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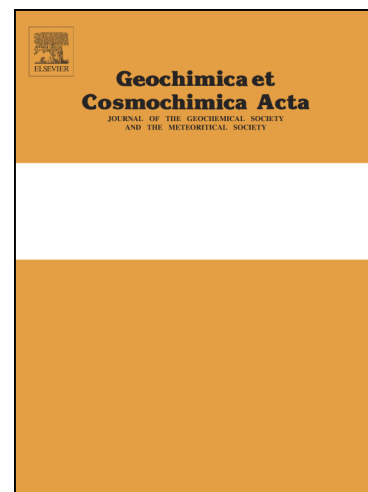
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Thallium concentration and thallium isotope composition of lateritic terrains

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ABSTRACT

Continental weathering plays a key role in modifying the geochemical budget of terrestrial reservoirs. Laterites are the products of extreme sub-aerial continental weathering. This study presents the first investigation of thallium (Tl) abundances and stable isotopic compositions of lateritic terrains. Two laterite profiles from India of differing protolith and age are studied. Thallium concentrations range between 7 – 244 ng/g for a basalt-based lateritic profile and 37 – 652 ng/g within a greywacke lateritic profile. The average Tl stable isotope composition of the two profiles is similar to many typical igneous materials, however, the intense tropical weathering causes a small but resolvable fractionation of Tl stable isotopes towards heavy values in the residual soils. The profiles are dominated by significant positive isotope excursions (reported as $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ relative to standard NBS997) of $+ 3.5 \pm 0.5$ 2sd and $+ 6.2 \pm 0.5$ 2sd at the inferred palaeowater tables within both laterite profiles. These signatures likely reflect combined changes in redox state and mineralogy. Extensive mineral dissolution under through-flowing fluids alongside the formation of new phases such as phyllosilicates and Mn- and Fe- oxides and hydroxides likely account for some of the Tl mobilisation, sorption and coprecipitation. In the case of laterites, the formation of the new phases and role of surface sorption likely contribute to stable Tl isotope fractionation. The identification of strong isotope excursions at inferred palaeowater tables encourages future research to determine specific mineral phases that may drive significant fractionation of Tl stable isotopes. This study showcases the magnitude of natural variation possible in terrestrial soils. Such information is key to the nascent applications of Tl isotope compositions as tracers of anthropogenic pollution.

Keywords: *Laterites, Thallium Isotopes, Ferromanganese Minerals, Birnessite*

1. INTRODUCTION

The weathering of continental landmasses is one of the major modification processes operating on the surface of the Earth. It plays a significant role in the geochemical cycling of elements, from local to global scales. The effects of oxidative weathering on elemental mobility are also an important consideration for environmental impact studies. Improvements in analytical techniques in recent decades have enabled stable isotope analysis for elements spanning the periodic table (e.g., Bullen, 2012, 2014; Wiederhold, 2015; Teng et al., 2017). Such stable isotope investigations (e.g., Cr, Li, Fe, Cu, Ni) are increasingly providing insight both into continental weathering processes (e.g., Huh et al., 1998; Gall et al., 2013; Berger and Frei, 2014; Wiederhold, 2015) and the formation of laterites specifically (e.g., Kisakürek et al., 2004; Poitrasson et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2014). One element and novel isotope system whose weathering behaviour remains relatively unexplored is that of thallium (Tl).

The distribution and behaviour of Tl in terrestrial reservoirs is partly controlled by similarities of its relatively large ionic radius ($Tl^+ = 1.50 \text{ \AA}$) to the alkali metals K^+ , Rb^+ and Cs^+ (Shaw, 1952; Heinrichs et al., 1980). This has been used to explain the observed differences in Tl concentration between continental crust ($\sim 0.5 \text{ \mu g/g}$) and mantle ($\sim 0.003 \text{ \mu g/g}$) (Fig. 1) due to its incompatible behaviour during mantle melting (Shaw, 1952; Heinrichs et al., 1980; Nielsen et al., 2006b; Nielsen et al., 2017a; Prytulak et al., 2017). Ionic charge is also likely to factor into the behaviour of Tl, given its existence in both monovalent and trivalent valence states (Nielsen et al., 2017a). Within low temperature environments, studies have focused largely on the most Tl-enriched reservoirs, hence the comparative wealth of work on ferromanganese (FeMn) crusts and nodules in the marine realm (e.g. Rehkämper et al., 2002; Nielsen et al., 2009, 2011, 2013; Peacock and Moon, 2012). Ferromanganese crusts have some of the highest natural Tl concentrations determined thus far, between $30 - 200 \text{ \mu g/g}$ (Fig. 1) and as such are a key reservoir in the global Tl cycle.

Thallium abundances within soils are comparatively low, normally ranging from 0.01 – 1 µg/g for uncontaminated soils (Kazantis, 2000; Xiao et al., 2004). Some soils have shown naturally elevated concentrations >5 µg/g. These tend to be associated with K-rich igneous rocks, where similar ionic radii allow for substitution of K⁺ or Rb⁺ with Tl⁺, or soils occurring proximal to sulfide deposits (Xiao et al., 2004; Pavlíčková, 2006). Finally, high Tl concentrations proximal to industrial hubs has focused recent environmental research on tracking anthropogenic Tl pollution and contamination. Surface soil Tl concentrations have been shown to depend not only on substrate lithology but also on the presence of anthropogenic Tl contamination, for example from cement plants (e.g. Jacobson et al., 2005; Pavlíčková, 2006; Vaněk et al., 2009; Kersten et al., 2014; Vaněk et al., 2016; Vaněk et al., 2018). Studies of heavily contaminated soils (hundreds to thousands of µg/g Tl) have observed Tl associations largely with residual silicates and secondary illite-clays. Furthermore, in soils with lower Tl concentrations (few tens of µg/g Tl) the Tl adsorption appears dominated by Mn-oxides, with negligible adsorption onto Fe(III) oxides such as goethite (Vaněk et al., 2009; Vaněk et al., 2011; Voegelin et al., 2015; Vaněk et al., 2016).

Thallium stable isotope studies in low temperature environments have highlighted surprisingly large isotope fractionations. Despite the small relative mass difference between the two Tl isotopes (²⁰³Tl and ²⁰⁵Tl) of <1%, Tl displays large natural isotope variations in excess of 35 epsilon units (corresponding to 3.5‰ in the δ-notation, as used in other isotope systems) in low temperature environments. Isotope variations are reported relative to the NIST 997 Tl standard as ε²⁰⁵Tl, which is defined as:

$$\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} = \left(\left(\frac{(^{205}\text{Tl}/^{203}\text{Tl})_{\text{sample}}}{(^{205}\text{Tl}/^{203}\text{Tl})_{\text{NIST 997}}} \right) - 1 \right) \times 10,000$$

By far the largest Tl isotope fractionations have been observed within marine reservoirs and extensive work has been carried out on FeMn crusts and altered oceanic crust, which

display large positive and negative $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ signatures, respectively (Fig. 1; see review in Nielsen et al. 2017a). In FeMn crusts, coupled sorption and redox effects onto specific Mn-oxides has been shown to cause Tl stable isotope fractionation (Peacock et al., 2009; Peacock and Moon, 2012; Nielsen et al., 2013). Within terrestrial environments a smaller range of $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ have been recognised. Similar Tl stable isotope values for upper continental crust and riverine detrital particulates (average $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ of -2.0 and -2.5 respectively) have been used to imply negligible Tl fractionation during weathering processes, however the direct effect of weathering is yet to be studied extensively (Nielsen et al., 2005). Investigations of soils have focussed on the use of Tl stable isotope compositions as tracers of industrial processes, such as cement production and coal burning. This application relies on the existence and preservation of an 'anthropogenic' Tl stable isotope signature. However, the potential secondary Tl stable isotope effects from lithospheric and pedospheric processes remain poorly defined and require further investigation to better aid reliable tracing of industrial Tl emissions (Kersten et al., 2014; Voegelin et al., 2015; Vaněk et al., 2016). Potential sources of fractionation include riverine transport processes and continental weathering: the latter providing the impetus for the current study. Since lateritic profiles represent some of the most extreme enrichment and depletion behaviours that occur naturally in rock substrates as well as systematic mineralogical changes, they provide a natural laboratory to investigate Tl behaviour during weathering.

Here we provide the first examination of Tl and stable Tl isotope variations resulting from intensive oxidative weathering processes through the investigation of well-characterized, mature, deep weathering profiles of tropical lateritic terrains. We aim to determine the magnitude of Tl elemental and isotope variation and its most likely cause(s). Given the extent of laterites through geological time, covering $\sim 30\%$ of continental surface area (Tardy, 1997; Dequincy et al., 2002) and with protracted formation periods,

understanding the behaviour of TI in extensively weathered terrains could provide important insights into the little-explored behaviour of TI in surface environments. Furthermore, our work also provides a baseline for nascent industrial anthropogenic pollution applications.

2. METHODS

2.1. Sample Suites

Two well-characterised, lateritic profiles from India of differing substrate and ages were chosen: the basaltic-based Bidar and greywacke-based Mercedes Quarry sequences (Widdowson, 2007). The spatial association of the two profiles restricts the effects of major climatic variations, and their geographic situation minimizes potential differences in exotic inputs (Fig. 2; Babechuk et al., 2015). The two profiles are extensively characterised with respect to elemental composition, mineralogy and degrees of lateritization (Mason, 1999; Widdowson and Gunnell, 1999a, 1999b; Borger and Widdowson, 2001; Kısakürek et al., 2004; Wimpenny et al., 2007; Widdowson, 2009; Babechuk et al., 2014, 2015).

The Bidar Profile (hereafter “BB”) is a lateritic sequence through the Deccan flood basalts, near Bidar, north-eastern Karnataka State, Central India (17°54’43” N, 77°32’38” E). This 50 m deep weathering profile is capped by a thick, indurated laterite which is likely to have developed between ca. 65 – 55 Ma (Widdowson and Gunnell, 1999a, 1999b) directly upon the Ambenali Formation (Fm) of the Late Cretaceous Deccan basalt succession (Widdowson, 1997; Babechuk et al., 2015). This formation is part of the Deccan Traps, a Continental Flood Basalt Province (CFBP) erupted over ~4 Ma period at 67 - 63 Ma and consisting of multiple tholeiitic flow bodies, of which the Ambenali Fm is the most extensive (Jay and Widdowson, 2008).

The Mercedes Quarry (hereafter “SQ”) example is a 35 m weathering profile developed upon a metagreywacke and forming part of the Panjim-Merces Plateaux in Goa, western

India (15°28.46' N, 73°52.33') (Widdowson, 2009). It lies within the Konkan-Kanara lowlands, and formed as an extensive belt of laterite during the mid-Neogene (Miocene) at ca. 10 – 20 Ma (Schmidt et al., 1983). The protolith is a weakly metamorphosed early Proterozoic greywacke of the Goa Group (Sanvordem Fm) of the Dharwar Supergroup. This complex comprises part of the extensive basement lithologies that underlie the Deccan CFBP and which become exposed in the south of ca. 16°N.

Both profiles follow the idealised laterite profile with an unaltered bedrock (i.e., protolith) at its base that is overlain by a progression into saprock, then saprolite, in which the primary texture of the rock is preserved, and then into increasingly altered zones above (Fig. 3; e.g. Martini and Chesworth, 1992; Widdowson, 2007). The saprolite zone often contains unaltered corestones within a soft saprolite matrix. Lateritization intensity increases up-profile, through the mottled zone and carapace (i.e., non-indurated levels dominated by oxyhydroxides of Fe and Al), with any remaining primary textures obscured by iron-rich segregations (i.e., mottled zone) and an increasingly open porosity eventually characterised by tubular (i.e., vermiform) textures. Both are capped by a highly indurated, resistant duricrust. The weathering of basaltic and related substrates typically involves the alteration of a mafic mineral assemblage firstly to phyllosilicates, followed by kaolinization and desilicification (Nesbitt and Young, 1989); the detail of this pattern can vary in those profiles developed on more felsic, or sedimentary protoliths (e.g. Fedo et al., 1995).

Here, we focus on those samples most representative of the mineralogical and textural changes within two contrasting laterite sequences, of different substrate types and ages (Fig. 3; Mason, 1999; Kisakürek et al., 2004; Babechuk et al., 2014).

Within the SQ profile, SQ2 represents the unweathered greywacke horizon. Sample SQ1 represents a small-scale mafic dyke (Widdowson, 2009). Samples SQ3 – SQ4, lie within the saprock zone. Samples SQ5 and SQ7 – SQ9, ~ above 22.5m, lie within the kaolinization field

and correspond to Si-depletion and Fe-enrichment, transitioning from upper saprolite and plasmic zone into the mottled zone with Fe-rich segregation. Samples SQ10 and SQ13 – SQ14 are strongly lateritized and correspond to the carapace and indurated duricrust. Samples SQ12 and above mark the progression towards secondary Fe-dominated minerals as more Si and Al is lost from the neo-formed kaolinite. Within the BB profile, samples BB1 and BB2 represent the unaltered Deccan basalt and proximal saprock within Zone I that display similar chemical compositions. Samples BB3 and BB4 show mottled textures within the saprock of Zone II. BB7 and BB8 correspond to weak and moderate lateritization and the uppermost BB9 represents the indurated duricrust (Fig. 3). Extensive work carried out by Widdowson (2007) detailed the variation in major elemental composition through both the BB and SQ profiles. In both profiles, the more mobile elements (e.g. Ca, Mg, K) are lost from the saprolite zones (Zone II, Fig. 3). Above the saprolite zones an increase in Fe concentration is observed alongside a decrease in Si due to the breakdown of the protolith silicates. The small increase of SiO₂ in SQ6 is attributed to its proximity to a quartz vein within the profile, highlighting the greater variability in the SQ protolith. The uppermost sections of both profiles, corresponding to the iron-rich duricrust (Zone IV), show the expected enrichments in Fe₂O₃ and corresponding depletion in SiO₂. In both profiles, there are horizons that do not follow this sequence of laterite development, BB5 and BB6 in the Bidar laterite and SQ10 and SQ11 in the SQ laterite (Zone III, Fig. 3). Concentrations of Fe₂O₃ and trace elements, alongside Os and Li isotopic data, have shown that these enrichments can be attributed to the existence of palaeowater tables, which has allowed for the allochthonous input of Fe via groundwater fluxes (Kisakürek et al., 2004; Wimpenny et al., 2006).

2.2. Sample Preparation

The BB and SQ samples used, from the Bidar and Merces Quarry respectively, were collected by previous studies and were chosen as representative of key horizons that marked changes in mineralogy and texture (Mason, 1999; Wimpenny et al., 2007). Bulk samples of 1 – 3 kg of each horizon were originally collected from multiple representative outcrops to reduce the effect of local heterogeneities within horizons (Kisakürek et al., 2004). Samples for the BB profile were powdered in a tungsten carbide mill, whereas samples for the SQ profile were prepared in an agate mill to minimize potential contamination. It should be noted that preparation in tungsten carbide versus agate is not anticipated to affect Tl concentration or isotope ratios.

2.3. Major and trace elements

Major element data for both the BB and SQ sequences and supplementary trace element data for the BB profile are from Babechuk et al. (2014) and Widdowson (2007). We report new high precision trace element determinations, including Tl, for both the BB and SQ sequences.

Trace element analysis was undertaken at the Open University, UK, with an Agilent 8800 ICP-QQQ ('triple-quad' inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer). Sample digestion was performed at the Mass Spectrometry and Geochemistry Labs at Imperial College London (MAGIC). All acids employed in chemical digestions and separations were distilled in either quartz or Teflon sub-boiling distillation systems and all Savillex Teflon was acid cleaned. De-ionized, 18 M Ω -grade water from a Millipore system-was used for rinsing and dilution. Approximately 50 mg of sample powder was dissolved in sealed Teflon vials with a 3:1 mixture of concentrated HF: HNO₃. The solutions were ultra-sonicated for 25 minutes and heated at 160 °C on a hot plate for at least 24 hours. They were then evaporated to near dryness and re-dissolved in 2 ml of 6 M HCl at 120 °C for at least 24 hours. The

solutions were then evaporated to complete dryness at 120 °C and re-dissolved in ~1 ml concentrated HNO₃ and evaporated at 180 °C. The last re-dissolution and evaporation step was repeated at least three times until the samples turned brownish or brown, indicating the destruction of fluorides from initial HF dissolution. Finally, an appropriate volume of 2% HNO₃ was added to achieve a 1000-fold sample dilution.

Samples were aspirated into the ICP-QQQ using a quartz microflow nebuliser, with an uptake rate of 0.5 ml per minute, and count rates in the order of $1 - 5 \times 10^7$ cps/ppm. Analyses were performed in two different collision/reaction cell modes (no gas and He). Oxide levels (measured as CeO/Ce) were kept low, at 1% in no gas, and 0.5% in He collision mode, and doubly charged species (Ce⁺⁺/Ce⁺) at 1.6% in no gas, and 1.2% in He collision mode. Analyses were standardized against five reference materials (digested at both the Open University and Imperial College London) that were measured at the beginning of each analytical run. The reference materials were selected on the basis of their similarity to the samples analysed, and include BIR-1, W-2, DNC-1, BHVO-2 and AGV-1. An internal standard solution (containing Be, Rh, In, Tm, Re, and Bi) was added to samples and run on-line throughout all analyses and used to correct for instrumental drift. Drift was further monitored with a measurement block consisting of USGS reference material BIR-1 (separate digest to that used in the standardization), a 2% HNO₃ blank, and a repeated unknown sample (SQ8) performed every five unknown measurements (see Supplementary Sheet 3). After correction for the blank values, instrumental drift and dilution weights, replicate measurement of monitoring standards yielded a precision of <2% RSD for Tl (see Supplementary Sheet 3 and Sheet 4 for trace elemental precision data). Thallium concentrations determined by ICP-MS (QQQ) are in agreement with estimated values obtained during MC-ICPMS isotope measurements (see Electronic Annex). We employ ICP-MS (QQQ) for Tl data measured in this study in all subsequent figures, due to its superior

precision and accuracy compared to the greater error associated with concentration determination by beam intensity matching during MC-ICPMS isotope measurements.

2.4. Determination of Tl stable isotope composition

Separation of Tl from sample matrices was carried out in the MAGIC Laboratories at Imperial College London following established two-stage ion exchange chromatography protocols (Rehkämper and Halliday, 1999; Nielsen et al., 2004; Prytulak et al., 2013).

Thallium stable isotope compositions were determined using a Nu-Plasma HR MC-ICPMS, equipped with an ARIDUS II introduction system. Thallium fractions were diluted to concentrations between 2 and 5 ppb and doped with NIST SRM 981 Pb for a Pb/Tl ratio of ~4 in order to correct for instrumental mass fractionation. Thallium isotopes were measured using sample-standard bracketing techniques with NIST SRM 997 Tl (Rehkämper and Halliday, 1999). As the column chemistry method used provides quantitative Tl yields, with Rehkämper and Halliday (1999) confirming routine Tl elutions of >99.5% in the applied anion-exchange procedure, Tl concentrations can be estimated to a precision of ~10-15% through monitoring ^{205}Tl intensities using a MC-ICPMS (Rehkämper and Halliday, 1999; Nielsen et al., 2004; Nielsen et al., 2005; Prytulak et al. 2013). Multiple reference materials with known $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ values were run for data quality control. United States Geological Survey (USGS) reference material AGV-2 and/or BCR-2 were processed and measured with every batch of unknown samples. We also present the first Tl isotope measurements of VL2, a laterite standard from Venezuela developed upon a doleritic protolith (Schorin and LaBrecque, 1983; LaBrecque and Schorin, 1987). Thallium concentrations and stable isotope composition of the samples and standards are given in Table 1 and 2. The Tl isotope composition of USGS reference materials AGV-2 and BCR-2 measured over the course of this study agree with literature values (Table 2). Repeat analyses of a Sigma Aldrich Tl

solution standard has shown a long-term measurement reproducibility of $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} = -0.79 \pm 0.35$ (compiled by Nielsen et al., 2017a). This study determined the Sigma Aldrich standard as $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} = -0.61 \pm 0.36$ ($n = 33$), in agreement with this reproducibility. Replicate digestions of most samples measured show an external 2sd reproducibility of about $\pm 0.5 \epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$. A standard error of $\pm 0.5 \epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ is applied to all samples except those whereby the calculated 2sd between replicates exceeded this value. This includes sample BB5, with $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} = +6.2 \pm 1.5$ 2sd ($n = 4$), encompassing 3 separate dissolutions. Table 1 shows that there is a discrepancy between the $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ measured for each separate dissolution, but within the second dissolution the results are self-consistent, with an average of $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} = +6.2 \pm 0.7$ (2sd, $n = 2$). Thus, we attribute the larger external reproducibility of this sample to powder heterogeneity, potentially generated during field sampling of this complex horizon. Total procedural blanks were <20 pg Tl, negligible relative to the total processed Tl (>24 ng).

3. RESULTS

3.1. Thallium and other trace elements

Thallium concentrations and trace element determinations are shown in Tables 1 and 3.

The SQ profile reveals Tl concentrations ranging from 37 – 652 ng/g (Table 1, Fig. 4a), displaying an overall depletion in Tl when compared to average values for the upper continental crustal of ~ 750 ng/g (Taylor and McLennan, 1985). The overall Tl concentration profile with depth in SQ is highly variable. The median concentration is 132 ng/g but the profile is dominated by high concentration spikes, with four samples exceeding the upper quartile value of 414 ng/g. Two key positive excursions in concentration occur at 22.5 m for SQ5 (652 ng/g) and 7.5 m for SQ11 (544 ng/g). The lowest Tl concentration, of 37 ng/g, is at 8.5 m (SQ10).

Concentrations of the four samples measured using ICP-QQQ for the BB profile range from 7 – 244 ng/g (Tables 1 and 2). Thallium concentrations for the full depth profile were carried out by Babechuk et al. (2014), and show a comparable range between 3 – 272 ng/g. The Bidar profile shows an increase in measured concentrations up-section, from 7 ng/g at 26 m (BB3) to 39 ng/g at 5 m (BB8), with the highest concentration (244 ng/g) found at 6.0 m (BB7) (Fig. 4b).

The trace element concentrations within the SQ and BB profiles show similarly large variance (Table 3 and Fig. 5). Given predicted similar behaviours between Tl and elements that form species with similar ionic radii, the concentration profiles of the alkali elements can be compared. Within the SQ profile, the trace alkali elements (Cs, Li and Rb) share almost identical patterns of depletion and enrichment relative to unweathered protolith concentrations (Fig. 5a). These match the patterns of Tl through most of the profile but display markedly different behaviour for sample SQ11. Here the alkali elements do not display the extreme enrichment observed for Tl. Similarly, the trace alkaline earths (Sr and Ba) show varying concentrations relative to the Tl concentration pattern. Enrichments and depletion patterns above protolith values are well matched by Ba but Sr displays much smaller variance and depletion within all weathered samples. Within the BB profile the alkali elements also show similar patterns of enrichment and depletion relative to each other but behaviour compared to Tl deviates at BB8 and BB7 (Fig. 5b). At these horizons, the alkali elements are enriched in BB8 and depleted in BB7, which opposes the trend for Tl in both samples. For the trace alkaline earths Ba and Sr enrichments relative to the protolith are decoupled through the profile, with Ba displaying similar trends to Tl.

3.2. Thallium stable isotope variation in laterite profiles

The SQ sequence shows a large range in $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ from -2.4 to $+3.5$, which is variable throughout the profile but generally shows a slight increase in $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ up-profile, with the exception of a prominent positive excursion of $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} = +3.5$ at SQ11 (Fig. 4b).

The lightest $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ value occurs at 25.5 m for SQ4 and the heaviest occurs at 7.5 m for SQ11 (Fig. 4b). There is a slight general increase in The BB sequence $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ values range from -0.5 to $+6.2$. The lightest $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ is BB8 at 5 m (Fig. 4b). Trends within the profile are less well defined due to fewer data points, but at 13 m the outlying and distinctive feature is an excursive heavy $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} = +6.2$ for BB5. The profile average for all samples analysed is $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} = +2.0 \pm 3.7$ (1sd, $n = 3$). Low Tl concentrations (e.g., BB1 ~ 3 ppb; Babechuk et al., 2014) require in excess of 1 g of sample for repeat Tl isotopic measurement, of which there was insufficient characterised material remaining. However, unweathered basalt is assumed to have Tl content comparable to mid-ocean ridge basalts (MORBs) (Nielsen et al., 2006a), hence a value of $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} \sim -2.0 \pm 1$ is assumed for the protolith (BB1) (e.g. Fig 4). When this assumed value of $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ is used to approximate BB1 the average for the profile is $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} = +1.0 \pm 7.2$ (2sd, $n = 4$). For the BB sequence a correlation between Tl concentrations and $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ cannot confidently be drawn due to the small dataset but the excursive nature of BB5 is clear (Fig. 6). The VL2 laterite standard measured shows a heavy $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} = +2.1 \pm 0.5$ which is closely matched to the average Tl isotopic composition of the BB profile.

4. DISCUSSION

Both the basaltic BB and greywacke-based SQ sequences show variable depth profiles with respect to both Tl concentrations and stable isotope signatures (Fig. 4a and 4b). *A priori* these variations could be considered the result of two natural factors. Firstly, processes internal to the laterite profile, which could drive redistribution of Tl and/or significant stable isotope fractionation. Secondly, external fluxes of Tl to and from the laterite profiles.

In order to quantify the overall addition and loss of elements in weathering profiles, relative to the unaltered protolith levels, we calculate the τ -parameter following Chadwick et al. (1990). The τ -parameter describes the proportion of a selected element gained or lost at a chosen horizon within a weathering profile, relative to an immobile index element. The least mobile element identified for both profiles was Zr, because it displays the smallest variation relative to protolith concentrations (Widdowson and Cox, 1996). The τ -parameter is calculated as follows:

$$\tau_{i/Zr} = \left[\frac{(C_i/C_{Zr})_h}{(C_i/C_{Zr})_p} \right] - 1$$

where C is the concentration, h represents the horizon of interest and p represents the unaltered protolith values (samples BB1 and SQ2). τ -values are shown in Table 4. Values > 0 indicate enrichment of element of interest i and values < 0 indicate loss of i relative to the unweathered substrate. When summed throughout the profile the total τ -value can give an indication of net gain or loss of element i to the profile versus internal mobilization and vertical transport.

The extent of weathering through the profiles also needs to be quantified in order to investigate the role of weathering and chemical alteration on Tl concentration and stable isotope systematics. The most commonly applied indices of chemical alteration used are the Chemical Index of Alteration (CIA) and the Mafic Index of Alteration (MIA). Both employ bulk major elemental molar ratios but do not include the proportion of SiO₂ in their calculations and insufficiently capture the more extreme, late-stage weathering and desilicification processes which occur during lateritization (Babechuk et al., 2014). In this study, the Index of Lateritization (IOL) method was chosen following extensive work characterizing degrees of alteration through BB and SQ profiles (Table 4, Widdowson et al., 2007, 2009; Babechuk et al. 2014). These studies analysed samples from both sequences

using methods developed by Schellman (1986), based on $\text{SiO}_2\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ tri-plots. Regions on the ternary diagram are separated into degrees of alteration, ranging from unaltered protolith values, through the “limit of kaolinization” and then defining weak, moderate and strong lateritization (Widdowson, 2009). The limits of kaolinization occur at ~43 wt% SiO_2 for BB and at ~57 wt% SiO_2 and a common lateritization process is proposed across western India (Widdowson, 2007, 2009; Wimpenny, 2007; Babechuk et al., 2014). For both profiles, the IOL is shown to be representative of general trends in degree of lateritization (when accounting for environmental conditions) and so the following equation is applied:

$$\text{Index of Lateritisation (IOL)} = 100 \times \frac{\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3}{\text{SiO}_2 + \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3}$$

Two general features are observed in the profiles of Tl and $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ variation with depth (Fig. 4b and Fig. 6). Firstly, there is a general upsection trend in each profile. In the case of the SQ profile, the upsection Tl concentrations become increasingly depleted with respect to the protolith when normalised to Zr and $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ become more positive. The BB profile displays different behaviour upsection, with generally increasing concentrations of Tl associated with a shift towards heavy $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$, however, this sample set is much more limited.

Secondly, the most distinctive feature of both profiles is the significant Tl enrichment at specific horizons, at 6 m in the BB profile (BB7) and 7.5 m in the SQ profile (SQ11) (Fig. 6). Due to the differences in magnitude and direction of the two features it is likely that two distinct processes are responsible, and they are thus discussed separately in the following sections (see Sections 4.1 and 4.2).

4.1. Behaviour of Tl and isotope fractionation of Tl during in-situ lateritic weathering

Firstly, the role of in-situ weathering on Tl and Tl stable isotopes can be examined through comparing the IOL with Tl concentration and $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ (Fig. 8 and Fig. 9), excluding the

heavy $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ samples (SQ11 and BB5) which will be discussed in section 4.2. For Tl behaviour in the SQ profile, weak negative correlations are observed between Tl concentration and $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ ($R^2 = 36\%$). This correlation is stronger between $\tau_{\text{Tl/Zr}}$ and $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ (Fig. 10; $R^2 = 57\%$). This could imply that a vertical mixing mechanism could be partly responsible for the range of $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ observed, between a higher concentration end-member with $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} \sim < -2.0$ and a lower concentration, heavier reservoir with $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} \sim 0$. This vertical redistribution is possible within the SQ profile where most of the weathered samples overlying the greywacke protolith (SQ2) show Tl depletions relative to the protolith (Fig. 4a) and maybe be significant in Zone I (Fig. 10). To investigate whether the driver for this redistribution is weathering intensity, the Tl profile is compared to IOL (Fig. 8). The limit of kaolinization for the SQ profile occurs at $\sim 57\%$ SiO_2 , below which desilicification starts and the extent of lateritization can be classified by increasing intensity. Slight variance in the metagreywacke protolith will also affect starting Fe- and Si- content, with protolith compositions ranging between $\sim 15 - 25\%$ SiO_2 . There is a strong positive correlation ($R^2 = 98\%$) between an increase in IOL with Tl concentration for samples with $\text{IOL} < \sim 25$, before substantial desilicification and Fe- enrichment occur. Above this limit, for kaolinized and lateritized samples, any linear correlation ceases. This shift into kaolinization and lateritization coincides with the breakdown of primary mineralogy (largely silicates) and the formation of neo-clays and Fe- and Al-enrichment secondary phases (Widdowson, 2009). We propose that the distinct shift in the Tl concentration-IOL relationship at this horizon reflects mineralogical changes. Breakdown of primary mineralogy above $\sim 20\text{m}$ likely allows for the remobilization and transportation of Tl vertically, for example concentrating at 22.5m (SQ5, 652 ng/n Tl), or for removal of Tl laterally by groundwaters. Overall the $\tau_{\text{Tl/Zr}}$ values for the SQ profile indicate an overall loss of Tl from the profile.

Within the BB profile the relationship between Tl mobility and degree of lateritization is much less distinct. The $\tau_{\text{Tl/Zr}}$ values from this profile show that there has been significant enrichment of Tl above protolith values and an overall addition of Tl. External inputs of Tl likely play a considerable role in the Tl concentration pattern for this profile and potential sources are discussed in Section 4.2.

In order to investigate Tl and Tl isotope behaviour during further lateritization and associated mineralogical changes, it is useful to compare its concentration profile and mobility with other major and trace elements.

Through the SQ profile, when water table sample SQ11 is not considered, very strong correlations ($R^2 > 80\%$) are observed for Zr-normalised concentrations of Rb (99%), Li (97%), Cs (96%), Co (96%) and Zn (95%). This is matched by very strong major element correlations with MgO and K₂O. When sample SQ11 is included, Tl concentrations in the full SQ profile shows strong correlations ($R^2 > 80\%$) for Zn (96%), Ba (87%), Lu (85%) and Co (83%). Within the BB profile, when including supplementary trace element data, strong correlations are only observed for Ba (95%) and Pb (85%). These correlations in BB are maintained when palaeowater table horizons are removed from the analysis. When the mobility of elements ($\tau_{i/\text{Zr}}$) is considered rather than normalised concentration, $\tau_{\text{Tl/Zr}}$ shows positive correlation with $\tau_{\text{Ba/Zr}}$ (87%) in SQ and $\tau_{\text{Ba/Zr}}$ (88%) and $\tau_{\text{Pb/Zr}}$ (87%) in BB. This suggests that when considering in-situ weathering processes alone, Tl behaviour is largely comparable to that of the alkali metals which share similarly large ionic radii (Shaw, 1952; Heinrichs et al., 1980; Babechuk et al., 2014; Nielsen et al., 2017a). The major host of these elements in primary minerals include a large suite of K-bearing minerals, particularly micas and feldspars (Prinz, 1967; Heinrichs et al., 1980). During weathering and lateritization the breakdown of these minerals commonly forms secondary clays, such as smectites. The alkali earths are commonly associated with these clays as they can adsorb onto the mineral surfaces

or substitute into interlayer sites. Studies of other laterite complexes have observed the preferential retention of Ba on clay minerals when compared with the other alkaline earths and alkali metals (e.g. Nesbitt et al., 1980; Das and Krishnaswami, 2007; Buggle et al., 2011). Furthermore, Ba can also be retained by secondary Fe- and Mn-oxides (e.g. Das and Krishnaswami, 2007; Bonnet et al., 2014). In both profiles the uppermost sections of the laterite, the duricrust and indurated cap, represent the development of secondary Fe-minerals dominated horizons, though the highest Fe-enrichments are observed near the inferred palaeowater tables.

Thallium stable isotopes also show IOL-dependent behaviour (Fig. 9). Below 12 m depth, where samples are unaltered to weakly lateritized, a weak positive correlation ($R^2 = 56\%$) is observed between the degree of lateritization and $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ (Zones I and II; Fig. 9). This general trend could be driven by the preferential removal of isotopically-light ^{203}Tl during the early stages of kaolinization. Above this depth samples are strongly lateritized, with IOL ranging from 80 – 86, and display relatively static $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ values of -1.2 to -1.0 , with the exception of palaeowater table samples discussed in Section 4.2. This could imply that a threshold in the preferential mobilization of ^{203}Tl is reached during the stages of intense lateritization. This threshold in preferential removal of ^{203}Tl is supported by comparable trends in the relationship between $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ and $\tau_{\text{Tl/Zr}}$ (Fig. 10), which show a weak correlation between loss of Tl and increasingly heavy Tl isotope composition. When $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ is compared to Zr-normalised elemental concentrations, no strong correlations with any of the measured elements are observed in SQ. Furthermore, while weathering can account for the isotopic variations of $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} = -2.2$ to $+0.3$ observed through the section, this process cannot adequately explain the significant and common excursive nature of both the horizons proximal to the water tables.

4.2. Tl-enriched and heavy $\varepsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ horizons

Overall, variations in Tl concentrations interrogated using τ -values show a net enrichment of Tl in the basaltic BB profile and a net loss from the greywacke-based SQ profile (Table 4). All four measured horizons in the basaltic laterite show evidence for an external source of Tl, with Tl concentrations exceeding protolith levels (Fig. 7b). For the greywacke-based SQ profile all samples except SQ5 and SQ11 indicate a loss of Tl relative to the protolith concentration of SQ2. The high Tl concentration of the unaltered SQ protolith means that there would be sufficient Tl within the SQ profile that the concentration pattern observed with depth could theoretically be explained using a simple model closed-system redistribution of Tl. The relationship between degree of lateritization and Tl mobility in SQ challenges this theory, however. A distinct shift in IOL in the SQ profile is observed between 12 m – 8.5 m depth (Table 4), which is recognized by Widdowson (2007) as the transition between the kaolinized zone below and the strongly lateritized region above. If weathering were the main process driving Tl concentration variations, we would expect to observe a strong correlation between weathering intensity (IOL) and Tl mobility ($\tau_{\text{Tl/Zr}}$) (Fig. 11). The absence of any systematic relationship between the two therefore supports the addition of allochthonous Tl is also likely to the SQ profile too.

4.2.1. Aeolian Tl fluxes to laterites

Numerous studies investigating elemental mobility within the BB profile show geochemical evidence for significant aeolian dust influxes, supported by $^{87}\text{Sr}/^{86}\text{Sr}$, $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$, Li-isotopes, Re/Os ratios and high field strength element systematics (Mason, 1999; Kisakürek et al., 2004; Wimpenny et al., 2007; Babechuk, 2015). Wimpenny et al. reported that Re/Os ratios of lateritized samples in SQ were sufficiently less radiogenic than parent values, also suggesting that external inputs were likely significant. It was

postulated that the most likely dust source region for both sequences would be from the surrounding Dharwar Craton, a complex of Archean to Proterozoic greywackes, mafic to ultramafics and metabasic rocks (Klootwijk and Peirce, 1979; Devaraju et al., 2010). While variations in Tl concentration are likely affected by external inputs to the profile, the attribution of the heavy $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ excursions in both of the BB and SQ profiles to influxes of allochthonous aeolian Tl requires a source reservoir of heavy $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$. However, the geographical locations and differing ages of the laterite profiles does not support the input of exotic materials with very different $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ values over a ~40 Myr time period. The basaltic BB sequence lies within the laterally extensive and geochemically uniform Ambenali Fm (Widdowson and Gunnell, 1999a, 1999b) and the SQ sequence lies within the Dharwar Supergroup of metamorphosed greywackes. Aside from the distinct heavy horizons recorded in this study, no other isotopically heavy terrestrial reservoirs of Tl have been reported. Investigations into the Tl isotope characteristics of terrestrial reservoirs have shown relatively uniform averages for loess and river particles, and hence continental crust, of $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} = -2.0 \pm 0.5$ (Nielsen et al., 2005; Nielsen et al., 2006a; Nielsen et al., 2006b). Furthermore, Os isotope studies indicate that aeolian fluxes alone cannot account for the total influx budget of Os, so the potential role of cosmic dust was suggested (Wimpenny et al., 2007). Since the formation of both the BB and SQ laterites it was estimated that cosmic dust could account for <1 % of the total Os content observed in each profile. Given comparable concentrations of Tl and Os in both cosmic dust (~50 ng/g) and the laterite profiles (Ander and Grevasse, 1989; Wimpenny et al., 2007; Baker et al., 2010), it follows that the cosmic dust flux of Tl to laterites is unlikely to explain the large Tl enrichments above unweathered substrate concentrations observed in BB and SQ.

Overall these observations suggest that Tl concentrations within the profile have likely been affected by the influx of aeolian material, particularly within the BB laterite. In

contrast, the large variations in the $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ profile are unlikely to be solely driven by aeolian inputs. We suggest that the Tl isotope systematics within the laterites are likely further influenced by groundwaters.

4.2.2. *The role of the palaeowater table*

Comparable Tl stable isotope fractionations are observed proximal to the inferred palaeowater table in both laterite sequences of differing substrate age and lithology, age of lateritization, and location (Fig. 4b). This striking similarity between two very different laterite profiles implies a common process or environment as a driver of Tl stable isotope fractionation. Both laterite profiles in this study contain a high abundance of Fe oxides/oxyhydroxides (Table 1, and Fig. 3), particularly hematite and goethite, as well as clays such as kaolinite in the upper sections (Wimpenny et al., 2007). This mineral assemblage is common to many laterites of similar substrates (e.g. Ma et al., 2007; Widdowson, 2007; Fernández-Caliani and Cantano, 2010). Whilst these minerals are abundant across large sections of the profiles, over a thickness of approximately 10 m, the heavy $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ excursions occur in discrete horizons, ≤ 5 m thick (Table 1 and Fig. 4b). Several studies have highlighted elemental enrichment patterns and isotopic excursions that support the existence of a palaeowater table (Mason, 1999; Kısakürek et al., 2004; Wimpenny et al., 2006; Widdowson, 2007). This horizon and capillary zones coincide with samples SQ10 and SQ11 and BB5 and BB6. Water tables within laterites form boundary horizons, below which conditions are generally suboxic and above which conditions are oxic and susceptible to the influx of oxic rainwater (e.g. Wimpenny et al., 2007). Open-system conditions allow for the lateral movement and transport of ions in solution and play a key role in the alteration minerals formed. For example, reduced conditions allow for the reduction of Fe(III) to soluble Fe(II) species below the palaeowater table, whereas the transition to oxic conditions

above the water table can oxidise Fe(II) to Fe(III) and trigger Fe-oxide precipitation (Kisakürek et al., 2004). These palaeowater tables can therefore superimpose further mineralogical and elemental alteration on weathering profiles, in addition to providing an allochthonous flux.

Within the SQ and BB profiles, correlations in elemental behaviour have highlighted the likely importance of primary and secondary mineralogy during weathering on Tl concentration. For both profiles, the strong correlation between Tl and Ba in particular appears unaffected by changes in conditions at the palaeowater tables (Fig. 5). In surface weathering environments two main phases are important in the cycling of Ba; Fe- and Mn-oxides and phyllosilicates. Few detailed studies have been carried out on mineral-specific fractionation for Tl stable isotopes. The largest isotopic fractionations for heavy element systems like Tl have been predicted where nuclear field shift effects occur (Bigeleisen, 1996; Schauble, 2007). Both the nuclear field shift effect and mass-dependent fractionation enrich the more oxidized Tl(III) species in the heavier ^{205}Tl isotope, when Tl(III) is in equilibrium with reduced Tl(I) (Schauble, 2007). Under the conditions of most surface environments Tl(I) dominates as the more thermodynamically stable species (Law and Turner, 2011). One environment where Tl(III) has been both predicted and observed is at the mineral surfaces of specific Mn-oxides (Peacock and Moon, 2012; Nielsen et al., 2013). There is widespread evidence of the preferential association of Tl with Mn-oxides in both terrestrial and marine reservoirs, through Tl substitution with K and adsorption-oxidation reactions (e.g. Rehkämper and Nielsen, 2004; Vaněk et al., 2011; Kersten et al., 2014). Hydrogenetic FeMn crusts display large positive $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ values of up to $\sim +14$ epsilon units (Rehkämper et al., 2002; Nielsen et al. 2017a), similar to those observed in this study within the terrestrial realm. Peacock and Moon (2012) attribute the FeMn crust Tl isotope signature to the adsorption and oxidation of Tl(I) to Tl(III) during inner-sphere complexation onto hexagonal

birnessite (Hx-birnessite). Thallium isotope fractionation is not observed within the limited other Mn-oxides which have been measured, including todorokite and vernadite (e.g. Peacock and Moon, 2012). Other mineral species are known to be important host phases within soil complexes. For example, Tl(I) uptake by illite-type clays has been observed, with Tl substituting for K in illite (e.g. Voegelin et al., 2015). Further focused studies on potential mineral-specific fractionation effects are required to investigate whether interaction with illite-type clays can cause significant fractionation of Tl stable isotopes.

The strikingly heavy $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ signals at the paleo water table horizons are of the same magnitude and direction as the Tl isotope fractionations observed in the FeMn crusts, attributed to Hx-birnessite (Peacock and Moon, 2012). In particular, within the SQ profile this heavy $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ excursion coincides with peaks in Tl, Mn and Fe_2O_3 content. Furthermore, the shift to higher Fe_2O_3 begins just below the Tl peak, within sample SQ10, whereas the peak in Tl and Mn concentration coincide distinctly within SQ11. Therefore, we suggest that the $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ variation within the SQ laterite may reflect changing Mn-mineralogy. Through the majority of the profile the presence of todorokite or similar Mn-oxides, which are not associated with a Tl isotope fractionation, could occur via the transformation of birnessite. At the palaeowater tables, oxidative conditions could thus inhibit the transformation of birnessite to todorokite. Higher oxidation states have been proposed to alter the structure of birnessite, impeding the initiation of the first step in the four-stage birnessite to todorokite transformation (Cui et al., 2008; Cui et al., 2009).

Within the BB profile the heaviest $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ horizon coincides with the highest Fe_2O_3 content but peaks in Tl and Mn concentration occur 2m higher in the profile. This may suggest that Mn-oxide mineralogy may not be the dominant control on Tl behaviour in this profile. Thus, whilst we speculate that the positive Tl isotope excursions at the palaeowater tables are due to the presence of birnessite instead of todorokite, the Tl concentrations within

the laterite sequences are insufficient to quantitatively determine the diagnostic 7 and 10 Å spacings using X-ray absorption spectroscopy (Peacock and Moon, 2012). Thallium fractionation at comparable concentrations has been investigated using sequential extraction methods (e.g. Vaněk et al., 2009; Vaněk et al., 2011). Given the magnitude of natural variations observed in the laterite profiles, exploration of the specific mineral phase(s) associated with Tl isotope fractionation is a fruitful avenue for future research.

5. CONCLUSIONS

This study provides the first characterization of Tl concentrations and stable isotope compositions within lateritic weathering profiles. Thallium concentrations range between 7 – 244 ng/g for the Bidar basaltic-based profile and 37 – 652 ng/g for the Goan greywacke-based profile. Considerable variation in Tl stable isotope ratios were observed, from – 2.4 to + 6.2. In particular, distinct heavy $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ excursions at or near palaeowater table horizons highlight the need to characterize the Tl isotope systematics of surface reservoirs to improve our understanding of Tl cycling in surface environments. In addition, there is a small (~1 – 2 epsilon units) but discernible effect of continental weathering on Tl isotopes. Thus, both weathering and horizons of enhanced fluid circulation such as paleo-water tables are likely to impact primary $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ values, for example from industrial pollution processes (Kersten et al., 2014). Further characterization of natural surface processes and other potential mineralogically driven mechanisms of Tl stable isotope fractionation is required before the effects of anthropogenically driven-Tl isotope variations can be fully assessed.

The processes that occur at the palaeowater table of weathering profiles are complex, with numerous documented excursions in elemental concentrations and isotopic values. This regime has a significant effect upon the availability and flux of the elements to the wider groundwater and associated fluvial systems. The BB profile highlights the importance of

external fluxes of Tl to weathering profiles developed on low-Tl substrates. There is also strong evidence for the role of groundwater in the redistribution of redox sensitive elements and the formation of alteration minerals. These processes have resulted in fractionations of $\sim +6 \text{ } \epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ from the profile averages proximal to the palaeowater table, regardless of location, lithology, age and timing of lateritization. A mechanism of mineralogically driven Tl isotope fractionation, similar to that of Mn-oxides in marine FeMn crusts (Peacock and Moon, 2012) could result in heavy $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ signatures at redox boundaries, such as the palaeowater table horizon in the SQ profile. To improve the understanding of Tl and Tl stable isotope behaviour in surface environments, further work is required to characterize the mineral-specific behaviour of Tl.

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TABLES

Table 1 Thallium concentrations and $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ from MC-ICPMS (Imperial College London) and ICP-MS (Open University) analyses of the basaltic BB and greywacke SQ laterite sequences. A standard error of $\pm 0.4 \epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ from long-term reproducibility is applied except in cases where this value is exceeded.

Sample	Depth (m)	Lithology	[Tl] ng/g MC-ICPMS	[Tl] ng/g ICP-MS	$\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$	2sd	# runs	# dissolutions
SQ2	34.0	Unweathered greywacke	559	540	-2.3	0.4	5	1
SQ3	30.0	Lighter greywacke	459	444	-1.3	0.5	1	1
SQ4	25.5	Soft weathered greywacke	231	218	-2.4	0.6	2	1
SQ5	22.5	Weathered greywacke	700	652	-2.1	0.6	4	2
SQ6	15.0	Red weathered greywacke	340	324	-1.9	0.5	1	1
SQ7	14.0	Base of laterite	148	126	-1.1	0.5	7	4
SQ8	13.5	Nodular laterite base	76	105	-0.5	0.4	2	1
SQ9	12.0	Nodular laterite	95	81	+0.3	0.4	2	1
SQ10	8.5	Semi-indurated laterite	40	37	-1.2	0.4	2	1
SQ11	7.5	Massive laterite	456	544	+3.5	0.6	2	1
SQ12	3.5	Indurated laterite cap	103	105	-1.0	0.4	2	1
SQ13	2.5	Indurated laterite cap	127	135	-1.0	0.4	4	1
BB5: Average	13.0	Basaltic saprolite	24	26	+6.2	1.5	4	3
BB5: Separate Runs								
BB5-1			27		+5.3			
BB5-2			25		+5.9			
BB5-2			25		+6.4			
BB5-3			28		+7.1			
BB7	6.0	Base of laterite	252	244	+0.3	0.5	1	1
BB8	5.0	Nodular laterite	38	39	-0.5	0.4	3	2

Table 2 Thallium concentrations and $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ of reference materials measured in this study from MC-ICPMS (Imperial College London) and ICP-MS (Open University) analyses and from literature.

Reference Materials		[Tl] ng/g MC-ICPMS	[Tl] ng/g ICP-MS	$\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$	2sd	# runs	# dissolutions
AGV-2, This study	Andesitic USGS standard	222		-2.6	0.6	10	4
AGV-2, Nielsen et al., 2017a	Andesitic USGS standard	269		-3.0	0.6	8	8
BCR-2, This study	Basaltic USGS standard	255		-2.5	0.4	4	2
BCR-2, Nielsen et al., 2017a	Basaltic USGS standard	257		-2.5	0.4	4	4
VL2	Venezuelan laterite standard	29	30	+2.1	0.5	2	2

Table 3 Trace element concentrations determined by ICP-MS at the Open University ($\mu\text{g/g}$).

	BB3	BB5	BB7	BB8	SQ1	SQ2	SQ3	SQ4	SQ5	SQ6	SQ7	SQ8	SQ9	SQ10	SQ11	SQ12	SQ13	SQ14	VL1	VL2
Li	6.8	3.7	11.2	17.4	7.4	31.6	32.4	12.5	45.0	20.2	13.8	9.7	8.7	4.5	4.2	7.1	9.5	8.8	0.1	2.8
Sc	68	77	34	47	43	12	13	7	11	10	15	16	17	24	27	28	38	66	64	82
Ti	26903	29298	16215	11650	8522	3243	3391	1809	2922	2563	4129	4558	3836	8646	2857	10307	8624	9471	16771	15681
V	730	1997	704	992	366	99	102	56	94	84	121	143	138	852	112	578	822	788	775	587
Cr	206	261	228	744	115	109	118	63	79	83	87	112	125	720	166	720	946	749	98	25
Mn	775	395	2401	464	1941	1031	831	508	1404	413	429	162	99	130	3720	344	256	245	494	730
Co	67	14	40	18	63	19	19	6	20	10	11	3	3	3	38	8	5	6	7	38
Ni	305	73	63	102	90	42	47	15	41	23	69	42	38	69	147	58	59	58	6	37
Cu	446	519	228	196	122	50	40	66	37	53	42	38	34	31	52	39	50	61	105	255
Zn	126	72	62	74	127	112	115	33	146	66	38	38	23	21	97	25	25	31	60	99
Rb	1.24	0.83	1.57	4.12	18.32	126.77	108.53	46.57	147.69	79.03	40.83	31.17	26.86	9.02	16.31	22.07	28.07	27.59	0.37	1.37
Sr	14	6	16	10	243	117	113	104	86	113	7	9	7	21	40	40	35	41	1	1
Y	796	14	6	8	31	17	27	13	17	40	12	9	8	10	27	17	14	19	3	7
Zr	253	315	193	224	66	172	192	83	137	123	213	196	191	203	76	261	217	236	421	419
Nb	19.6	25.5	15.2	17.0	3.3	13.8	15.0	7.1	12.5	10.8	16.8	17.6	16.0	20.8	8.1	32.9	27.3	30.7	17.2	18.2
Sb	0.09	0.31	0.81	1.41	0.02	0.24	0.34	0.24	0.30	0.26	0.41	0.62	0.60	11.53	1.12	8.40	14.46	8.30	0.74	0.31
Cs	0.112	0.101	0.140	0.403	0.556	4.314	3.538	1.284	4.506	2.104	1.107	1.502	0.896	0.441	1.704	1.323	1.920	1.595	0.011	0.092
Ba	57	16	445	18	144	702	609	404	665	549	571	473	454	46	730	136	136	125	6	32
La	33.3	9.6	28.7	13.3	8.2	25.7	41.9	15.1	13.4	72.1	7.3	6.9	3.4	19.6	54.0	40.6	29.4	32.1	2.1	4.4
Ce	25.9	22.5	270.1	27.6	20.4	52.8	75.5	32.7	27.8	98.9	63.4	21.2	9.1	33.5	87.9	87.3	63.1	60.1	14.7	164.4
Pr	16.78	4.07	3.97	2.61	2.85	5.62	7.88	3.50	2.96	12.38	1.99	1.64	0.81	2.97	8.49	6.33	4.90	5.66	0.47	1.29
Nd	77.3	18.2	11.9	9.5	13.7	20.1	28.1	12.7	10.7	43.4	7.6	6.0	3.1	9.4	26.5	20.1	16.0	19.4	1.8	5.4
Sm	29.70	4.49	2.01	1.98	3.85	3.72	5.06	2.51	2.14	7.91	1.58	1.18	0.68	1.55	4.93	3.23	2.78	3.51	0.53	1.59
Eu	12.27	1.11	0.51	0.48	1.41	0.82	0.96	0.57	0.54	1.62	0.40	0.31	0.22	0.31	1.14	0.58	0.53	0.67	0.15	0.42
Gd	56.98	3.62	2.64	1.72	4.28	3.02	4.41	2.27	1.98	7.45	1.53	1.02	0.64	1.33	5.11	2.64	2.29	2.87	0.51	1.91
Tb	12.85	0.63	0.28	0.30	0.77	0.46	0.67	0.36	0.33	1.14	0.25	0.18	0.13	0.22	0.82	0.40	0.37	0.46	0.11	0.27
Dy	93.32	3.65	1.50	1.85	4.93	2.67	3.95	2.18	2.13	6.36	1.74	1.29	1.00	1.47	4.94	2.53	2.31	3.06	0.73	1.69
Ho	24.79	0.76	0.32	0.42	1.11	0.59	0.87	0.46	0.53	1.28	0.42	0.33	0.27	0.35	1.07	0.61	0.53	0.67	0.18	0.38
Er	64.05	1.97	0.84	1.14	3.07	1.84	2.59	1.32	1.77	3.40	1.42	1.11	0.94	1.13	2.96	1.87	1.68	2.04	0.55	1.13
Yb	53.87	1.99	0.90	1.27	2.89	2.23	2.75	1.32	2.24	2.97	1.95	1.59	1.44	1.47	2.98	2.26	1.95	2.37	0.77	1.54
Hf	7.03	8.47	5.20	5.73	1.82	4.63	5.09	2.29	3.65	3.22	5.67	5.22	5.21	5.48	2.10	7.05	5.82	6.16	11.73	11.32
Lu	8.29	0.30	0.14	0.20	0.45	0.35	0.42	0.20	0.40	0.42	0.32	0.28	0.25	0.22	0.46	0.37	0.31	0.38	0.13	0.25
Ta	1.44	1.72	1.53	1.16	0.19	1.36	1.45	0.61	1.03	1.06	1.73	1.64	1.53	1.48	0.62	3.08	1.78	2.30	1.14	1.18
Tl	0.007	0.026	0.244	0.039	0.075	0.540	0.444	0.218	0.652	0.324	0.126	0.105	0.081	0.037	0.544	0.105	0.135	0.129	0.006	0.030
Pb	2.30	10.43	46.46	19.19	2.77	12.85	12.75	11.62	13.97	10.78	28.09	17.68	15.26	31.24	29.10	54.60	42.17	35.84	7.99	39.02
Th	1.92	3.60	3.82	10.06	0.47	21.06	21.51	7.61	15.51	13.63	26.82	21.94	23.64	20.80	6.06	24.91	22.02	22.61	14.00	11.02
U	1.01	2.19	1.24	2.00	0.09	5.90	6.32	2.19	4.81	4.07	6.29	5.81	6.21	4.52	6.79	6.65	7.39	10.37	1.69	3.14
Sn	1.85	0.53	0.79	1.09	0.75	3.11	2.34	1.71	3.84	1.98	3.25	3.20	3.09	2.61	1.45	5.46	2.69	3.01	2.47	0.46

Table 4 τ -values and Index of lateritization (IOL) values for BB and SQ profiles.

Sample	Depth (m)	τ -value	IOL	Degree of lateritization (Widdowson 2007)
BB Sequence				
BB9	2.0	20.1	90.1	Strongly lateritized
BB8	5.0	6.4	67.7	Moderately lateritized
BB7	6.0	52.8	61.7	Weakly lateritized
BB6*	11.0	2.9	93.8	Strongly lateritized
BB5	13.0	2.6	67.2	Allochthonous inputs
BB4*	15.0	1.8	58.0	Weakly lateritized
BB3	26.0	0.2	59.0	Weakly lateritized
BB2*	35.0	6.5	34.5	
BB1*	47.0		35.7	
	Total	93.2		
SQ Sequence				
SQ14	0.0	-0.8	85.8	Strongly lateritized
SQ13	2.5	-0.8	82.0	Strongly lateritized
SQ12	3.5	-0.9	79.8	Moderately lateritized
SQ11	7.5	1.3	84.3	Strongly lateritized
SQ10	8.5	-0.9	82.3	Strongly lateritized
SQ9	12.0	-0.9	30.5	Kaolinized
SQ8	13.5	-0.8	30.7	Kaolinized
SQ7	14.0	-0.8	26.9	Kaolinized
SQ6	15.0	-0.2	18.3	
SQ5	22.5	0.5	27.2	Kaolinized
SQ4	25.5	-0.2	14.8	
SQ3	30.0	-0.3	21.9	
SQ2	34.0		23.4	
	Total	-4.8		

τ - values calculated following Chadwick et al. (1990). The BB sequence is calculated relative to BB1 protolith values from Babechuk et al., 2014 (Supplementary Sheet 1). The Index of Lateritization is calculated following Schellman (1986), using major oxide wt% values from Widdowson (2007) alongside degrees of lateritization determined by Widdowson (2007) from ternary plots.

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1: Literature compilation of Tl concentrations and Tl stable isotopes ($\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$) for terrestrial and major marine sediments and reservoirs. (a – d) FeMn deposits (Rehkämper et al., 2002), (e) mantle (Nielsen et al., 2006b), (f) low temperature altered ocean crust (Nielsen et al., 2006a), (g – j) volcanoclastics/radiolarian and claystone/pelagic clays (Prytulak et al.,

2013 and Nielsen et al., 2017b), (j) diatom-bearing sediments (Nielsen et al., 2016), (k – l) river water and loess averages (Nielsen et al., 2005), (m) continental crust average (Nielsen et al., 2017a), (n) soils (Kersten et al., 2014), and laterite values measured in this study. Where average ranges specified $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl} \pm 1\text{SD}$ are reported.

Figure 2: Inset showing the study region and map of the location of the two laterite sequences (adapted from Wimpenny et al., 2007).

Figure 3: Schematic profiles of the laterite sequences at a) Goa (SQ) and b) Bidar (BB), alongside alteration zones (adapted from Wimpenny et al., 2007). Zone I = unaltered to weakly altered substrate, II = saprolite, III = palaeowater table and IV = Fe-rich lateritic cap, as noted by Widdowson (2007). Samples analysed in this study for trace element concentrations highlighted in colour and for Tl stable isotopes denoted by an *. Values for K_2O , MnO and MgO content plotted on log axes. Measured values denoted by filled symbols and literature values by unfilled symbols throughout (Widdowson, 2007).

Figure 4: (a) Thallium concentration versus depth-for the SQ greywacke (orange throughout) and BB basalt (blue throughout) – based laterites. (b) Thallium stable isotope variations with depth for the greywacke and basalt. The deepest basaltic sample at 47 m (BB1) is an estimated unaltered basaltic or mantle composition (Nielsen et al., 2017a).

Figure 5: Trace element data for alkali elements, alkaline earths and Tl for the a) SQ profile, measured in this study using ICP-QQQ. and b) BB profile, with both measured and literature values. Alkali elements and alkaline earth elements plotted on log scale and where

used, literature values are denoted by unfilled symbols (see Supplementary Sheet 1; Widdowson, 2007 and Wimpenny et al., 2007).

Figure 6: Thallium concentrations and $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ variations for the greywacke (orange) and basalt (blue). BB5 and SQ11 display heavy positive excursions. Literature values for BB1 denoted by unfilled triangle (Nielsen et al., 2017a).

Figure 7: $\tau_{\text{Tl/Zr}}$ variations with depth through the (a) SQ profile and (b) BB profile. Both profiles show contrasting behaviours in net trends but horizons with distinct Tl addition are present in both. For the BB profile literature values for Tl and Zr concentrations are denoted by unfilled symbols (see Supplementary Sheet 1, Widdowson (2007)).

Figure 8: The effect of increasing intensity of lateritization on Tl concentration. Zones are labelled, with Zone I = unaltered to weakly altered substrate, II = saprolite, III = palaeowater table and IV = Fe-rich lateritic cap throughout.

Figure 9: The role of increasing weathering intensity, as quantified by the index of lateritization, on Tl stable isotopes across the SQ profile. Correlation is shown for samples not weathered beyond the stage of kaolinization (Widdowson, 2007).

Figure 10: Trends within the SQ profile between $\epsilon^{205}\text{Tl}$ and $\tau_{\text{Tl/Zr}}$ through the full profile (a) are masked by the large excursive palaeowater table horizon (SQ11, Zone III). Further analysis discounting SQ11 show a weak negative correlation between Tl stable isotope composition and Tl enrichments.

Figure 11: The effect of weathering on $\tau_{\text{Tl/Zr}}$ (as a measure of Tl mobility within the SQ profile).

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

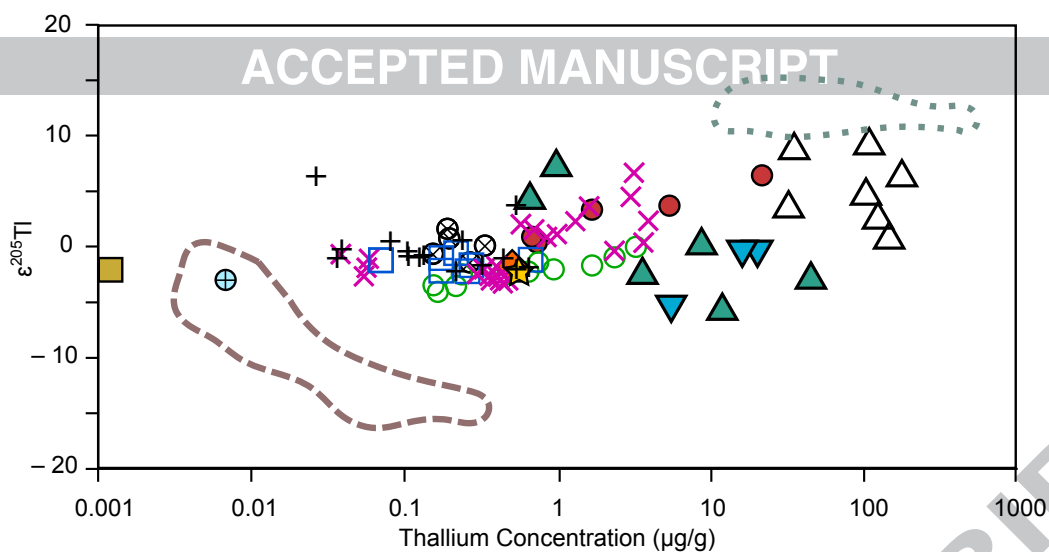
Supplementary Sheet 1: Major elemental literature compilation from Widdowson, 2007.

Supplementary Sheet 2: Trace elemental literature compilation from Widdowson, 2007 and Babechuk et al., 2014.

Supplementary Sheet 3: Trace element data quality control.

Supplementary Sheet 4: Trace elemental data from ICP-QQQ.

Electronic Annex: Comparison of methods for determination of thallium Tl concentration using ICP-MS (Open University) and MC ICP-MS (Imperial College London).

Figure 1

- Hydrogenetic FeMn deposits^(a)
- Low-T altered oceanic crust^(f)
- River water average ± 1.9 ^(k)
- Hydrothermal FeMn deposits^(b)
- Red-brown clays^(g)
- Loess average ± 0.3 ^(l)
- Shallow water diagenetic FeMn deposits^(c)
- Pelagic clays and silts^(h)
- Continental crust average ± 1 ^(m)
- Deep water diagenetic FeMn deposits^(d)
- Volcaniclastics⁽ⁱ⁾
- Soils⁽ⁿ⁾
- Mantle^(e)
- Diatom-bearing sediments^(j)
- Laterites (this study)

Figure 2

600km

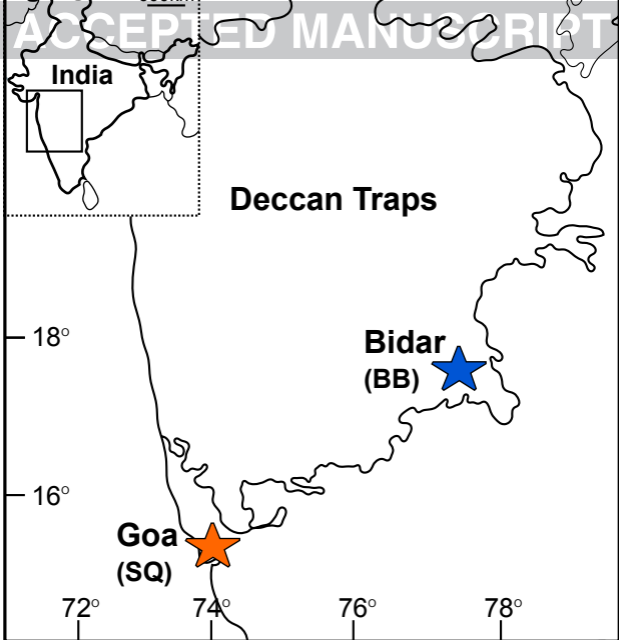


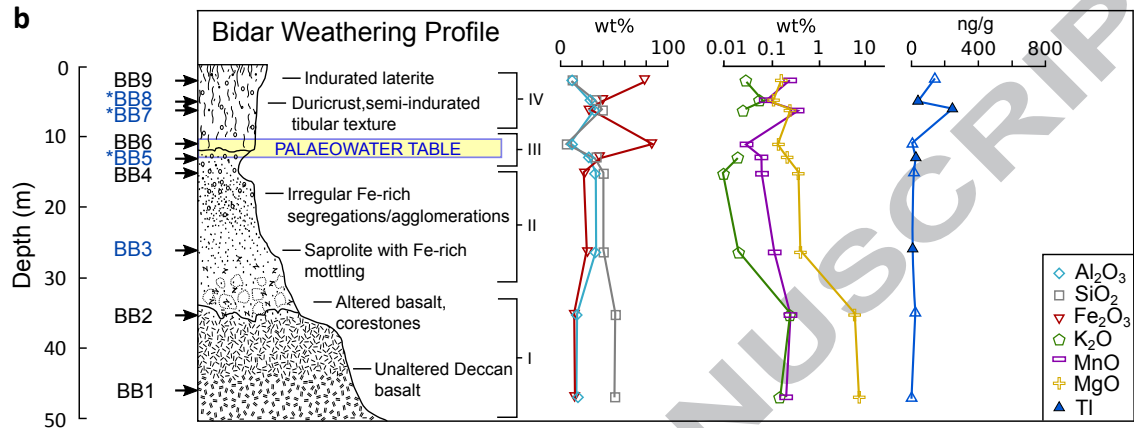
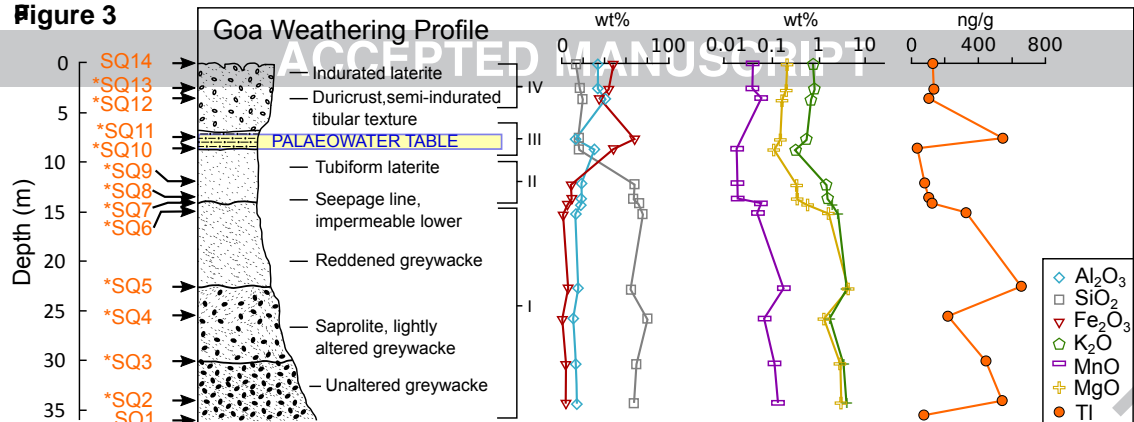
Figure 3

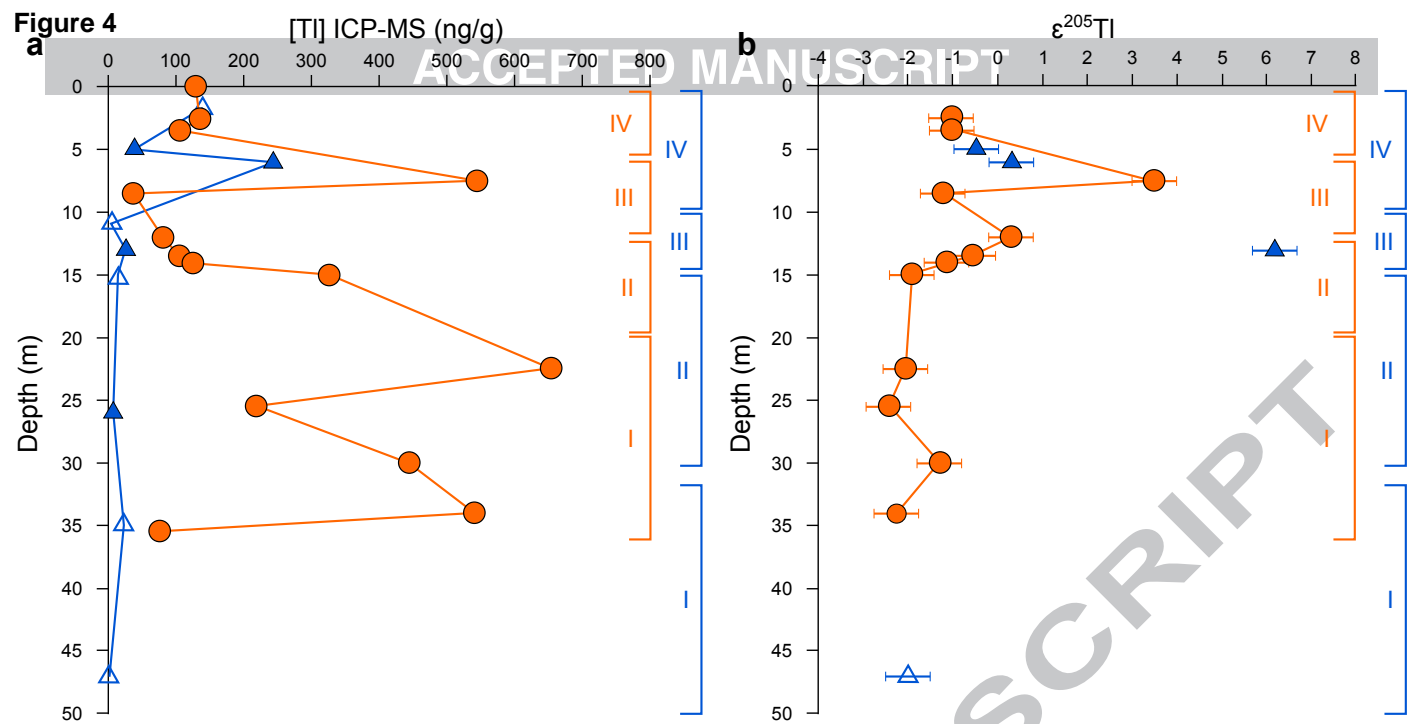
Figure 4

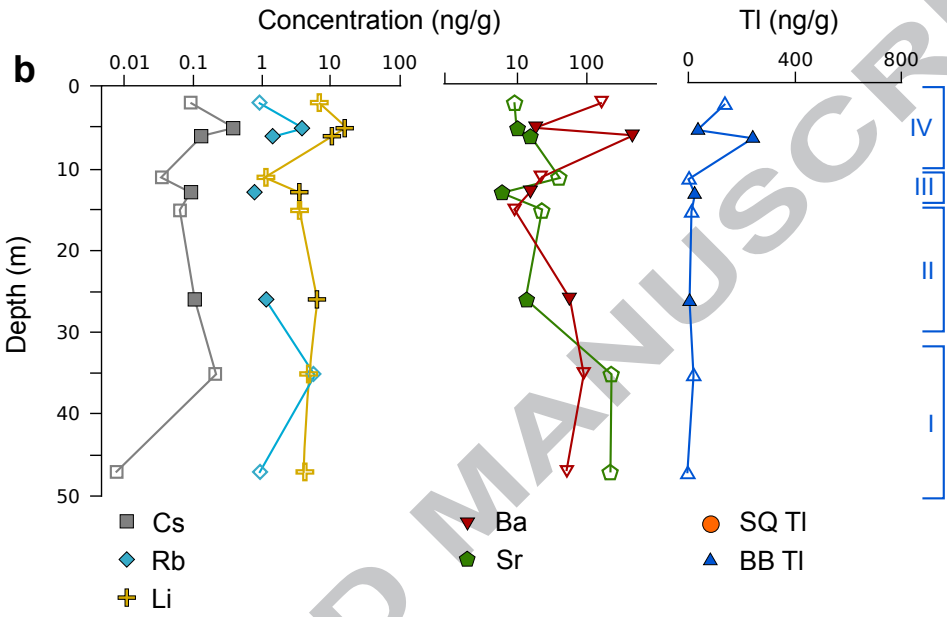
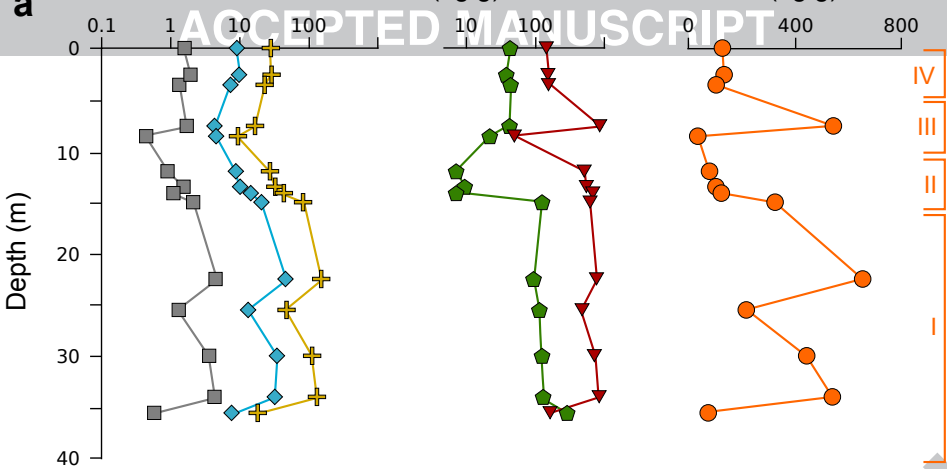
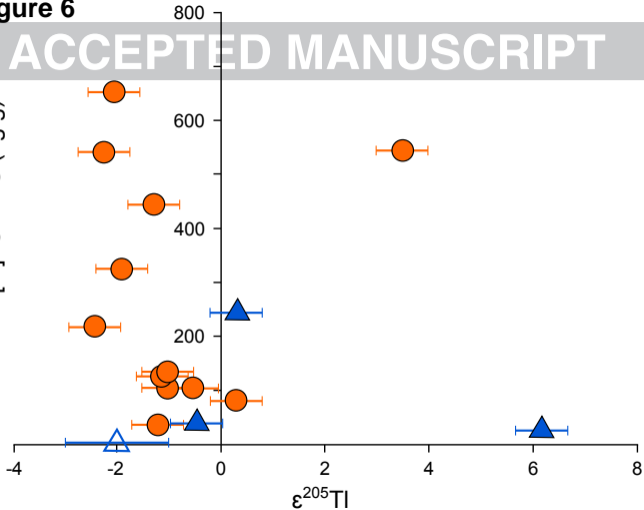
Figure 5

Figure 6

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

[Tl] ICP-MS (ng/g)



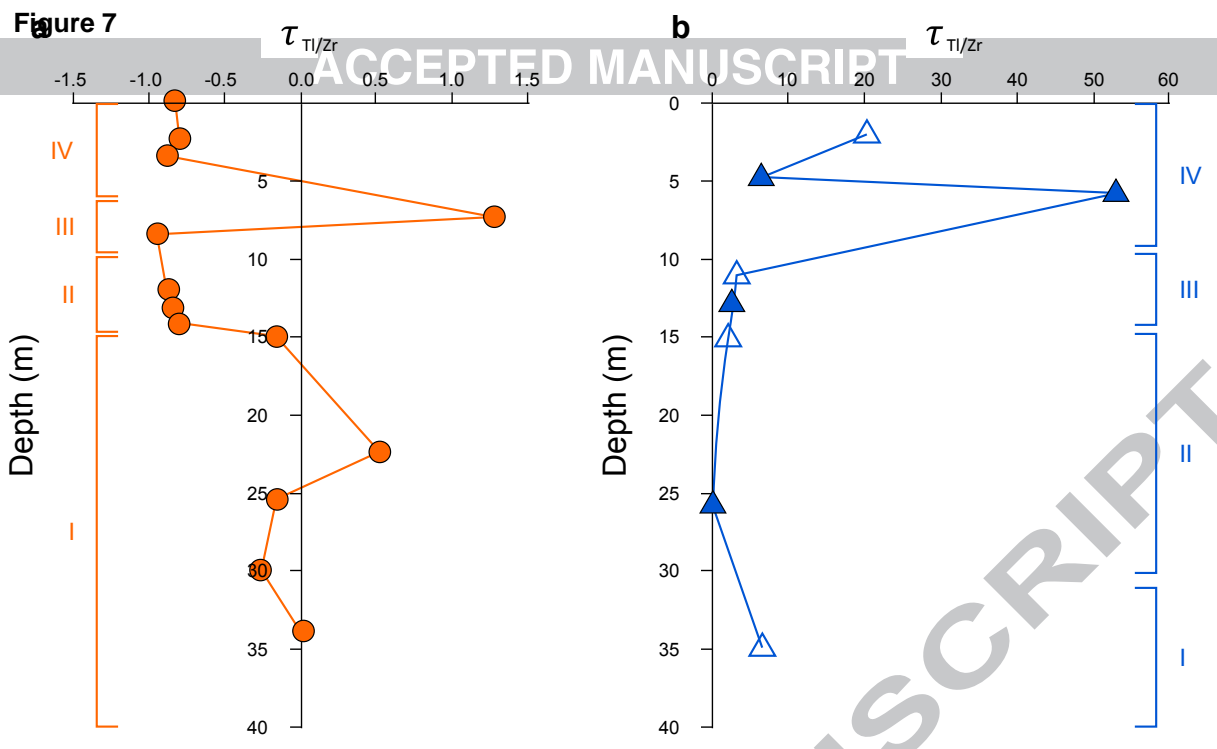


Figure 8

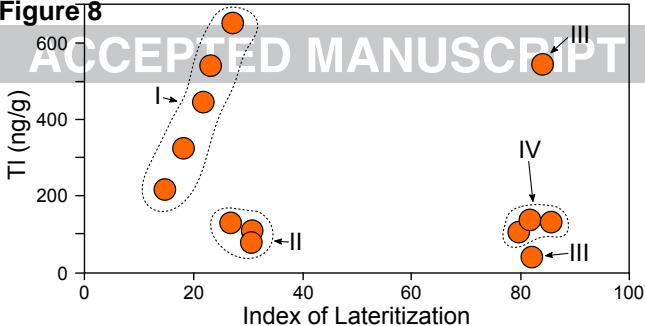


Figure 9

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

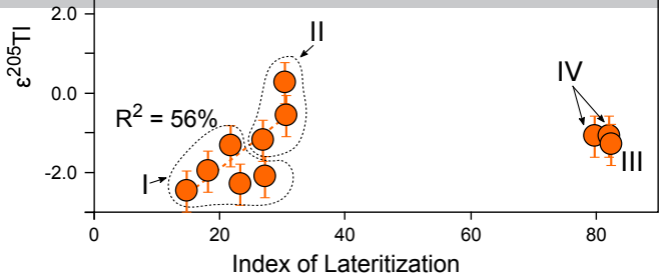


Figure 10

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

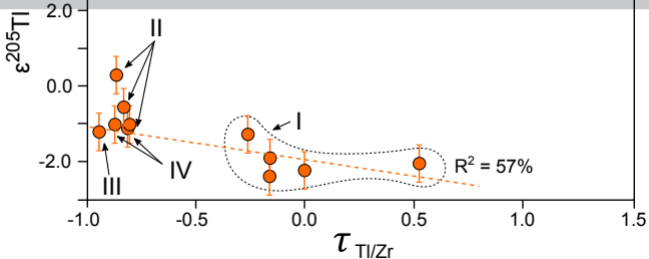


Figure 11

