Strontium isotopes in Chilean rivers: the flux of unradiogenic

continental Sr to seawater.

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17 **Abstract**

- Analyses of Chilean river waters indicate that the average yield of unradiogenic Sr (~517
- moles Sr km⁻² yr⁻¹, 87 Sr/ 86 Sr ~ 0.7057) from western South America (1,220,853 km²) into the
- 20 southeastern Pacific Ocean is ~2-4 times higher than that from Iceland (~110 moles Sr km⁻² yr⁻¹,

⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr ~0.7025) and the Deccan traps, but lower than fluxes of unradiogenic Sr from ocean islands in the Lesser Antilles and Réunion. The Sr flux from western South America accounts for about 1.8% of the annual dissolved Sr delivered to the ocean via rivers. If Chilean rivers analyzed in this study accurately characterize runoff from western South America, active convergent continental margins release about as much unradiogenic Sr to seawater as a 0-1 Myr old mid-ocean ridge segment of equivalent length. Modulations of the flux of unradiogenic Sr from active margins over geologic time scales have to be considered as an additional driving force of change in the marine Sr isotope record, supplementing temporal variations in the submarine hydrothermal flux as a source of unradiogenic Sr to seawater. Such modulations can be driven by changes in the surface exposure of volcanic arc terrains, changes in climate, ocean currents and geographic latitude due to plate tectonics, as well as topographic changes that can affect local rainfall, runoff and erosion.

1. Introduction

Of the radiogenic isotope systems, the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr of continental runoff has been studied most comprehensively (e.g., Faure et al., 1967; Fisher and Stueber, 1976; Wadleight et al., 1985; Åberg and Wickman, 1987; Goldstein and Jacobsen, 1987; Palmer and Edmond, 1989, 1992; Cameron and Hattori, 1997). Prior to the discovery of submarine hydrothermal vents in 1977 the marine Sr isotope record was viewed as reflecting the changing balance between two contrasting continental sources; unradiogenic runoff from unradiogenic basaltic terrains and radiogenic Sr derived from granitic terrains (Brass, 1976). Since the discovery of submarine hydrothermal vents the marine strontium isotope record has generally been interpreted and modeled as a

mixture of unradiogenic hydrothermal Sr and radiogenic continental Sr with minor contributions from the diagenesis of marine sediments (e.g., Albarede et al., 1981; Palmer and Edmond, 1989).

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To date, ~193 exorheic rivers representing ~47% of the total continental runoff have been characterized at least once for ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and Sr concentration (Peucker-Ehrenbrink, in prep., and references therein). Despite this significant body of work, runoff from several large-scale drainage regions remains poorly defined and, thus far, has had to be approximated through comparison of similarities in bedrock characteristics with better-characterized drainage areas (Palmer and Edmond, 1989).

Of all large continental drainage regions (Graham et al., 1999, 2000; Peucker-Ehrenbrink, 2009), the region of South America (1,220,853 km²) that drains into the southeastern Pacific is characterized by the youngest bedrock (~96 Myr) and the highest percentage (37.3%) of exposed extrusive bedrock (Peucker-Ehrenbrink and Miller, 2007). On average, this region also receives abundant rainfall (e.g., New et al., 2002; Muñoz et al., 2007) and generates about 4% of the annual global runoff from the equivalent of 1% of the total continental land area. Surprisingly, we could not find any published Sr isotope analysis of waters draining this region, only a ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr value of 0.7075 for hydrous precipitates in Atacama Desert soils (Rech et al., 2003). Even the comprehensive review of Palmer and Edmond (1989) did not attempt to include this drainage region into the assessment of the continental flux of Sr into the oceans, although they did predict that inclusion of runoff from "relatively young volcanic island are terrains of the western Pacific, Cenozoic platform carbonates and plateau basalts" (Palmer and Edmond, 1989, p. 22) would shift the empirically-determined average ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr of continental runoff from 0.7119 to 0.7114. This study was conducted to estimate the isotope composition and flux of continental Sr to the southeastern Pacific Ocean.

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2. Regional Geology

Rivers investigated in this study were sampled in central and southern Chile and are part of a larger number of mid-size river basins that drain the western side of South America into the southwestern Pacific. As the regional geology and tectonic setting of the western Andes as well as the geological makeup of Chilean drainage basins have recently been summarized (Stern, 2004; Muñoz et al., 2007) we restrict the discussion of these features to a brief summary. The basins investigated by us are dominated by Pleistocene and Holocene sedimentary sequences, which commonly consist of fluvial, alluvial or deltaic deposits. Volcanic sequences are often intercalated with sedimentary units and are mainly composed of volcanic ash, pyroclastics and basaltic to dacitic lavas. These units vary in age from Jurassic to Quaternary. Intrusive and metamorphic rocks are more abundant in the southern river basins. The intrusive rocks include diorites, granites, tonalites, and gabbros, whereas amphibolites, phengites, metapelites, metacherts and rare ultramafic rocks dominate metamorphic sequences of Paleozoic to Triassic age. The locations of the river water samples collected in this area are shown in Figure 1 and are listed in Table 1. The lithologic composition and age structure of large-scale continental drainage regions (Graham et al., 1999, 2000) has been analyzed by Peucker-Ehrenbrink and Miller (2007). Among all drainage regions, the drainage area of western South America stands out as the region with the youngest average bedrock age (96 Myr) and also as the area most dominated by extrusive bedrock (37.3%). The ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr of the basaltic arc rocks from the southern volcanic

zone of the Andes ranges from 0.70384 to 0.70451 (Hickey et al., 1986). These values are

similar to those of the northern Andean volcanic zone, but less radiogenic than the central Andean volcanic zone.

Runoff from Chile into the eastern Pacific Ocean varies strongly with latitude. North of latitude 32.5°S runoff is almost negligible as evaporation dominates the water balance. Muñoz et al. (2007) show that annual runoff increases from less than 100 mm north of 32.5°S to >800 mm south of 35°S, and reaches >2000 mm for the BioBio River and other rivers south of 38°S. Rivers analyzed by us were sampled between latitudes 33.5°S and 42.5°S and thus capture the region that generates the majority of the runoff in Chile. Regions in northern Chile and Peru (36 km³ runoff per year from a Peruvian drainage area of 279,689 km²) generate little runoff into the western Pacific. In contrast, runoff into the eastern Pacific from Colombia (260 km³ yr¹) and Ecuador (116 km³ yr¹, with 48% of the total coming from the Esmeralda River system) is volumetrically significant with respect to the total runoff into the Pacific Ocean from the western side of South America (~1266 km³ yr¹): Peucker-Ehrenbrink, 2009).

3. Sampling and analytical methods

All samples were filtered in the field through 0.45 µm Sterivex HV cartridge filters using 60 ml all-plastic syringes (Henke-Sass-Wolf GmbH) and stored in precleaned 125 ml PE bottles (EP Scientific). Samples were not acidified, but most were kept refrigerated after they had arrived at WHOI. Some basic sample properties such as temperature, pH, and conductivity were determined in the field on some samples (see Table 1).

Samples were analyzed for major anions (Cl and SO₄) by ion chromatography (Dionex). Major and some trace cations (Na, Mg, K, Ca, Rb, Sr, Ba) were determined by single-collector

ICPMS (ThermoFinnigan ELEMENT2). Concentrations of Mg, Ca, Sr and Ba were determined by isotope dilution, whereas Na, K and Rb were quantified using standard calibration curves, prepared from single element standard solutions (NIST 3100 series).

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Strontium was quantitatively separated and purified from the samples using Sr-Spec (Eichrom) resin in 300 µl columns. Samples were loaded in 1 ml 3.5N HNO₃ and Sr was eluted with 5 ml deionized water. Recovery was quantitative and separation from potential isobaric interferences Ca and Rb was excellent, as demonstrated by average ⁸⁸Sr/⁴⁴Ca and ⁸⁸Sr/⁸⁵Rb values in the eluant of $1x10^4$ and $8x10^4$, respectively. Strontium isotope compositions were determined with a ThermoElectron NEPTUNE multicollector ICPMS. Whenever possible we optimized the 88 Sr ion beam intensity to \sim 45 V ($10^{11}\,\Omega$ resistor). Under these conditions \sim 200 ng Sr was consumed per analysis. Krypton and Rb interferences were monitored and corrected off-line. The importance of off-line Kr corrections increases depending on the Kr levels detected at the time of analyses. For reasons we do not fully understand, ion beam intensities on masses 82 and 83 vary over weeks and months between less than 1 mV to >10 mV, and were ~8 mV on the day of analysis. Isobaric interferences from ⁸⁶Kr on ⁸⁶Sr are corrected by using ⁸⁴Kr to subtract Kr until the ⁸⁴Sr/⁸⁸Sr equals the canonical value of 0.00675476 (Hart et al., 2004), while iteratively correcting for mass bias. The fact that the ⁸⁶Sr/⁸⁴Sr is ~17.7 whereas the ⁸⁶Kr/⁸⁴Kr is ~0.3 results in large error demagnification when correcting ⁸⁶Sr for ⁸⁶Kr contributions with this scheme. Two analyses of the NBS 987 standard reference material that were measured with the river water samples and corrected for Kr and instrumental mass bias using the above scheme yielded ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr values of 0.710295 and 0.710298. Reported ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr values are normalized to a NBS 987 value of 0.710240 (see table 1) and are listed to the 5th decimal place owing to the uncertainties in the Kr correction ($\leq \pm 100$ ppm, 2σ).

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4. Results

The analytical data are summarized in Table 1 and the best correlation between concentrations of Sr with any of the major ions, Ca, is shown in Fig 2A. We have also compiled available information on annual runoff (in km³ yr⁻¹) and drainage basin sizes (in km²) (Dirección General de Aguas, 1998; Muñoz et al., 2007) in order to extrapolate our findings to the largescale drainage area of western South America (Graham et al., 1999, 2000). Not all rivers were sampled at their mouths, and some were sampled only along major tributaries (e.g., Calle Calle river in the Valdivia river basin; Tinguiririca river in the Rapel river basin). For instance, the Tinguiririca river (sample 22) was sampled upstream of the confluence with the Cachapoal river (6370 km²; Gobierno de Chile, 2004) that together form the Rapel river. The Tinguiririca drainage basin (4730 km²) is the smaller of the two major tributary basins that make up the Rapel drainage basin (13,695 km²) but we presume that sample 22 is representative of the Rapel river. Despite this deficiency, we presume that the data are representative of the major drainage basins they represent. Where we do have multiple samples from the same river system the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr values are either rather homogeneous (Tolten river), decrease (Itata river) or increase (BioBio river) slightly towards the coast, and thus provide no evidence for systematic bias of the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr values.

In the few cases where data on drainage basin size and/or annual water discharge were unavailable (Mapocho, Rio Llonco, Rio Pichicolo, Rio Huinay) we did not include those river basins in our analysis. This does not significantly bias our results because contributions from those rivers are small owing to their small size (e.g., Huinay, Pichicolo, Lonco), or because their isotope composition and Sr concentration are similar to the large rivers we do have data for (e.g.,

Mapocho). The radiogenic (⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr=0.70986) Andalien river is a small river draining the Coastal Mountain Range between the Itata river in the North and the BioBio river in the South. In contrast to the BioBio and Itata rivers that drain the Andes and are thus affected by both rainfall and snow melt, runoff in the Andalien river is only determined by rainfall in the Coastal Mountain Range that varies smoothly between 10-50 mm per month during the austral summer and 150-200 mm per month during the austral winter (Muñoz et al., 2007). We use an average runoff of 0.48 km³ yr⁻¹ that is based on an average of low (austral summer, 0.08 km³ yr⁻¹) and high (austral winter, 0.9 km³ yr⁻¹) runoff estimates given in Quiñones and Montes (2001). Our estimate of the drainage basin area of ~850 km² is based on a map of the drainage basin outline in Habit et al. (2007). The overall contribution of this radiogenic river to the total flux of Sr is negligible.

5. Discussion

169 5.1. Average ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and Sr concentration of Chilean rivers

The average ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr, weighted according to Sr concentration (average: 0.496 μM) and average discharge from nine rivers, is 0.7057 (Fig. 2B, star). The weighting procedure does not introduce significant bias because ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr does not correlate with Sr concentration and the non-weighted average (0.70537) and median (0.70458) ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr are similar to the flux-weighted isotope composition (0.7057). This weighted average value does not change significantly if corrections are made for atmospheric, i.e. recycled, Sr of marine origin. If all Cl in the rivers is ultimately derived from seawater with a molar Cl/Sr value of 6260, between 1% and 5% of the Sr in most rivers analyzed could be of seawater origin. Exceptions are the Rio Pichicolo (CH049, highest Sr concentration, Fig. 2B) that receives contributions from hydrothermal

springs and two rivers draining into the fjords of southern Chile - the Rio Llonco (CH058) and Rio Huinay (CH059). Based on the Cl concentrations, all of the Sr in the Rio Pichicolo could be of seawater origin, though the isotopic composition of 0.70442 that is similar to values of volcanic rocks in Chile (Hickey et al., 1986; Notsu et al., 1987) demonstrates that this cannot be the case. Based on measured Cl concentrations, as much as one third of the Sr in the Rio Llonco could be derived from seawater. The isotope composition of the Rio Llonco of 0.70908 and the low Sr concentration of 0.016 μM indicates that a significant portion of the riverine Sr could indeed be of marine origin. Correcting for this contribution, however, will not significantly change the Sr isotope composition of the non-marine component. Only 0.25% of the Sr in the Rio Huinay (Fjord district, sample CH059) can be recycled seawater Sr. The isotope composition of 0.70565 indicates that most of the Sr is of non-marine origin, and corrections for marine inputs will not significantly affect this value. In summary, we consider the weighted average ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr of 0.7057 as representative of the continental runoff from Chile into the southeastern Pacific Ocean.

5.2. Average ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and Sr flux to the southeastern Pacific Ocean.

The annual Sr flux from the entire large-scale drainage region of western South America is estimated by extrapolating the results from the Chilean rivers analyzed in this study to the entire large-scale drainage region. The geologic similarities between Peru, Ecuador and Colombia with Chile allow us to assume that the isotope composition of runoff of all the rivers draining into the eastern Pacific is similar to that measured in Chilean rivers. This approach is justified by considering the similarities in ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr between the Northern Volcanic Zone of the Andes (Colombia, Ecuador) and the Southern Volcanic Zone of central and southern Chile (Stern,

2004). The Central Volcanic Zone (southern Peru, northern Chile) is characterized by more radiogenic ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr, but low runoff limits its contribution to the dissolved Sr flux into the eastern Pacific Ocean (see review by Stern, 2004). The extrapolated Sr flux for the entire drainage region of western South America is ~6.3x10⁸ moles per year, equivalent to ~1.8% of the global riverine Sr flux (3.33x10¹⁰ moles per year; Palmer and Edmond, 1989). This flux corresponds to an average Sr yield of 517 moles Sr km⁻² yr⁻¹ that we compare in the following section with estimates from three other extensively studied drainage regions dominated by volcanic lithologies: Iceland (Gannoun et al., 2006), the Lesser Antilles and Réunion (Rad et al., 2007), and the Indian Deccan Traps (Dessert et al., 2001).

- 5.3. Comparison of ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr and Sr flux from the Andean arc with Iceland, the Lesser Antilles and Reunion, and the Deccan Traps.
- Based on sampling of Icelandic rivers that account for ~35 km³ runoff per year, the average Sr concentration in Icelandic rivers is 0.068 µM (6 ng g⁻¹; Gannoun et al., 2006; see Fig. 3, open triangles). This is much less than the runoff-weighted average Sr concentration in Chilean rivers of ~0.5 µM (43 ng g⁻¹). If the dissolved Sr concentration estimated by Gannoun et al. (2006) is typical for Icelandic rivers (170-198 km³ runoff per year; Baumgartner and Reichel, 1975; Dessert et al., 2003), about 1.2x10⁷ moles of dissolved Sr, or 110 moles Sr km⁻² yr⁻¹, are delivered annually to the ocean by Icelandic rivers. Similarly, if the ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr analysis of the Austari Jökulsa of 0.7025 (Gannoun et al., 2006) is characteristic of Icelandic rivers, runoff from Iceland is isotopically similar to the depleted upper mantle.
 - Weathering of the Deccan flood basalts delivers approximately 3.8×10^8 mol Sr yr⁻¹, or 705 moles Sr km⁻² yr⁻¹, equivalent to ~1% of the global riverine flux of Sr to the ocean (Dessert et al.,

2001; Fig. 3, open squares). This flux is derived from an area that accounts for only about 0.5% of the continental land area, indicative of the disproportionate contribution of basalt weathering to continental Sr runoff. Compared to most other large igneous provinces, however, Deccan flood basalts are unusually radiogenic (87Sr/86Sr 0.705-0.715) and thus generate runoff with 87Sr/86Sr of 0.7076 to 0.7149 (average: 0.7098, weighted according to Sr concentration; Dessert et al., 2001). While the isotope composition of runoff from this basalt province is atypical of large volcanic provinces, the Sr flux is likely more representative. However, owing to the radiogenic nature of river draining the Deccan traps, the flux of unradiogenic Sr (87Sr/86Sr of 0.7035) from the Deccan traps is quite low, similar to that from Iceland.

These fluxes can be compared to Sr fluxes from small ocean islands (Rad et al., 2007), such as Martinique (1100 km², ~1.76 km³ yr¹ surface runoff) and Guadeloupe (1179 km², ~3.54 km³ yr¹ surface runoff) in the Lesser Antilles, and Réunion in the Indian Ocean (2512 km², ~6.28 km³ yr¹ surface runoff). We compare the surface (river) runoff from these islands with river data from western South America, Iceland and the Deccan traps, but emphasize that the total Sr flux from these areas may be significantly higher if subterranean Sr fluxes are significant. While the lack of data for subterranean fluxes prevents us from quantifying such contributions for the drainage areas of western South America, Iceland or the Deccan traps, Rad et al. (2007) have quantified subsurface fluxes from small islands of the Lesser Antilles and Réunion. Contributions from surface runoff to the total Sr flux range from 20% (Martinique) to 30% (Réunion) and 60% (Guadeloupe). The unradiogenic Sr yield for these islands (see Fig. 3) could thus easily be higher by factors of 2 (Lesser Antilles) and 3 (Réunion) if the subterranean contributions are taken into account.

5.4. Global significance of unradiogenic Sr runoff from volcanically-dominated continental
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Runoff from western South America combines two important characteristics of runoff from Iceland and the Deccan Traps: unradiogenic Sr and high Sr yields. This drainage region thus yields abundant dissolved Sr that is isotopically more similar to high-temperature (HT) mid ocean ridge (MOR) vent fluids (87Sr/86Sr of 0.70285-0.70465; Bach and Humphris, 1999) and volcanic islands (Louvat, 1997; Rad et al., 2007) than to average continental runoff (87Sr/86Sr of 0.7119; Palmer and Edmond, 1989). We estimate the flux of unradiogenic (87Sr/86Sr of 0.7035) Sr from this region using a model of two-component isotope mixing between an average upper crustal component (87Sr/86Sr of 0.7119; Palmer and Edmond, 1989) and a HT MOR-vent component (87Sr/86Sr of 0.7035; Palmer and Edmond, 1989). With this, the yield of unradiogenic riverine (87Sr/86Sr of 0.7035) Sr from western South America is 377 moles Sr km⁻² yr⁻¹ (equivalent to a total flux of 4.6×10^8 mole yr⁻¹), a factor of 2-3 higher than the yield of unradiogenic Sr from Iceland or the Deccan traps, and a factor of up to two lower that unradiogenic Sr yields from the Lesser Antilles and Réunion (gray symbols in Fig. 3). These yields do not include subterranean contributions that can be significant (e.g. Lesser Antilles, Réunion; Rad et al., 2007), but are not quantified for western South America, Iceland and the Deccan traps.

Estimates of magmatic heat dissipation (6.3-12x10¹⁹ J yr⁻¹; Butterfield et al., 2001) for 0-1 Myr old MOR crust, average fluid temperature (350°C; Palmer and Edmond, 1989; 1624 J g⁻¹, Butterfield et al., 2001) and Sr concentration in such HT fluids (100 μ M; Palmer and Edmond, 1989) allow us to compare the global flux of Sr from HT-vents (3.9-7.4x10⁹ M yr⁻¹) with the flux of unradiogenic Sr from continental arcs. Per length of volcanically active arc (~5000 km for the

Andes), the yield of unradiogenic arc strontium (9.2x10⁴ mole km⁻¹ yr⁻¹) rivals the yield of Sr from HT fluids interacting with a young MOR segment of equivalent length (7.8-14.8x10⁴ mole km⁻¹ yr⁻¹; assuming a global MOR length of 50,000 km). Consequently, temporal variations in the flux of unradiogenic Sr from such unradiogenic continental arcs have the potential to contribute to the observed temporal variations in the seawater ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr record.

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Such temporal variations in runoff can be forced by the plate-tectonic movement of such areas into more humid climate zones. Increases in runoff can also be triggered by topographic uplift that leads to enhanced orographic rainfall and physical erosion (e.g. Ernst, 2004), and by higher temperatures that accelerate weathering reactions. Alternatively, a greater areal abundance of young active margins can lead to enhanced delivery of unradiogenic continental Sr to seawater. Such processes need to be considered as complementary mechanisms to variable submarine hydrothermal Sr emissions for modulating the flux of unradiogenic Sr to seawater (cf. Brass, 1976). However, models of the temporal evolution of unradiogenic Sr fluxes from volcanically-dominated active margins critically depend on reconstructing uplift histories of coastal mountain belts (e.g. Gregory-Wodzicki, 2000; Garzione et al., 2008) that induce orographic rainfall. Such reconstructions need to be focused on the initial uplift, as the first 1000-2000 meters uplift trigger most of the precipitation enhancement (Browning, 1980). Competing factors such as shifts in ocean currents that influence moisture transport to land also need to be taken into account. As the evolution of these factors has not been reconstructed with sufficient temporal resolution and spatial precision (i.e., typical uncertainties of paleoelevation estimates are on the order of 1000-1500 m; Gregory-Wodzicki, 2000; Carzione et al., 2008) for the drainage area of western South America, modeling the effects variable contributions of unradiogenic Sr have had on the evolution of seawater ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr would be highly speculative at this point.

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- 408 Figure 1: Map of South America, Chile (in gray) and sampling area (box). Inset shows
- sampling locations (black circles) and outlines of Chilean river basins sampled in this study. The
- 410 northern Coastal basin includes the Andalien river basin. The southern Coastal basin includes
- 411 the Rio Cisne, the Rio Llonco and the Rio Huinay.

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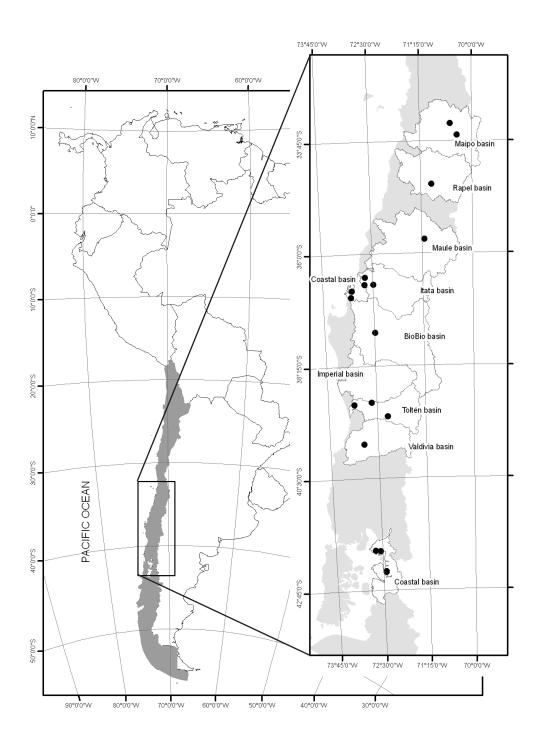
- 413 **Figure 2A:** Strontium (μM, logarithmic scale) versus calcium (mM, logarithmic scale)
- 414 concentrations in rivers draining Chile (filled circles), Iceland (small gray triangles; Gannoun et
- al., 2006), the Indian Deccan Traps (open squares; Dessert et al., 2001), the Lesser Antilles (open
- 416 circles; Rad et al., 2007), and Reunion (large open triangles; Rad et al., 2007). The Chilean
- sample CH049 (Rio Pichicolo) with very high Sr (see Fig. 2B) and Ca concentrations is not
- 418 shown.
- 419 **Figure 2B:** Strontium concentrations (μM, logarithmic scale) versus ⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr in Chilean (filled
- 420 circles), Lesser Antilles (open circles) and Reunion rivers (large open triangles). The average Sr
- 421 concentration (0.50 μ M, 43 μ g l⁻¹) and isotope composition (⁸⁷Sr/⁸⁶Sr=0.7057) of the Chilean
- rivers, weighted according to water flux, is shown as a star.

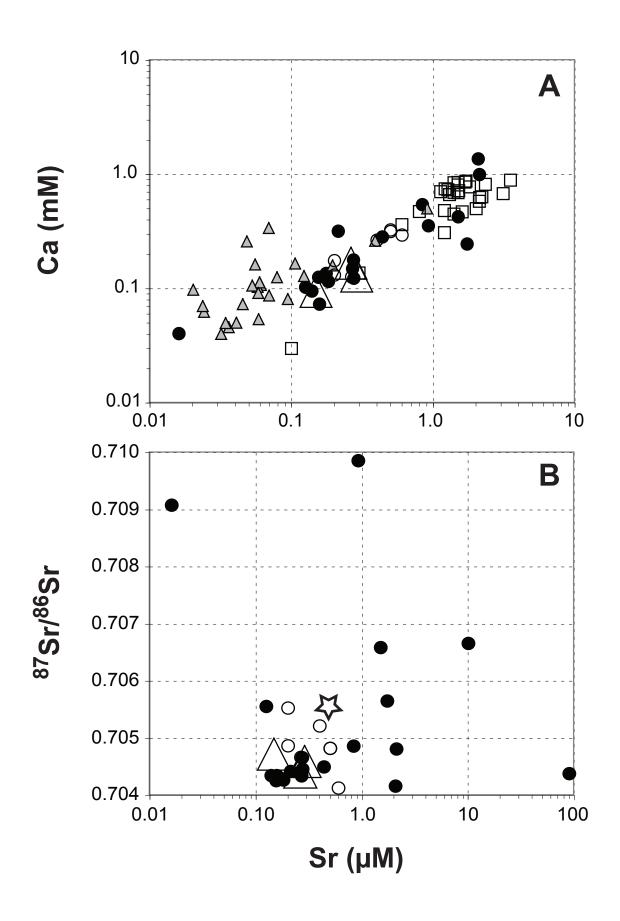
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- 424 **Figure 3:** Strontium yield (area-normalized Sr flux) versus specific surface runoff (area-
- normalized water flux) from western South America (filled circle) the Deccan traps (squares),

Iceland (small gray triangle), Martinique and Guadeloupe (lesser Antilles, open circle), and Reunion (large triangle). The gray symbols represent the yield of unradiogenic Sr (87 Sr/ 86 Sr of 0.7035) from these areas. In the case of Iceland the flux of unradiogenic Sr is assumed to be identical to the total Sr flux, because of the presumed unradiogenic nature of riverine Sr in Iceland (see text for details).

Table 1: Physical and chemical data for rivers in central and southern Chile.





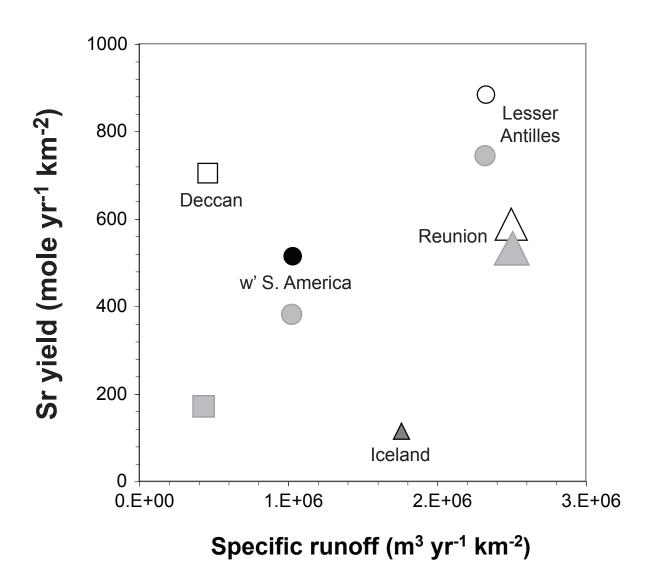


Table 1: Physical and chemical data for rivers in central and southern ChileLarge Total

ID	River	Large River Basin	Total Drainage Basin	Runoff	Latitude	Longitude	Altitude	Date	Time	Temp.	рН	Conduct.	Cl	SO ₄ ²⁻	Na ⁺	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺	K ⁺	Rb ⁺	Sr ²⁺	Ba ²⁺	87 _{Sr/} 86 _{Sr}
units:		km^2	km ³ yr ⁻¹	deg min S	deg min W	m	mm/dd/yr	24 h	°C		μS cm ⁻¹	mM	μM	mM	mM	mM	mM	nM	μM	nM		
1 (CH001)	Mapocho				33°23.687'	70°31.279'	1227	01/28/07					0.15	1894	0.276	0.281	1.37	0.030	37.2	2.07	68.0	0.70416
3 (CH003)	Maipo	Maipo	15,157	3.14	33°37.729'	70°21.288'	940	01/29/07					2.49	3.30		0.387	3.69	0.070	73.9	10.06	85.6	0.70666
22 (Tg 1 Tinguiririca)	Tinguiririca	Rapel	13,695	5.38	34°36.750'	70°58.908'		09/16/06	10:30	9.5	8.6	128.6	0.16	366	0.328	0.110	0.545	0.026	38.6	0.835	25.3	0.70486
6 (CH013)	Maule	Maule	20,865	17.96	35°43.415'	71°10.578'	423	01/31/07					0.19	174	0.365	0.129	0.285	0.033	45.8	0.436	22.3	0.70450
7 (CH026)	Itata	Itata	11,385	11.39	36°27.997'	72°41.498'	17	02/02/07					0.33	3.5	0.905	0.472	0.428	0.046	3.03	1.50	0.13	0.70659
8 (IT 1 Itata 1)	Itata	Itata	11,385	11.39	36°37.453'	72°28.893'		06/28/06	15:20	11.2	7.3	73.2	0.053	29	0.189	0.094	0.124	0.022	24.3	0.275	19.7	0.70446
9 (IT 2 Itata 2)	Itata	Itata	11,385	11.39	36°37.453'	72°41.742'		06/29/06	17:00	10	6.8	79	0.055	34.2	0.177	0.080	0.150	0.026	21.7	0.269	22.5	0.70434
2 (CH02)	Andalien	Andalien	~850	~0.48	36°48.115'	73°58.004'		12/02/04	10:40				0.16	10.2	0.58	0.177	0.356	0.043	17	0.921	70.2	0.70986
4 (CH05)	BioBio	BioBio	24,782	31.69	36°52.128'	73°02.671'		12/02/04	9:00				0.088	50.7	0.238	0.099	0.179	0.025	22.7	0.273	18.2	0.70466
21 (BU 2 Bueno 2)	Bueno	BioBio	24,782	31.69	37°35.200'	72°28.508'		08/22/06					0.036	6.7	0.085	0.043	0.073	0.007	7.52	0.157	16.6	0.70435
11 (CH029)	Tolten	Tolten	8,040	18.4	38°58.633'	72°38.183'	226	02/03/07					0.049	28.1	0.202	0.075	0.126	0.025	22.5	0.155	24.5	0.70426
13 (TL 1 Tolten 1)	Tolten	Tolten	8,040	18.4	39°00.653'	73°04.907'		06/25/06	16:00	11	7.5	28.1	0.040	15.6	0.136	0.056	0.096	0.019	17.3	0.139	13.7	0.70435
12 (CH034)	Tolten	Tolten	8,040	18.4	39°16.46′	72°13.804'	223	02/04/07					0.035	19.3	0.159	0.066	0.116	0.023	22.4	0.182	12.5	0.70427
14 (CH038)	Calle Calle	Valdivia	9,902	29.27	39°48.595'	72°51.89'	14	02/04/07					0.038	16.2	0.118	0.046	0.103	0.016	16.4	0.125	21.0	0.70556
15 (CH048)	Cisne		5,302	12.21	41°57.492'	72°40.682'	34	02/06/07					0.045	12	0.125	0.083	0.136	0.016	11.3	0.175	22.7	0.70429
16 (CH049)	Pichicolo				41°58.495'	72°33.178'	73	02/06/07					2.78	606		0.034	0.320	0.021	39.7	0.213	8.7	0.70442
19 (CH058)	Llonco Fundacion				42°22.434'	72°24.649'	0.3	02/06/07					0.033	12.2	0.042	0.008	0.041	0.006	4.6	0.016	18.9	0.70908
20 (CH059)	Huinay				42°22.863'	72°24.929'	33	02/06/07					0.028	24.5	0.047	0.045	0.246	0.165	19.9	1.73	4.35	0.70565
W' South America			1,220,853	1,273																0.496		0.7057

Notes: Bold-faced numbers have been used for calculating regional averages.