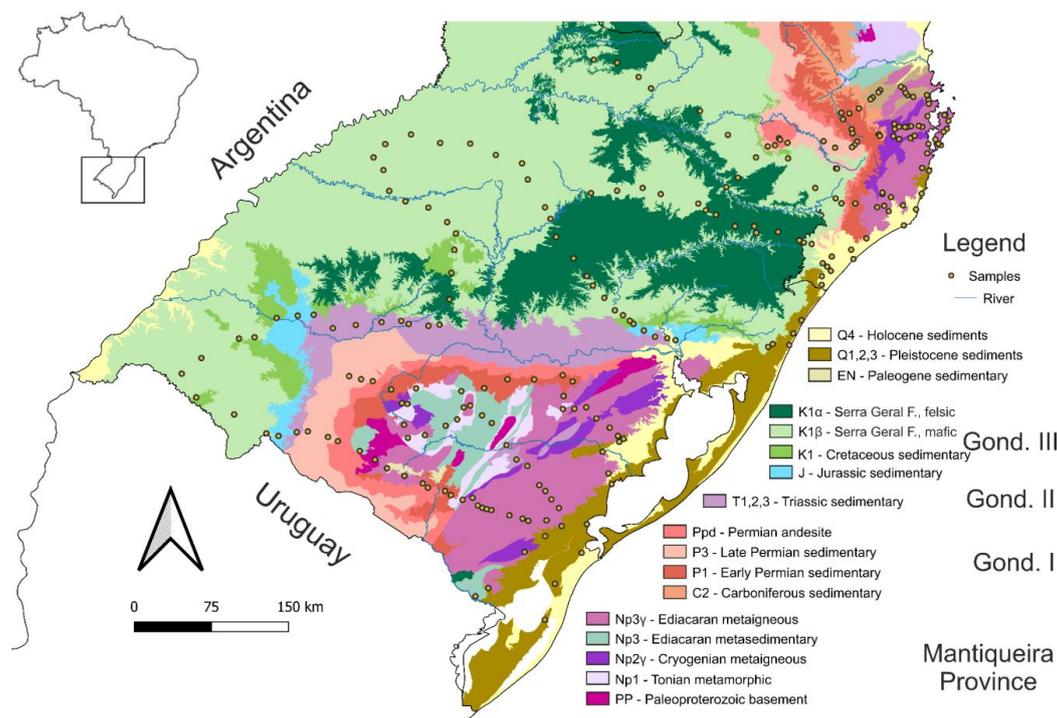
89 The sampled region represents a pivotal area for understanding the expansion of pre-Columbian  
90 populations, constituting pass-through areas that facilitated the spread of natives such as the Guaraní,  
91 who from approximately the 5th c. AD gradually occupied the continent from the Amazon to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

95

## 96 **2 Geology**

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

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



106

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 divided for the two main geological domains of the area: the Mantiqueira Province and  
110 the Paran Basin. The supergroups of the latter are divided according to Milani et al. (2007).

111

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

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



125 Philipp et al., 2018). The belt includes the voluminous granites of the Pelotas Batholith dated between  
126 650 and 580 Ma. The São Gabriel Terrane, located west of the Dom Feliciano Belt, comprises  
127 volcanic-arc sequences, ophiolitic remnants, and accretionary complexes. Geochemical data indicate  
128 that it represents an intra-oceanic arc formed between 900 and 700 Ma, subsequently accreted to the  
129 continental margin during the Brasiliano Orogeny (Cerva-Alvez et al., 2021). The Dom Feliciano  
130 Belt is also exposed along the coast in the eastern part of SC where it includes the Florianópolis  
131 granitic batholiths and the metavolcanic–sedimentary sequences (Brito Neves et al., 2014; Philipp et  
132 al., 2018).

133 The Paraná Basin is one of the world’s largest intracratonic sedimentary basins, covering  
134 approximately 1.4 million km<sup>2</sup> across Brazil, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Argentina (Holz et al., 2010;  
135 Scherer et al., 2023). It developed over the consolidated Precambrian basement during a long-lived  
136 post-orogenic to extensional tectonic regime that lasted from the Ordovician to the Cretaceous.

137 Milani et al. (2007) divided the Paraná Basin succession into six different second-order  
138 supersequences (from oldest to youngest): Rio Ivaí, Paraná, Gondwana I, Gondwana II, Gondwana  
139 III (which includes the Serra Geral) and Bauru. In the studied area, the exposed units comprise: (1)  
140 Carboniferous-Permian volcanic-sedimentary units of the Gondwana I Supersequence (Itararé group  
141 and the Rio Bonito, Palermo and Irati formations); (2) Triassic sedimentary rocks of the Santa Maria  
142 Formation belonging to the Gondwana II Supersequence; and (3) Jurassic volcanic rocks of the Serra  
143 Geral Formation and aeolian sandstones of the Botucatu Formation, representing the Gondwana III  
144 Supersequence.

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



158 One of the main geological domains in southern Brazil is the Serra Geral Formation which records  
159 the bimodal volcanism of the Paraná-Etendeka Large Igneous Province (LIP). This volcanic province  
160 covers an area of approximately 1,200,000 km<sup>2</sup> in South America, extending across Brazil, Argentina,  
161 Uruguay and Paraguay, and constitutes the upper volcanic portion of the Paraná Basin (e.g. Peccerillo  
162 and Melfi, 1988). The magmatism has a bimodal character, with tholeiitic basalts and andesites as the  
163 dominant lithologies coupled with subordinate more silicic rocks (rhyodacite and rhyolite, also  
164 occurring as high-grade ignimbrites; Peate et al., 1992; Luchetti et al., 2018). The eruptive history is  
165 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  
166 Ma for the extrusive activity (Gomes and Vasconcelos, 2021). The Sr isotopic composition of this  
167 magmatism is extremely variable (e.g. <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr<sub>130</sub> between 0.705-0.728; Peate et al., 1992), reflecting  
168 significant crustal contamination during magmas ascent and/or derivation from metasomatized  
169 mantle sources (e.g. Giovanardi et al., 2022). These volcanic rocks form a plateau in the western part  
170 of the studied area separated from other geological domains by a stiff cliff.

171

### 172 **3 Material and Methods**

#### 173 *3.1 Materials*

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

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

184

#### 185 *3.2 Isotopic analyses*

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



192 column. Sr separation was performed using a standard procedure in ~30  $\mu\text{l}$  columns filled with the  
193 100-150  $\mu\text{m}$  bead size Eichrom Sr-spec Resin (Eichrom Technologies, LLC) as described in  
194 Argentino et al. (2021). The Sr was eluted with MilliQ<sup>®</sup> water. Through the chromatographic  
195 separation runs,  $n = 5$  blanks were produced to monitor possible contamination during the procedure.  
196 Strontium isotope ratios ( $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$ ) of 197 samples were measured with the Thermo Scientific  
197 NEPTUNE Plus multi-collector ICP-MS (MC-ICPMS) at the HUN-REN Institute for Nuclear  
198 Research (ATOMKI), Debrecen, Hungary. Isotopic ratios were corrected for instrumental mass  
199 discrimination using  $^{88}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} = 8.375209$  and by applying an interference correction for  $^{87}\text{Rb}^+$ ,  $^{84}\text{Kr}^+$   
200 and  $^{86}\text{Kr}^+$  with  $^{85}\text{Rb}^+$  and  $^{83}\text{Kr}^+$ , respectively. The same method, shared between the two laboratories  
201 (Cavazzuti et al., 2021), was used to analyse  $n = 36$  samples at the laboratory of the Centro  
202 Interdipartimentale Grandi Strumenti of Unimore using a Thermo Scientific NEPTUNE MC-ICPMS.  
203 Data reduction was performed with a modified version of the ‘SrDR’ spreadsheet (Lugli et al., 2020).  
204 Data are available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17988601> (Scaggion et al., 2025a).

205

### 206 3.3 – *Quality assessment of isotopic data*

207 A poor chromatographic removal of Rb from sample could led to overestimate the  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratio due  
208 to the isobaric interference of  $^{87}\text{Rb}$  on  $^{87}\text{Sr}$ . Before isotopic analyses, the Rb and Sr concentration of  
209 separate solutions were determined using a triple quadrupole ICPMS iCAP TQ (Thermo Fisher) at  
210 the laboratory of the Centro Interdipartimentale Grandi Strumenti of Unimore. The instrument was  
211 calibrated using a calibration curve for Rb, Sr and In from 1 to 1000 ppb, based on the international  
212 reference material IV-ICPMS-71A. Samples containing Rb higher than 0.5 ppb and with Rb/Sr ratio  
213 higher than 0.005 were reprocessed through a second chromatographic separation.

214 Possible contamination during the chromatographic separation has been evaluated with blank samples  
215 which were monitored using their signals V for ion counting during the isotopic analyses at the Centro  
216 Interdipartimentale Grandi Strumenti of Unimore. The signals of masses were indistinguishable from  
217 the instrument background.

218 To provide homogeneous reproducibility of the data, both laboratories share the same analytical  
219 protocol already used in other publications (e.g. Cavazzuti et al., 2021). The international Sr carbonate  
220 isotope Standard Reference Material NBS987 produced by the National Institute of Standard and  
221 Technology (NIST) was used as external standard for instrumental bias correction by both  
222 laboratories. Each session includes the analysis of three samples bracketed by the NBS-987 reference  
223 material. The instrumental bias was corrected independently in each analytical session normalizing  
224 to an accepted NBS-987 value of 0.710248 (McArthur et al., 2001). The average  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  value of



225 the NBS-987 of all the sessions in HUN-REN laboratory is  $0.710329 \pm 0.000006$  and the average  
226 value of Unimore is  $0.710250 \pm 0.000014$ .

227

### 228 3.4 Statistical analysis and geospatial modelling

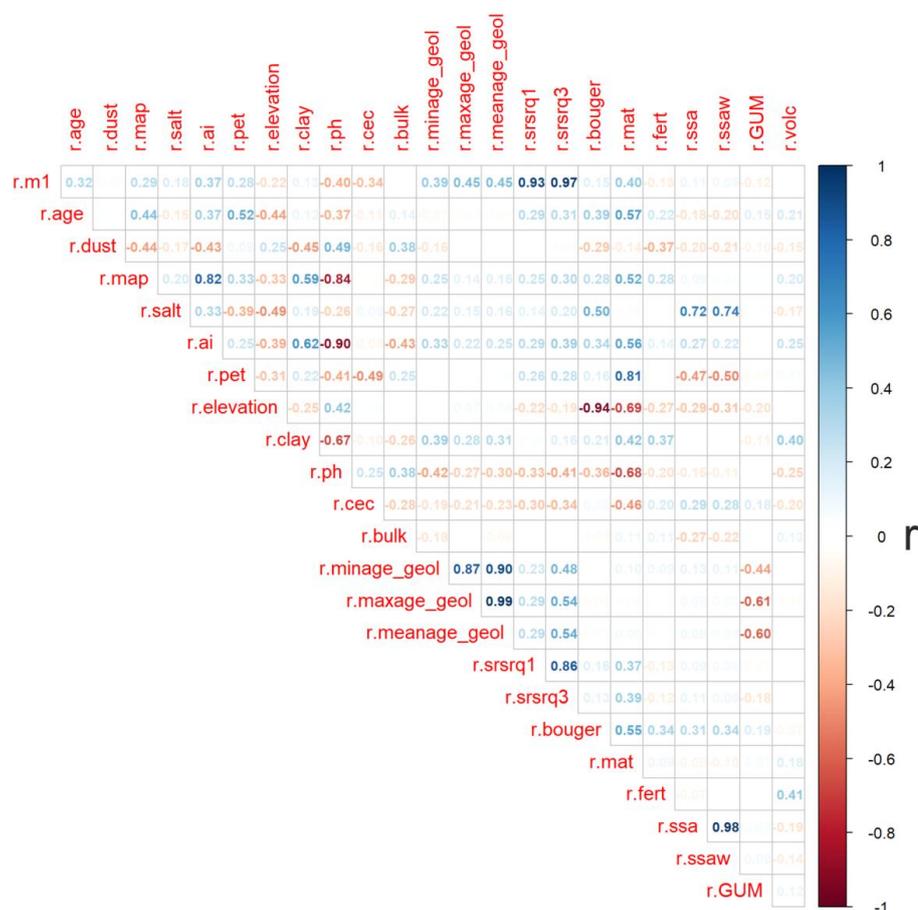
229 We built the Sr isoscapes of South America by combining the new Sr isotope dataset of 233 plant  
230 samples with literature data. The latter includes the Isoarch South America dataset (Salesse et al.,  
231 2018, 2020), excluding rock samples, and additional published sources (see Supplement Table S1)  
232 for a total of 1588 data points. The final dataset used for the model includes 1821 data from 883 sites  
233 (i.e. same coordinate samples) divided in 9 categories as follows: plant, fauna (archaeological  
234 remains, non-local excluded based on publication results), human (archaeological remains, non-local  
235 excluded), shell, snail, lichen, water and soil. The dataset is updated to September 2025. We  
236 constructed three different models, the first utilizing the whole dataset (hereafter ‘All’ dataset), the  
237 second limited to plant+fauna+lichen+human (661 sites) and the third using only the plant+lichen  
238 samples (531 sites). After a preliminary run of the random forest model, we noticed high prediction  
239 errors for  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values higher than 0.900. We thus excluded from the models  $n = 5$  ‘anomalous’  
240 values of river waters from the Parguaza Batholith (Venezuela;  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr} > 0.900$ ) from Edmond et al.  
241 (1995). Here, we mainly focus on the plant+lichen isoscape, while the other models are reported in  
242 the Supplement Text S1. Note that the quantile colour scale is the same for each model, but rescaled  
243 to the values of the highlighted areas.

244 The dataset was regressed using the random forest machine-learning model from Bataille et al. (2020)  
245 in the R free software (version 4.0.5), which reconstructs the Sr isotopic ratio variability with a  
246 resolution of  $1 \text{ km}^2$ . The method uses external predictors variables to generate multiple decision trees  
247 using each time a random subset of data and covariates. For the models generation we used the global  
248 variables presented in Bataille et al. (2018, 2020) and Reich et al. (2024) as external predictors,  
249 filtering for each model the variables with high correlation ( $-0.80 > r > 0.80$ , Fig. 2) to avoid  
250 multicollinearity in the model and inflation of the variables importance (Strobl et al., 2008), as in  
251 Scaggion et al. (2025b). This resulted in the use of 14 external predictors, which were identical for  
252 the three models: *r.elevation*, *r.bulk*, *r.fert*, *r.dust*, *r.pet*, *r.cec*, *r.meanage\_geol*, *r.ssaw*, *r.ph*, *r.srsrq1*,  
253 *r.clay*, *r.age*, *r.volc* and *r.GUM*.

254 We thus optimized the *mtyr* parameter for the random trees construction at 5 random variables at the  
255 time. The spatial-uncertainty map was generated with the ranger package of Wright and Ziegler  
256 (2017), which calculates a quantile random forest regression, and then halving the random forest  
257  $q_{0.84} - q_{0.16}$  difference (i.e., lower and upper limits of a ~68% interval: Funck et al., 2021 and  
258 Armaroli et al., 2024).



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



264  
 265 Figure 2: Pearson’s correlation coefficients (r) of the external predictors used in the random forest  
 266 model.

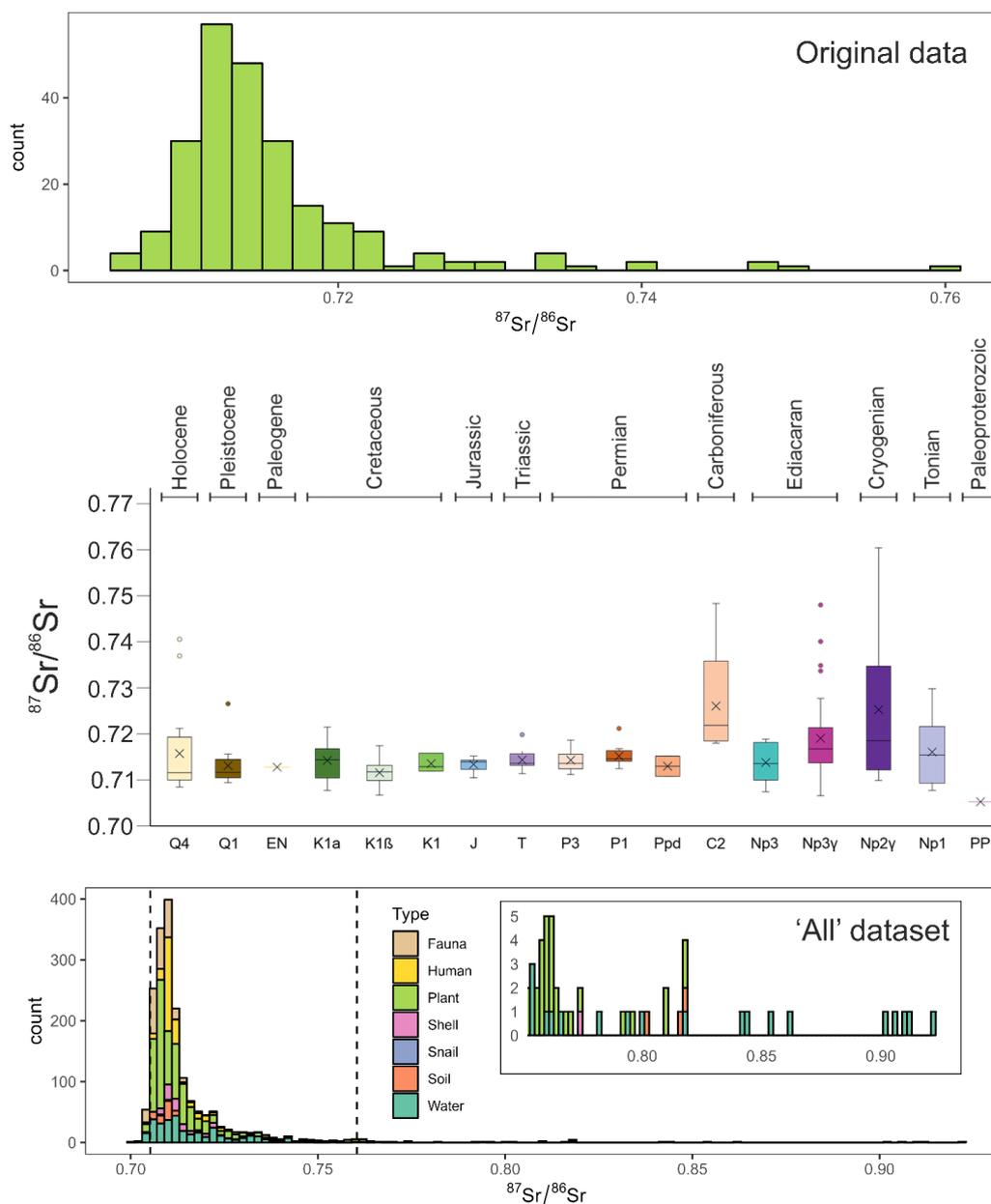
267  
 268 **4 Results**

269 *4.1 <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr of novel plant samples*

270 Collected samples from the studied area yielded a broad range of <sup>87</sup>Sr/<sup>86</sup>Sr ratios, between 0.70521  
 271 and 0.76039 with a median of 0.71360 (Fig. 3). The dataset shows an asymmetric distribution  
 272 (kurtosis = 13.03, skewness = 2.77) with a long tail towards more radiogenic values (Fig. 3). A



273 Shapiro-Wilk test indicates significant deviation from normality ( $W = 0.733$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). To facilitate  
 274 interpretation, results of novel plant samples are presented here according to the underlying  
 275 geological units or rock type as in Fig. 1 and Table 1. We stress however that plants were collected  
 276 from soils developed on these units.



277  
 278 Figure 3: histogram of the whole dataset utilized to construct the isoscape model and of the new plant  
 279 data. Boxplots of the plant samples from SC and RGS clustered by geological units as in Fig. 1: Q4-



280 Holocene sediments; Q1-Pleistocene sediments; EN-Paleogene sedimentary; K1 $\alpha$ -Serra Geral  
 281 Formation, felsic; K1 $\beta$ -Serra Geral Formation, basic; K1-Cretaceous sedimentary; J-Jurassic  
 282 sedimentary; T-Triassic sedimentary; P3-Late Permian sedimentary; P1-Early Permian sedimentary;  
 283 Ppd-Permian andesite; C2-Carboniferous sedimentary; Np3-Ediacaran metasedimentary; Np3 $\gamma$ -  
 284 Ediacaran metaigneous; Np2 $\gamma$ -Cryogenian metaigneous; Np1-Tonian metamorphic; PP-  
 285 Paleoproterozoic basement.  
 286

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 $\alpha$	15	0.71421	0.00412	0.71436	Magmatic - felsic	Cretaceous
K1 $\beta$	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 $\gamma$	51	0.71892	0.00830	0.71659	Metaigneous	Ediacaran
NP3	8	0.71364	0.00428	0.71345	Metasedimentary	Ediacaran
NP2 $\gamma$	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

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

290  
 291 Plants from Holocene sediments (Q4) show values between 0.70843 and 0.74054, with an average of  
 292  $0.71569 \pm 0.00870$  ( $n = 21$ ; error calculated as standard deviation; Fig. 3; Table 1) while those from  
 293 Pleistocene sediments (Q1, Q2, and Q3) have a narrower range from 0.70940 to 0.72650, with an  
 294 average of  $0.71306 \pm 0.00481$  ( $n=11$ ), similar to only one Paleogene sample (EN) with a value of  
 295  $0.71273 \pm 0.00002$  (Table 1). Plants from both sedimentary groups show anomalous values (Fig. 3).

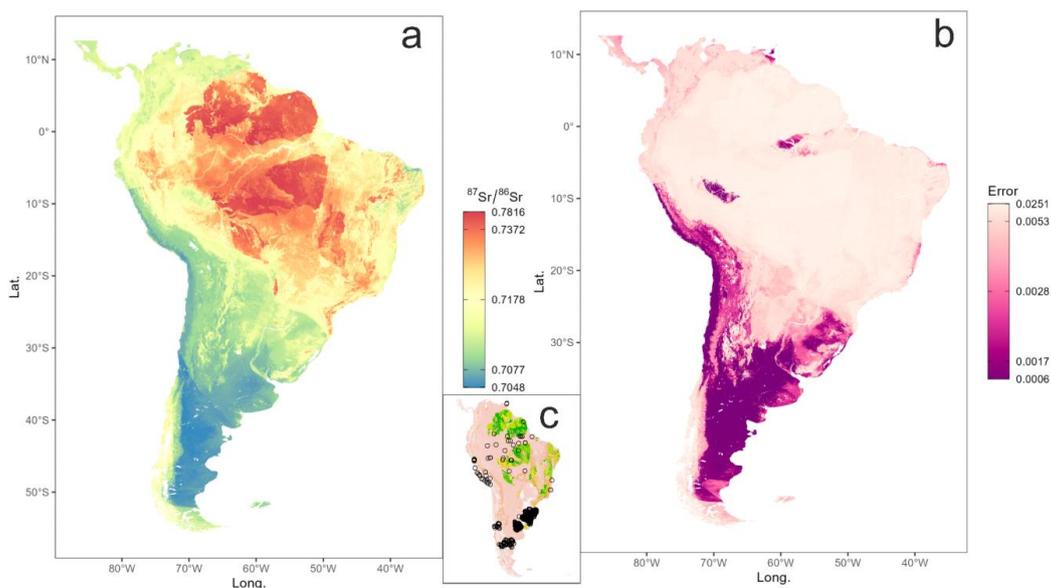


296 Samples from the Cretaceous felsic volcanics units of the Paraná LIP (K1 $\alpha$ ) show higher values  
297 (between 0.70766 and 0.72147; average of  $0.71421 \pm 0.00412$ ,  $n = 15$ ) than those from the basic  
298 volcanics units (K1 $\beta$ ; between 0.70666 and 0.71741; average of  $0.71156 \pm 0.00226$ ,  $n = 46$ ; Fig. 3,  
299 Table 1). Plants from Cretaceous sediments of the Paraná Basin (K1) have similar K1 $\alpha$  values,  
300 (0.71191 and 0.71578; average of  $0.71351 \pm 0.00202$ ;  $n = 3$ ; Table 1), almost indistinguishable from  
301 those from Jurassic sediments (J; between 0.71045 and 0.71515; average of  $0.71335 \pm 0.00151$ ;  $n =$   
302 8; Fig. 3, Table 1). Plants from other sedimentary units of the Paraná Basin (i.e., T, P1, and P3 units)  
303 show progressive radiogenic enrichment over time (averages at  $0.71432 \pm 0.00203$ ;  $0.71429 \pm$   
304  $0.00292$ ;  $0.71516 \pm 0.00204$ , respectively). Samples from Permian volcanics (Ppd) have comparable  
305 values, between 0.71118 and 0.71554 with an average of  $0.71336 \pm 0.00309$  ( $n = 2$ ; Table 1). In  
306 contrast, plants from Carboniferous sedimentary rocks (C2), have a distinct and more radiogenic  
307 signature between 0.71796 and 0.74832, average at  $0.72604 \pm 0.01263$  ( $n = 5$ ; Fig. 3, Table 1).  
308 Samples collected from units of the Mantiqueira Province show broader ranges and generally higher  
309 values than those from Paraná Basin samples (except for C2 unit; Fig. 3). Plants from Ediacaran  
310 sediments of the Dom Feliciano Belt (Np3) yielded  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values between 0.70733 and 0.71871,  
311 with an average of  $0.71364 \pm 0.00428$  ( $n = 8$ ), while plants from metagneous units (Np3 $\gamma$ ) show  
312 higher and more variable values (0.7064 to 0.74790, with an average of  $0.71892 \pm 0.00830$ ;  $n = 51$ ;  
313 Fig. 3, Table 1). Samples from Cryogenian metagneous units from the São Gabriel Terrane (Np2  $\gamma$ )  
314 show the widest range in the dataset (from 0.70987 to 0.76039; average of  $0.72522 \pm 0.01727$ ;  $n =$   
315 10; Fig. 3, Table 1). Plants from the Tonian metasedimentary units (Np1) show values between  
316 0.70769 and 0.72978 with an average of  $0.71601 \pm 0.00732$  ( $n = 9$ ; Fig. 3, Table 1). Finally, the  
317 sample from the Paleoproterozoic basement (PP) yielded the lowest value of the entire dataset  
318 ( $0.70521 \pm 0.00002$ ; Table 1).

319

#### 320 *4.2 Random forest models*

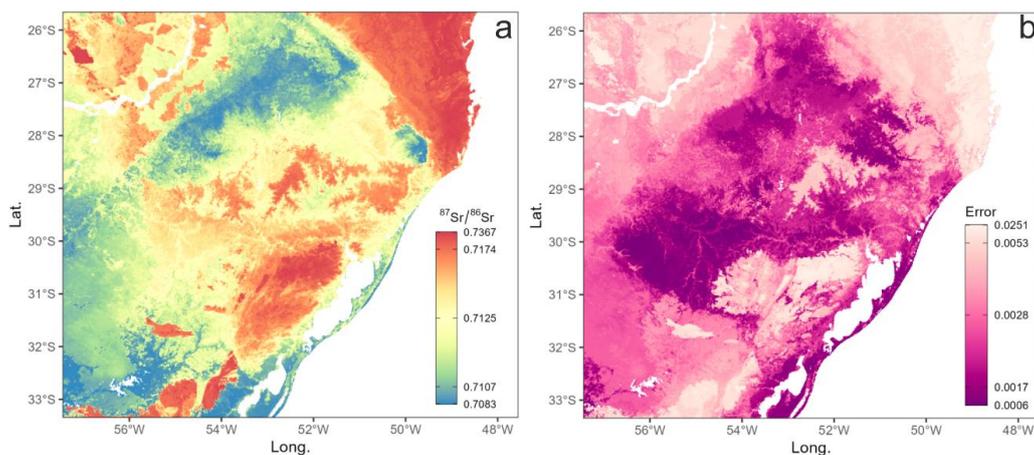
321 The three constructed isoscape models clearly distinguish the most radiogenic areas of the SC and  
322 RGS, which often correspond to the oldest geological units in the region (Figs 4 and 5). In all models,  
323 the associated errors are higher in these radiogenic areas (Figs 4 and 5), indicating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



325

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

329



330

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

334



335 Evaluation metrics reported in Table 2 show significant differences between the datasets: the model  
336 based on the ‘All’ dataset exhibits the lowest predictive power, with a RMSE of 0.0086 and an  $R^2$  of  
337 0.639, while the models built on the plant+fauna+lichen+human and the plant+lichen datasets show  
338 similar RMSE values of 0.0049 and 0.0054 respectively, and an  $R^2$  of c.a. 0.76 each. The lower  
339 variance observed in these latter models likely reflects the smaller number and lower variability of  
340 samples compared to the ‘All’ dataset, which includes outliers with  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  higher than 0.818 in  
341 water samples (Fig. 3).

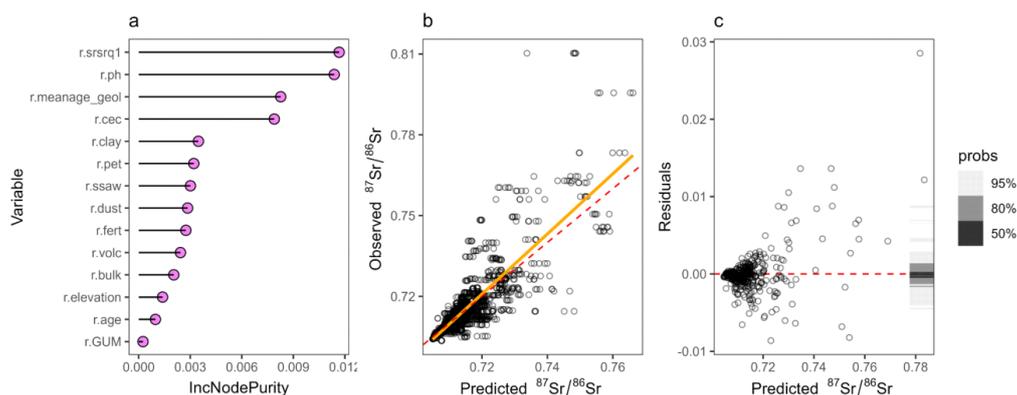
342

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	531	14	0.0054	0.764	0.0027

343 Table 2: evaluation metrics of the models.

344

345 The evaluation of the predictive power of the independent variables using the Increase in Node Purity  
346 (IncNodePurity; Fig. 6; Supplement Text S1), shows that in the plant+fauna+lichen+human and  
347 plant+lichen models, the most relevant variables are *r.srsrq1* (predicted first quartile of the global  
348  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  bedrock model; Bataille et al., 2018) and *r.ph* (soil pH in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  solution x10; Bataille et al.,  
349 2020), both with IncNodePurity values just below 0.012 (Fig. 6), followed by *r.meanage\_geol* (GLiM  
350 age attribute in Myrs; Bataille et al., 2020) and *r.cec* (cation exchange capacity; Bataille et al., 2020)  
351 with values of around 0.009, while all other variables have a contribution lower than 0.004 (Fig. 6).  
352 Notably, a 2D-Partial Dependence Plot (PDP, Fig. 7) shows a nonlinear interaction between *r.ph* and  
353 *r.srsrq1*, and indicates that the RF model predicts higher  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratios when pH is low and - as  
354 expected - when the *r.srsrq1* bedrock model value is high. (Fig. 7).



355

356 Figure 6: Predictive variables and model accuracy for random forest model based on plant+lichen

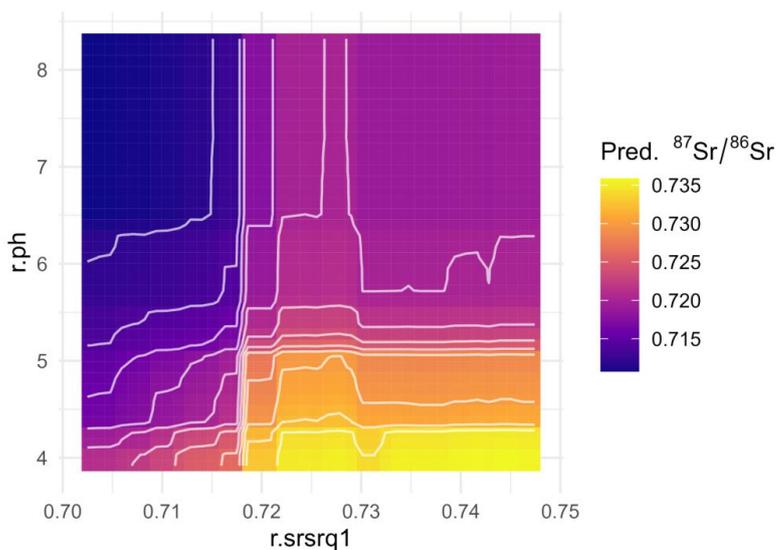
357 samples. Increase in Node Purity (IncNodePurity) of the  $n = 14$  external predictors (a); cross-

358 validation scatterplot of observed vs. predicted  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values for the test-validation sample splits

359 (b); model residuals vs. predicted  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratios (c).

360

361



362

363 Figure 7: 2D Partial Dependence Plot for predictive variables  $r.srsrq1$  and  $r.ph$  for random forest

364 model based on plant+lichen samples.

365

366 In contrast, within the ‘All’ model the most predictive variable is  $r.pet$  (global potential evo-

367 transpiration; Bataille et al., 2018) with an IncNodePurity value equal to 0.038, followed by  $r.ph$  at



368 0.020, *r.age* (Terrane age attribute in Myrs; Bataille et al., 2020) at 0.018, and *r.cec* and *r.srsrq1* at  
369 0.015 (Supplement Text S1).

370

## 371 **5 Discussion**

### 372 *5.1 Validation of the novel dataset against bedrock geology*

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

377 The asymmetric statistical distribution of  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  values observed in the novel dataset (Fig. 3),  
378 characterized by a long tail toward more radiogenic ratios, reflects the geological complexity of the  
379 area and the variety of contributing lithologies (Cryogenian igneous rocks, Ediacaran sedimentary  
380 sequences, Cretaceous volcanic flows, etc.). The presence of anomalous values among the plants  
381 growing on Holocene and Pleistocene sediments can be explained by the heterogeneity of the deposits  
382 (fluvial, marine, aeolian) and the characteristics of the parental lithologies.

383 The more radiogenic values of plants samples growth on soils from felsic igneous and metamorphic  
384 units compared to igneous basic and sedimentary units (e.g. units K1 $\alpha$ , magmatic felsic, and K1 $\beta$ ,  
385 magmatic basic with the same age), are consistent with well-known geological differentiation  
386 processes, as Rb commonly behaves as a more incompatible element in magmatic and metamorphic  
387 processes than Sr, thus becoming enriched during fractionation, forming rocks with higher or lower  
388 Rb content, which over time produce higher or lower  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratios, as in K1 $\alpha$  and K1 $\beta$ , respectively.  
389 Another aspect related to geology, is the increase of the  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratio in rocks with time, which we  
390 expect to be reflected in the derived soil and then in the local vegetation. The plant dataset presented  
391 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.  
392 3; Table 1) as observed for the Paranà Basin samples vs. Mantiqueira Province ones.

393 All these evidences suggest that the dataset is in overall agreement with bedrock geology which is  
394 the primary source of bioavailable Sr in nature.

395

### 396 *5.2 Limits, advantages and predicting variables of the random forest models*

397 Across the developed models, higher spatial uncertainties are associated with the most radiogenic  
398 areas of SC and RGS, generally corresponding to the oldest geological units in the area (Figs. 4, 5).  
399 This pattern, also reported in random forest models from the literature (e.g., Bataille et al., 2018;  
400 Gigante et al., 2023; Scaggion et al., 2025b), reflects the pronounced contrast in isotope composition  
401 between radiogenic bedrock and less radiogenic end-members such as aerosols, seawater, and



402 precipitation. Such contrast complicates the mixing relationships processes that govern the  
403 bioavailable Sr isotope signature. Another parameter that influences model accuracy and associated  
404 errors is the uneven distribution of samples on a continental scale. Nonuniform sampling tends to  
405 introduce bias towards specific geological contexts, thereby limiting the ability to generalize  
406 predictions in unrepresented areas.

407 The improved performance observed in the plant+fauna+lichen+human and plant+lichen models,  
408 compared to the ‘All’ dataset, can be attributed to the reduced variability of the data, which limits the  
409 influence of outliers and improves the overall model stability. The absence of significant differences  
410 in the predictiveness between these two best performing models may reflect i) nonuniform and  
411 incomplete geographic coverage associated with water and soil sampling strategies, and ii) the limited  
412 representativeness of inorganic samples compared to biological and bioderived materials in  
413 representing the local terrestrial bioavailable Sr signature, as recently reported by Spies et al. (2025).  
414 In this regard, for random forest models, a smaller but more geologically representative dataset of  
415 biological samples is preferable over a larger but uneven dataset. Indeed, the latter reduces the  
416 representativeness of the isotopic variability and, consequently, compromises the accuracy and  
417 reliability of the models. Conversely, a smaller dataset anchored to the local geological context is  
418 more stable, robust, and useful for modelling (Marsh et al., 2025).

419 The predicted distribution map of the bioavailable  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  isotope ratio shows a consistent  
420 correlation with the data obtained as a function of the variables  $r.srsrq1$  and  $r.ph$ . The combined  
421 marginal effect (Fig.7) between these two independent variables reveals that isotopic predictions are  
422 influenced by non-linear interactions between strontium isotope ratios ( $r.srsrq1$ ) and soil pH ( $r.ph$ ).  
423 Higher  $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$  ratios correlate with more acidic soils, a pattern consistent with pedogenesis on  
424 ancient silicate igneous-metamorphic rocks. In the Amazon region, low pH values result from intense  
425 decomposition of organic matter, which leads to strong leaching of the bedrock and, consequently,  
426 increases Sr availability in the soil. The PDP (Fig. 7) explains how the geological context, pedogenic  
427 processes, and environmental conditions shape the spatio-temporal distribution of Sr isotope values.  
428 Compared to existing Sr isoscapes, this study substantially improves both the spatial coverage and  
429 resolution of bioavailable predictions for South America, particularly southern Brazil. Although  
430 global or continental-scale isoscapes are essential for broader applications, developing regional  
431 models based on dense, geologically informed sampling offer much higher resolution and are  
432 essential for fine-scale provenance studies, such as intra-site archaeological mobility or ecological  
433 habitat use. Despite being focused on SC and the RGS regions, our dataset allowed us to obtain a  
434 reasonably robust continental-scale model with an  $R^2$  of 0.764 (Fig.4). Our model compares  
435 positively with other continental-scale isoscapes (e.g. the bioavailable Sr isoscape of Australia, with



436 an  $R^2$  of 0.590; Dossetto et al., 2025). With this comparison, we do not intend to downplay the  
437 importance of large-scale modeling approaches, which are essential for global applications, but rather  
438 to highlight how carefully planned sampling strategies at the local level can provide robust, useful,  
439 and informative models at larger scales.

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

442

## 443 **6 Data availability**

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

448

## 449 **7 Conclusion**

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

454 By integrating these new data with a multi-material dataset of literature data, we developed three  
455 isoscapes of bioavailable Sr distribution for South America and the studied region (c.a. 370,000 km<sup>2</sup>)  
456 using advanced random forest modelling. Among the tested approaches, the  
457 plant+fauna+lichen+human and plant+lichen models achieved the best predictive performance, while  
458 the addition of water and soil reduced model performance due to their lower representativeness of  
459 locally bioavailable Sr.

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

467

## 468 **Author Contribution**



469 C.S. was in charge of Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology,  
470 Roles/Writing - original draft and Writing - review & editing;  
471 T.G. was in charge of Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition,  
472 Investigation, Methodology, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Visualization,  
473 Roles/Writing - original draft and Writing - review & editing;  
474 L.P. was in charge of Data curation, Formal analysis;  
475 D.L. was in charge of Data curation;  
476 M.C. was in charge of Data curation;  
477 S.B. was in charge of Formal analysis;  
478 S.B. was in charge of Data curation;  
479 G.M. was in charge of Data curation;  
480 M.C.P.S. was in charge of Data curation;  
481 E.B. was in charge of Funding acquisition, Project administration;  
482 A.C. was in charge of Formal analysis, Methodology, Supervision, Roles/Writing - original draft and  
483 Writing - review & editing;  
484 F.L. was in charge of Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Data curation, Investigation, Methodology,  
485 Software, Visualization, Roles/Writing - original draft and Writing - review & editing;

486

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495 N. 1.1, CALL PRIN 2022 PNRR D.D. 1409 14-09-2022 – “CAST Copper Accumulation, Supply,  
496 and Technology among Italian prehistoric societies”, Codice progetto: P202275A2M, Decreto di  
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500

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#### 745 **Supplement**

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

748

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