Behaviour of chromium and chromium isotopes during estuarine mixing in the Beaulieu Estuary, UK

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Abstract

Rivers are the principal source of chromium (Cr) to seawater and the Cr isotopic signatures of ancient marine sediments are widely considered to provide a record of the presence or absence of oxidative weathering processes on land. This assumes, however, that the δ^{53} Cr value of river water is faithfully transferred to the oceans and is not modified in the estuarine mixing zone. To test this assumption we have determined the concentration and δ^{53} Cr values of inorganic Cr (Cr(III)+Cr(VI)), and also Cr speciation for water samples collected within the estuarine mixing zone of the Beaulieu River, UK. The δ^{53} Cr values of dissolved inorganic Cr ranged from -0.59 to 1.68‰, Cr(VI) concentrations from 0.39 to 1.83 nmol kg⁻¹ and Cr(III) concentrations from 0.11 to 3.21 nmol kg⁻¹. Both Cr(VI) concentrations and δ^{53} Cr values increased linearly as a function of salinity, while Cr(III) concentrations decreased linearly with salinity. Thus δ^{53} Cr, Cr(III) and Cr(VI) all showed conservative behaviour in the estuarine mixing zone, and the δ^{53} Cr signature of Beaulieu River water was modified only by mixing between the river and seawater endmembers. The calculated average δ^{53} Cr value of the river water endmember (-0.39 \pm 0.08‰) was, however, lower than the range that has been observed in other rivers, which we attribute to input of organically-bound Cr(III) released by anoxic weathering processes. This is supported by the fact that Cr recovered by UV irradiation was found to have low δ^{53} Cr values (-0.11 to -0.75‰). While input of Cr from anoxic weathering processes is unlikely to be an important source of Cr to the oceans today, this suggests that processes other than oxidative weathering may have an influence on the δ^{53} Cr values of estuarine and coastal waters on the local scale. The δ^{53} Cr value of the coastal seawater endmember $(1.6 \pm 0.4\%)$ was also higher than the range observed in the deep open ocean, due to in situ biogeochemical cycling of Cr. These factors need to be considered in the interpretation of marine sedimentary δ^{53} Cr records.

Keywords: chromium isotopes, chromium speciation, chromium cycling, estuarine mixing, anoxic weathering

1 **1. Introduction**

2 Chromium (Cr) is a redox sensitive element with two stable oxidation states, Cr(VI) and Cr(III), at Earth surface conditions. It has four stable isotopes, ⁵⁰Cr, ⁵²Cr, ⁵³Cr and ⁵⁴Cr, which can 3 fractionate during oxidation and reduction reactions (Zink et al., 2010; Døssing et al., 2011; 4 5 Kitchen et al., 2012). Most ground water and seawater samples analysed to date are enriched 6 they have relatively high δ^{53} Cr values, in heavy Cr isotopes (i.e. where $\delta^{53} \text{Cr} = \left(\frac{({}^{53}\text{Cr}/{}^{52}\text{Cr})_{\text{sample}} - ({}^{53}\text{Cr}/{}^{52}\text{Cr})_{\text{NBS979 standard}}}{({}^{53}\text{Cr}/{}^{52}\text{Cr})_{\text{NBS979 standard}}}\right) \times 1000; \text{ Ellis et al. 2002; Bonnand et al. 2013;}$ 7 8 Scheiderich et al. 2015; Holmden et al. 2016; Paulukat et al. 2016; Pereira et al. 2015; Goring-9 Harford et al. 2018; Moos and Boyle 2018; Bruggmann et al. 2019) compared to crustal rocks 10 $(\delta^{53}Cr = -0.12 \pm 0.10\%)$; Schoenberg et al. 2008). This has been attributed to the preferential 11 release of heavy Cr isotopes during the oxidative weathering of Cr(III), followed by transfer of the Cr(VI) that forms to the oceans via rivers (Frei et al. 2009), and to the preferential removal 12 13 of light Cr isotopes during biologically-mediated redox reactions in seawater (Scheiderich et

14 al., 2015; Goring-Harford et al., 2018; Moos and Boyle, 2018).

15 Records of ancient seawater δ^{53} Cr values, preserved in the authigenic fraction of marine 16 sediments, are considered to provide evidence for the evolution of atmospheric oxygen, and 17 consequently life, on Earth (e.g. Frei et al. 2009; Crowe et al. 2013; Planavsky et al. 2014). 18 Critically, this interpretation relies on the assumption that the oxidative weathering signal is 19 faithfully transferred from rivers to seawater, as rivers are the main source of Cr to the oceans (>90% of the total Cr input; Jeandel and Minster 1987; Bonnand et al. 2013; Reinhard et al. 20 2013; McClain and Maher 2016; Sun et al. 2019). The δ^{53} Cr range previously reported for 21 22 unpolluted river water is -0.3 to 1.7‰ (n=49; Figure 1; Frei et al. 2014; D'Arcy et al. 2016; Wu et al. 2017; Andronikov et al. 2019), which is similar to that of seawater (0.02 to 1.7%; n=156; 23 Bonnand et al. 2013; Scheiderich et al. 2015; Holmden et al. 2016; Paulukat et al. 2016; 24 25 Pereira et al. 2015; Goring-Harford et al. 2018; Moos and Boyle 2018; Bruggmann et al. 2019). However, the mean value for river water $(0.49 \pm 0.45\%)$ is higher than the mean value for 26 27 seawater (1.07 \pm 0.35‰), which implies that δ^{53} Cr values may be altered after oxidative weathering occurs, for example by redox reactions of Cr in surface ocean waters (Scheiderich
et al., 2015; Goring-Harford et al., 2018; Bruggmann et al., 2019). Although other potential
mechanisms for Cr isotope fractionation in natural waters have yet to be investigated in detail,
it is likely that refinements to the model proposed by Frei et al. 2009 are required to properly
employ Cr as a proxy for atmospheric oxygenation (see also Toma et al. 2019).

33 Fractionation of Cr isotopes during transport from rivers to the ocean has the potential to 34 significantly modify δ^{53} Cr values before preservation in marine sediments (Bonnand et al., 35 2013; Paulukat et al., 2015; D'Arcy et al., 2016). Rivers typically contain between 2nM and 36 20nM of dissolved Cr (e.g. Bonnand et al. 2013 and references therein), though rivers draining 37 mafic lithologies or land contaminated with industrial waste can contain much higher levels (100-2000nM; McClain and Maher 2016; Novak et al. 2014; Paulukat et al. 2015). 38 39 Chromium(VI) is the thermodynamically stable form of Cr in oxygen-replete waters (Elderfield, 1970), but rivers commonly contain both Cr(III) and Cr(VI) in varying proportions (Cranston 40 and Murray, 1980; Dolamore-Frank, 1984; Kieber and Helz, 1992; Abu-Saba and Flegal, 1995; 41 42 Gardner and Ravenscroft, 1996; Comber and Gardner, 2003; Saputro et al., 2014; McClain 43 and Maher, 2016), likely due to complexation of Cr(III) with organic molecules, which stabilises 44 it in solution (Dolamore-Frank, 1984; Kaczynski and Kieber, 1994; Abu-Saba and Flegal, 1995; Buerge and Hug, 1998; Icopini and Long, 2002). Chromium(VI) shows conservative behaviour 45 46 in many estuaries, meaning its concentration is simply determined by the relative proportion 47 of freshwater to seawater (Cranston and Murray, 1980; Mayer and Schick, 1981; Dolamore-48 Frank, 1984). However, in some estuaries Cr(VI) appears to be partially reduced to Cr(III) in 49 the presence of organic molecules or photochemically produced Fe(II) (Kieber and Helz, 1992; 50 Saputro et al., 2014; D'Arcy et al., 2016). The Cr(III) that is produced can be removed (i) at 51 low salinities due to the flocculation of organic materials (Cranston and Murray, 1980; Mayer 52 and Schick, 1981; Campbell and Yeats, 1984), or (ii) by adsorption onto sedimentary particles 53 (Mayer and Schick, 1981; Abu-Saba and Flegal, 1995; Jonas and Millward, 2010). As Cr(III) 54 is expected to be enriched in lighter isotopes (Ellis et al., 2002; Zink et al., 2010; Døssing et al., 2011; Kitchen et al., 2012), this may drive δ^{53} Cr values in the remaining Cr(VI) that is delivered to the oceans to higher values (Bonnand et al., 2013; Paulukat et al., 2015; D'Arcy et al., 2016).

To date, Cr isotope behaviour has only been studied in the Connecticut estuary, USA (Sun et al., 2019). This study revealed that there were no systematic variations in δ^{53} Cr (or Cr concentration) as a function of salinity, although Cr speciation was not determined. Given the diverse range of Cr reactions that can occur in estuarine mixing zones, further investigation is needed to assess their potential for modification of δ^{53} Cr. This study reports the results of a systematic investigation of δ^{53} Cr values and Cr speciation with respect to salinity in the Beaulieu River and estuary (UK).

65 2. Sampling location

The Beaulieu River is located in the New Forest National Park (UK), and drains into the strait between mainland England and the Isle of Wight known as the Solent (Figure 2). The protected status of the National Park means that its catchment is sparsely populated and there is little industry, so levels of pollution in the Beaulieu River are minimal compared to most UK rivers.

71 The New Forest primarily consists of heathlands, woodlands, bogs and wetlands. Surficial 72 deposits are predominantly the Paleogene Barton and Headon Group sands, although 73 Quaternary alluvia, clays and silts are found around the river and promote the growth of forest 74 patches (Gilkes 1968). There are also tidal flats around the mouth of the estuary. The upper 75 limit of the estuary is marked by a sluice gate, upstream of which is a small lake (the Mill Dam; 76 Figure 2) that sometimes contains a small component of seawater. The depth of the river does 77 not usually exceed ~1m whereas the depth of the estuary changes considerably with the state 78 of the tide, varying between ~0.1 and 4m. The freshwater residence time in the estuary is ~7 days (Fang, 1995), which is similar to the residence time of water in the Solent (~6.25 days; 79 80 Dyer and Lasta King 1975).

81 Concentrations of dissolved oxygen are high (up to 370µmol L⁻¹) throughout the river, and pH 82 varies between 6.5 and 7.8 (Hopwood et al. 2014). Due to the nature of the vegetation in the 83 catchment, the river waters have high levels of dissolved organic carbon (DOC), and estuarine waters can have DOC concentrations of >1mg L⁻¹ even at high salinities (S = >24) (Moore et 84 al. 1979). Concentrations of dissolved iron (dFe) in the river are highly variable (8-21µM), and 85 86 they fall significantly as the river water mixes with seawater, because Fe is incorporated into 87 organic flocculates or forms Fe oxyhydroxide precipitates (Holliday and Liss, 1976; Fang, 88 1995; Hopwood et al., 2014). Up to ~50% of Fe at low salinities ($S = \langle 5 \rangle$ is present as Fe(II) 89 (Hopwood et al., 2014), which is an effective reductant for Cr(VI) (Døssing et al., 2011; Kitchen 90 et al., 2012).

The total dissolved concentration of Cr in the Solent adjacent to the Beaulieu estuary (also 91 92 known as Southampton Water) is ~1.3-1.8nM (Bonnand et al., 2013), although higher 93 concentrations (up to 5nM) have been recorded in the Beaulieu River itself (Dolamore-Frank, 94 1984). In a previous study, dissolved Cr appeared to behave conservatively during estuarine 95 mixing, although loss of Cr(VI) from solution was suggested at high salinities, possibly as a 96 result of reduction of Cr(VI) by DOC and removal of the Cr(III) that formed (Dolamore-Frank, 97 1984). Nevertheless, concentrations of particulate Cr were low even though dissolved 98 concentrations of Cr(III) were relatively high, indicating that adsorption of this Cr(III) onto 99 particulate material was not an important process in the estuary (Dolamore-Frank, 1984). The 100 δ^{53} Cr value of total dissolved Cr in Southampton Water at salinities of 30 and higher appears 101 to be consistent over time at $1.50 \pm 0.02\%$, (n = 7; Bonnand et al. 2013; Goring-Harford et al. 102 2018) though the Cr isotopic compositions of river and estuarine waters of the Beaulieu have 103 not hitherto been measured.

104 **3. Methods**

105 **3.1. Sampling**

106 All containers and sampling/filtration equipment were acid cleaned before use. A river water 107 endmember sample was taken from the King's Hat Enclosure on 20th March 2016 and the

estuary was sampled around high tide on 22nd March 2016 from the R.V. Bill Conway. A rigid-108 109 inflatable boat (RIB) was used to access the shallowest waters, but the low to intermediate 110 salinities (S = 1-14) were inaccessible due to low rainfall in the preceding week, and the rapid 111 mixing between freshwater and seawater at the sluice gate. A second set of samples targeting 112 a lower salinity range was therefore taken on 5th October 2016 from the river, Mill Dam and 113 upper part of the estuary waters during the early stages of the flood tide. Rainfall in the week 114 preceding each sampling date were 0.0mm for March and 8.8mm for October (measured by 115 a Davis Vantage Pro Plus weather station; http://www.tottonweather.co.uk/data-116 summary/).

All samples were recovered from 0.1-0.5m depth below the surface using a 1L bottle either by hand or by deploying a weighted metal free bottle holder. The 1L aliquots were homogenised in a larger container (5-6L total sample volume) and a subsample of this was taken immediately to measure salinity, pH and temperature (WTW Measurement Systems Inc. 340i handheld multimeter).

River sediment pore waters were sampled by inserting 80mm diameter plastic core liners into the river bed at King's Hat Enclosure in April 2017. Cores were immediately transported back to the National Oceanography Centre Southampton (NOCS) and placed in a constant temperature laboratory at 10°C (to approximately match the temperature of the river water) before processing.

3.2. Determination of Cr concentration and Cr isotopic composition of river and
 estuarine waters

All acids used in sample processing were thermally distilled, while the other chemicals were
Romil UpA, Fluka TraceSELECT Ultra, or Aristar® Ultra grade and contributed negligible Cr
to the total procedural blank.

Water samples were filtered within 24 hours of collection in a class 100 clean laboratory using
 pre-rinsed Sartorius Sartobran 300 capsule filters (0.45µm). A ⁵⁰Cr+⁵⁴Cr(III) double spike was

134 added to samples being processed for isotopic analysis to account for any fractionation 135 incurred during sample processing (full details of the spike are given in Goring-Harford et al 136 2018). At least 100ng of Cr, at a concentration of ~30 ppb in the analyte, was required for 137 isotopic analysis. Because the Cr concentration of river waters and seawater is much lower 138 (typically ~0.1ppb), it was necessary to pre-concentrate Cr. To do this we employed a Fe(II) 139 co-precipitation method (Bonnand et al. 2013; Scheiderich et al. 2015; Goring-Harford et al. 140 2018). Samples collected in March 2016 were preserved by acidification to pH <2 using 2ml 141 L^{-1} of sub-boiled HCl prior to Fe(II) precipitation (except for the aliquots taken for Cr(III) 142 analysis). The October 2016 samples were precipitated with Fe(II) on the day of filtration 143 (within ~8 hours). Both approaches are expected to successfully capture all inorganic Cr as 144 Cr(III) adsorption to container walls is prevented both by low pH conditions prior to spiking and 145 by prompt co-precipitation after collection; adsorption is not thought to be important for Cr(VI) 146 (Gaillardet et al. 2003).

147 The pH of the river water samples (~3L volume) was adjusted to pH 8-9 approximately 24 hours after the double spike was added. Total dissolved inorganic chromium (Cr_T, defined as 148 149 Cr(III) + Cr(VI)) was then removed from solution using an Fe(II) hydroxide precipitate (made 150 from 2mM ammonium Fe(II) sulphate, Sigma-Aldrich batch 04728LI, 10ml L⁻¹ of sample) that 151 converts any Cr(VI) to Cr(III) and quantitatively removes the Cr(III) in the form of a Fe(III)-152 Cr(III) precipitate (Shigematsu et al., 1977; Cranston and Murray, 1978; Dolamore-Frank, 153 1984; Jeandel and Minster, 1984). The precipitate was then separated by vacuum filtration 154 using acid cleaned Millipore Omnipore filters (1 µm). A two-stage ion exchange 155 chromatography procedure was carried out to remove the Fe and residual salts using the 156 Biorad AG1-X8 and AG50-X12 resins respectively (Bonnand et al., 2013), and any remaining 157 organic material was oxidised using H₂O₂. The Cr isotopic composition of the purified Cr 158 sample-spike mixture was determined using a Thermo Fisher Neptune multicollector 159 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (MC-ICP-MS) in medium resolution mode. 160 Newton-Raphson deconvolution and isotope dilution calculations were used to calculate

161 δ^{53} Cr_T and Cr_T respectively. Raw data were corrected for instrumental drift and the total 162 procedural blank contribution, which mainly came from the Fe precipitate and typically 163 constituted <10% of the total Cr analysed (blank δ^{53} Cr_T = -0.34 ± 0.32‰ 2SD, n = 6). Repeat 164 analyses of the NBS979 standard, normalised to the daily average NBS979 value, yielded an 165 analytical reproducibility of ±0.04‰ (n = 344, 2SD). The external reproducibility of co-166 precipitated samples, determined from multiple analyses of the OSIL salinity standard (n = 6), 167 was better than ±0.11‰ (Goring-Harford et al., 2018).

168 It is important to note that this technique is not expected to collect organically bound dissolved 169 Cr (Cr_{ORG}), as this fraction is thought to be resistant to reduction and adsorption (Nakayama 170 et al., 1981; Abu-Saba and Flegal, 1995). By contrast, previously published analyses of δ^{53} Cr 171 in river waters have been obtained from samples that were pre-concentrated by evaporation; 172 a technique considered to capture Cr_{T+ORG} (Frei et al., 2014; Paulukat et al., 2015; D'Arcy et 173 al., 2016). Nevertheless, a wide range of organic complexes with different binding strengths 174 are present in the Beaulieu River (Hopwood et al., 2015), and our Fe co-precipitation method 175 may capture weakly complexed Cr_{ORG}, thus Cr_T values reported in this study are considered 176 to be operationally defined. Filtered aliquots of two samples (B1 and B2) were analysed after 177 UV irradiation for ~3 hours in LDPE bottles using a UV box containing 4 × G20T10 lamps, in 178 an attempt to oxidise any Cr_{ORG} and assess the potential contribution of this fraction to the 179 total dissolved Cr pool.

180 **3.3. Determination of Cr speciation in river and estuarine waters**

Dissolved Cr(III) concentrations were measured using a modified version of the Fe coprecipitation technique, wherein Fe(III) hydroxide was used in place of Fe(II) hydroxide to collect Cr(III) only. Cr(III) is strongly adsorbed to Fe(III) hydroxide, whereas Cr(VI) is not, allowing effective separation of the two species (Shigematsu et al., 1977; Cranston and Murray, 1978; Dolamore-Frank, 1984; Jeandel and Minster, 1984). As for Cr_T, Cr(III) values are considered operationally defined because there is potential to collect some weakly bound Cr_{ORG}. A 500 mL sub-sample for Cr(III) analysis was taken from the bulk 5-6L sample and

filtered, spiked and treated with the Fe(III) hydroxide precipitate (3 mL) either in a class 100 clean laboratory at NOCS or on board the R.V. *Bill Conway*. The Fe(III) solution was prepared in the same manner as the Fe(II) solution described in Section 3.2, except it was allowed to oxidise for 1 week with occasional shaking. As the proportions of Cr(III) and Cr(VI) in natural water samples may change rapidly after sample collection (Kingston et al., 1998), coprecipitation was done within 4 hours of sample collection. Blank solutions of Milli-Q water were processed alongside the samples.

195 The ⁵⁰Cr+⁵⁴Cr double spike was replaced with a ⁵³Cr(III) single spike for Cr(III) analysis and 196 isotope dilution calculations were made using the ⁵²Cr/⁵³Cr ratio. The lowest analytical error 197 occurs when the ⁵²Cr/⁵³Cr ratio is 0.1 - 3.5 (Bedson, 2007); all samples had ratios of 0.1 -1.1. Despite the lack of isobaric interferences on ⁵²Cr and ⁵³Cr, large quantities of residual Fe 198 199 and salts will interfere with ICP-MS analysis so an ion exchange procedure similar to that described above was used to purify the Cr fraction. ⁵²Cr/⁵³Cr ratios were then measured on an 200 201 Element 2 ICP-MS. The accuracy of this procedure was tested by processing Cr(III) standards 202 (NBS979) and mixed Cr(III) + Cr(VI) standards (NBS979 and potassium chromate, Fluka 203 TraceCERT®) in the same way as samples. Cr(VI) concentrations were subsequently 204 calculated by subtracting Cr(III) from Cr_T.

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5 3.4. Analysis of dissolved iron concentrations

206 Total dissolved iron concentrations in the <0.45µm fraction were measured using the ferrozine 207 method (Stookey, 1970). Approximately 5mL of each sample was filtered through pre-cleaned 208 0.45µm syringe filters (Millipore Millex) within 4 hours of collection. 3mL aliguots of the filtered 209 water were immediately pipetted into vials pre-loaded with 0.2mL of 5mM ferrozine and 0.2mL 210 of 10mM ascorbic acid. A series of Fe standards (0-50µM, made with ammonium Fe(II) 211 sulphate) were treated in the same way. Under these conditions all Fe (Fe(II) + Fe(III)) is 212 converted to Fe(II) that reacts to form a purple complex with ferrozine. The method collects 213 inorganic Fe as well as organically complexed Fe, except for the most strongly bound Fe 214 complexes (Hopwood et al., 2014). Fe concentrations were determined using a Unicom 8625

UV/Visible spectrometer set to measure absorbance at 562nm. A 4cm cell was used to
maximise sensitivity and the detection limit was 0.13µM.

3.5. Processing of push cores and sampling of pore waters

218 Profiles of dissolved oxygen were measured for two of the four push cores using an optical 219 oxygen meter (Pyroscience FirestingO2 with OX50 needle-type sensor) mounted on a 220 micromanipulator (Pyroscience MU1). The uppermost 5cm of sediment from each core was 221 then centrifuged to extract the pore water. Pore waters were combined and centrifuged once 222 more; co-precipitation with Fe was not necessary. The pore waters were then vacuum filtered 223 through pre-cleaned 0.45µm membrane filters (Whatman Polycarbonate). Organic material 224 was oxidised by addition of 0.2mL H₂O₂ and refluxing in 1mL of agua regia at 130°C for \sim 24 225 hours. Any precipitate was digested by refluxing in 0.5mL of hydrogen fluoride at 170°C for 4 226 days. The samples were then dissolved in 3mL of 7M HCl and dried before being passed 227 through the ion chromatography procedure. The total procedural blank was ~3 ng, almost 228 entirely contributed by the filter $(2.4 \pm 0.8 \text{ ng}, \text{n} = 3)$. This is less than 1% of the Cr processed 229 and is therefore considered negligible.

230 **4. Results**

231 4.1. Method validation

232 It is essential that equilibration between natural Cr in the sample and Cr in the spike is 233 achieved in order to produce accurate data, because the yield of Cr is <100% (9 - 60% in 234 samples with $S \leq 10$, and 60 - 85% in samples with $S \geq 10$). Equilibration is effective in 235 seawater samples (Jeandel and Minster, 1984; Bonnand et al., 2013; Scheiderich et al., 2015; 236 Goring-Harford et al., 2018), but to verify that this was also the case for low salinity samples, 237 we tested an archived Beaulieu river water sample (S = 0) that had not been acidified for Cr_T , Cr(III) and Cr_{T+ORG} using the ⁵³Cr spike, yielding concentrations of 0.63 nmol kg⁻¹, 0.37 nmol 238 kg⁻¹ and 0.73 nmol kg⁻¹ respectively. To obtain an independent Cr_{T+ORG} value, two more 239 aliquots were simply dried down and treated with H₂O₂ to eliminate organic matter before 240 241 analysis on the Element 2. The Cr_{T+ORG} values of these samples (0.71 ± 0.09 nmol kg⁻¹ 2SD, n=2) were within error of the spiked and co-precipitated sample. Thus, this investigation demonstrates that: (i) spike equilibration is effective in low salinity waters containing a mixture of Cr(III) and Cr(VI); (ii) Cr_{ORG} is effectively released by UV irradiation; and (iii) all Cr species have been determined by our analyses. Apart from its atomic mass, the ⁵⁰⁺⁵⁴Cr spike is identical to the ⁵³Cr spike, so it is reasonable to assume that spike equilibration was also effective for Cr_T and δ^{53} Cr_T analyses.

248 For speciation analyses, the average total procedural blank for the samples that were partly 249 processed on board the R.V. Bill Conway was 0.08 ± 0.02nmol (2SD, n=2). This is within error 250 of our long term total procedural blank for samples processed in the clean laboratory (0.09 \pm 251 0.06nmol 2SD; n=13), implying that the samples were not compromised by handling outside 252 of the clean laboratory. Several authors have shown that Fe(III) co-precipitation is an effective 253 technique for measuring Cr(III) in natural waters, with or without employing an isotopic spike 254 (Shigematsu et al., 1977; Cranston and Murray, 1978; Dolamore-Frank, 1984; Jeandel and 255 Minster, 1984). To check that the method is capable of producing accurate Cr(III) 256 concentrations with our ⁵³Cr spike, Cr(III) and mixed Cr(III) + Cr(VI) standards in Milli-Q water 257 were tested (Table 2). The Cr(III) standards gave values within $\pm 4\%$ of the expected value, 258 demonstrating that little Cr(III) was lost to container walls before sample-spike equilibration 259 occurred. Mixed Cr(III) + Cr(VI) standards had a slightly higher uncertainty of ±10% (Table 1). 260 The higher uncertainty of the mixed standards may reflect speciation changes prior to addition 261 of the Fe precipitate, as this was not done until ~24 hours after spiking. In an effort to 262 circumvent this issue, the Fe precipitate was added to river water and estuary samples within 4 hours of sample collection; nevertheless, the uncertainty of Cr(III), Cr(VI) and Cr_T 263 264 measurements are conservatively reported in this study as $\pm 10\%$. In support of this, sample 265 B13 was processed twice and yielded an average Cr(III) concentration of 0.25nmol kg⁻¹ \pm 7%.

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4.2. Cr and δ⁵³Cr_T variation in estuarine waters

The range of Cr_T values for samples collected in March 2016 (1.64 to 1.89 nmol kg⁻¹; Table 2) was similar to that measured previously for this location (1.64 to 5.05nmol kg⁻¹; Bonnand et al.

269 2013; Dolamore-Frank 1984), whereas the October samples had very low Cr_{T} (0.66 to 1.03) 270 nmol kg⁻¹). On both sampling dates Cr_T decreased slightly with salinity. A negative correlation was observed between Cr(III) and salinity (Figure 3C; $R^2 = 0.95$, p < 10⁻⁷ for March, $R^2 = 0.57$, 271 p < 0.1 for October), whereas Cr(VI) showed a positive correlation (Figure 3D; $R^2 = 0.87$, p < 0.1272 273 10^{-5} for March, R² = 0.24, p < 0.4 for October). Approximately 15% of Cr_T was found to be present as Cr(III) in high salinity waters (S = >29), compared with up to 55% in low salinity 274 waters (S = <5). The δ^{53} Cr_T values (-0.59 to 1.68‰) increased linearly with increasing salinity 275 (Figure 3E; $R^2 = 0.98$, p < 10⁻¹⁰ for March, $R^2 = 0.84$, p < 0.02 for October). Assuming that the 276 relationship between salinity and δ^{53} Cr_T is linear, even at very low salinity (see Section 5.1), 277 then the extrapolated δ^{53} Cr_T value of the river endmember at S = 0 was the same in March 278 $(\delta^{53}Cr_{T-CALCULATED} = -0.43 \pm 0.06\%)$ and October $(\delta^{53}Cr_{T-CALCULATED} = -0.34 \pm 0.13\%)$. 279

280 **4.3. Cr associated with organic material**

Tests performed using the ⁵³Cr single spike method demonstrated that UV irradiation did not contribute any significant Cr to the total procedural blank, as the average UV irradiated blank $(0.06 \pm 0.03$ nmol, n = 3) was within error of the long term procedural blank (0.09 ± 0.06nmol; n=13).

Water samples B1 and B2 irradiated with UV light had higher dissolved Cr concentrations (Cr_{T+ORG}) compared to non-irradiated aliquots, indicating that at least 18% of the Cr in low to mid salinity waters was organically bound (Table 3). The UV-irradiated samples also had lower δ^{53} Cr_{T+ORG} compared to δ^{53} Cr_T in non-irradiated samples, which implies that the Cr_{ORG} fraction has a lower δ^{53} Cr composition than the Cr_T fraction. The δ^{53} Cr value of Cr_{ORG} is given by:

290
$$\delta^{53} \text{Cr}_{\text{ORG}} = \frac{\left(\delta^{53} \text{Cr}_{\text{T}+\text{ORG}} - (\text{F}_{\text{T}} \times \delta^{53} \text{Cr}_{\text{T}})\right)}{\text{F}_{\text{ORG}}}$$

291 Where $F_T = Cr_T/Cr_{T+ORG}$ and $F_{ORG} = Cr_{ORG}/Cr_{T+ORG}$. B1 and B2 yield $\delta^{53}Cr_{ORG}$ values of -292 0.75‰ and -0.11‰, respectively (Table 3).

4.4. Cr concentration and Cr isotopic composition of river sediment pore waters

The sediment core-top waters contained 230-260 μ M of dissolved O₂, and the pH was 6.9 at approximately 1cm depth below the river bed (measured in one core only). Oxygen profiles (Figure 4) revealed a shallow oxygen penetration depth of 2.9 ± 1.7mm (2SD) below the sediment-water interface. Cr_T concentrations of pore waters from the two cores were 100 and 120nmol kg⁻¹ and δ^{53} Cr_{T+ORG} values were 0.06 ± 0.05‰ and 0.13 ± 0.05‰ respectively. These analyses included any Cr_{ORG} in the pore waters as the Fe co-precipitation method was not used.

301 **5. Discussion**

302 **5.1. Behaviour of Cr and Cr isotopes during estuarine mixing**

303 Concentrations of Cr_T in samples collected in October were significantly lower than in March, 304 and compared to previous measurements (Dolamore-Frank, 1984). Dilution of surface water 305 Cr may have played a part as there was more rainfall (8.8 mm) in October, however this cannot 306 explain a reduction of ~50% in Cr_T . Another explanation is that a greater proportion of 307 dissolved Cr(III) was contained in the organic fraction (which is not captured by our Fe co-308 precipitation method) due to the release of dissolved organic material in the autumn following 309 the decomposition of deciduous tree leaves; this would have affected even the high salinity 310 sample (B20, S = 29.6) because it was taken from a well vegetated part of the river (Figure 311 2). Organic molecules from leaf litter leachates have been shown to strongly bind copper in 312 the early stages of decomposition because microbes transform or consume the most effective 313 organic ligands (proteins and polyphenol-like compounds) over time (Cuss and Gueguen, 314 2012). It is possible that a similar situation applies to Cr. In support of this, large amounts of 315 foam were observed on the river surface in October, suggesting that concentrations of organic 316 surfactants were high.

Figure 3A provides evidence for the removal of dissolved iron at low salinities in the Beaulieu Estuary as observed in previous studies (Holliday and Liss, 1976; Fang, 1995), which is thought to reflect the incorporation of Fe into flocculated organic particles (Sholkovitz et al.,

320 1978; Moore et al., 1979; Hopwood et al., 2014). However, no relationship was observed 321 between Cr_T and dFe concentrations at low salinities ($R^2 = 0.01$ for October), suggesting that 322 inorganic Cr species were unaffected by the flocculation of organic material during the 323 transition from river to estuary.

Concentrations of Cr(VI), Cr(III) and δ^{53} Cr_T exhibited linear relationships with salinity on both 324 325 sampling dates, whilst Cr_T showed little variation with salinity because the river and seawater 326 endmembers had similar Cr_T concentrations (Figure 3B-E). Re-release of Cr from particulate 327 material at high salinities has previously been observed in both the Beaulieu estuary 328 (Dolamore-Frank, 1984) and the Connecticut estuary (Sun et al., 2019), but there was no 329 increase in Cr_T that would suggest a similar mechanism in this case. Furthermore, the relationship between δ^{53} Cr_T and salinity was much stronger (R² = 0.98 and 0.84 for March and 330 October respectively; Figure 3E) than that between $\delta^{53}Cr_T$ and Cr_T (R² = 0.24 and 0.00 for 331 332 March and October respectively; Figure 3F), strongly suggesting that salinity, rather than reduction and removal of isotopically light Cr(III), exerts the main control on δ^{53} Cr_T. The 333 distributions of Cr(VI), Cr(III) and δ^{53} Cr_T in the Beaulieu estuary are therefore thought to be 334 335 principally controlled by simple mixing between a high Cr(III)/low Cr(VI), low δ^{53} Cr_T river water 336 endmember and a low Cr(III)/high Cr(VI), high δ^{53} Cr_T seawater endmember. This is supported by our mixing model (Figure 5; see Sections 5.2 and 5.3), where river and seawater 337 338 endmember values for Cr(III), Cr(VI) and δ^{53} Cr_T for March have been calculated by linear 339 extrapolation, and intermediate values calculated by adding the proportions contributed by the 340 endmembers; there is good agreement between model and measured values. These findings 341 contrast with those from the Connecticut estuary, where Cr removal onto suspended 342 particulate material and into sediments at low to moderate salinities appeared to be associated 343 with Cr isotope fractionation (Sun et al., 2019).

It is possible that removal of Cr(III) and/or Cr(VI) occurs at very low salinities (<0.5), because sample B1 (which was taken from further upstream than the other samples), had a much higher Cr_{T} concentration (5.05nmol kg⁻¹) than the other samples. Reduction of Cr(VI) and

subsequent removal of the Cr(III) that forms would drive the δ^{53} Cr_T composition of the 347 remaining dissolved Cr to a higher value because the fractionation factors for Cr(VI) reduction 348 by Fe(II) or DOC, the most abundant reductants in the Beaulieu River system, are large ($\Delta_{Cr(VI)}$ -349 350 $C_{r(III)} = 3.6$ to 4.2‰ and 3.1‰ respectively; Døssing et al. 2011; Kitchen et al. 2012). Figure 5A 351 models the δ^{53} Cr_T value of remaining dissolved Cr in the Beaulieu estuary for March, 352 assuming that all of the Cr(III) in sample B1 (3.21nmol kg⁻¹, 64% of the Cr_T) was produced by 353 reduction of Cr(VI), and that this Cr(III) was subsequently removed at S = <0.5, followed by conservative mixing at higher salinities. It is clear that this would result in much higher $\delta^{53}Cr_T$ 354 355 values than those observed in the estuary, which instead fall along a conservative mixing line with a river water endmember δ^{53} Cr_{T-CALCULATED} value of -0.39‰ (see Section 5.2). Therefore, 356 357 if Cr removal does occur, it must be associated with no, or minimal, isotopic fractionation.

358

5.2. Controls on the Cr concentration and Cr isotopic composition of the river

359

water endmember

360 The variation in Cr_T and $\delta^{53}Cr_T$ values is higher in the lower salinity samples that were collected from upstream of the sluice gate ($S = \le 14.5$; Figure 3). In particular, samples B1 and 361 362 B17 have high δ^{53} Cr_T, high Cr_T and a low proportion of Cr(III) relative to samples of similar 363 salinity that may be indicative of input of Cr from a different source. Nevertheless, overall there is a linear relationship between δ^{53} Cr_T and salinity, so the average δ^{53} Cr_T value of the river 364 water endmember can be estimated by extrapolating the regression line to S = 0. The 365 366 estimated δ^{53} Cr_T value of the river water endmember, based on both the March and October 367 data, is -0.39 ± 0.08 %, lower than the range determined for most other rivers to date (Figure 1). It is also lower than the δ^{53} Cr value of crustal rocks (-0.12 ± 0.10‰; Schoenberg et al. 368 369 2008), and the δ^{53} Cr_{T+ORG} values of pore waters in Beaulieu River bed sediments (0.06 to 370 0.13%). Although Cr isotope fractionation during oxidative weathering is poorly characterised, 371 it is expected to produce aqueous Cr(VI) that has a higher δ^{53} Cr value than the crustal value 372 (e.g. Frei et al. 2014; D'Arcy et al. 2016), thus oxidative weathering cannot be the principal control on the $\delta^{\rm 53}Cr_{\rm T}$ value of the Beaulieu River. 373

374 Chromium can also be released into solution via dissolution of sedimentary Fe-Cr (oxy)hydroxides under anoxic conditions (Rigaud et al., 2013). The oxic-anoxic boundary is 375 located close to the sediment-water interface in the Beaulieu River (Figure 4), thus given the 376 high concentration of dissolved Cr_{T+ORG} in the sediment pore waters (100-120nmol kg⁻¹), 377 diffusion of dissolved Cr(III) derived from the dissolution of Fe-Cr (oxy)hydroxides could be an 378 important source of Cr into the Beaulieu river. Chromium contained in (oxy)hydroxides is 379 380 expected to be enriched in lighter Cr isotopes (Døssing et al., 2011; Kitchen et al., 2012), so this mechanism may also account for the low $\delta^{53}Cr_T$ values in the Beaulieu river endmember. 381 382 Analyses of sediment pore waters from the Beaulieu do not support this scenario, however, as their δ^{53} Cr_{T+ORG} values (0.06‰ and 0.13‰) were higher than that of the river water 383 endmember ($\delta^{53}Cr_{T-CALCULATED} = -0.39\%$; measured values as low as -0.59‰). Instead, we 384 385 suggest that the δ^{53} Cr_T value of Beaulieu River water is primarily controlled by the presence 386 of organic ligands (Figure 6). Mobile organic Cr(III) species are likely to form in the soil solution 387 (Icopini and Long, 2002; Beck et al., 2008; Rigaud et al., 2013), and may be released into river 388 waters. Formation of these organic Cr(III) complexes can occur via inorganic or biological 389 reduction of Cr(VI), which may be derived from oxidation of Cr(III) in the uppermost oxic 390 sediments, or from Cr(VI) that has formed via the diffusion and oxidation of dissolved Cr(III) 391 originating from the underlying anoxic zone. Reduction of Cr(VI) by both mechanisms is 392 associated with large isotopic fractionation factors ($\Delta_{Cr(VI)-Cr(III)} = 1.8 - 4.5\%$ for various bacteria 393 and 3.1‰ for organic molecules; Sikora et al. 2008; Han et al. 2012; Kitchen et al. 2012; Basu 394 et al. 2014). Thus, organic Cr(III) complexes produced in this way are likely to have a low δ^{53} Cr value, consistent with our findings for δ^{53} Cr_{ORG} in the Beaulieu (-0.8 to -0.1‰; Table 3). 395 396 Dissociation of these low δ^{53} Cr(III) bearing complexes by photochemical reactions (Kieber and 397 Helz, 1992) would also explain why δ^{53} Cr_T values were low and the proportion of dissolved 398 Cr(III) was high in low salinity waters, and particularly as we sampled very shallow waters on clear, sunny days. In support of this hypothesis, it is notable that the δ^{53} Cr_{T+ORG} value of the 399 400 UV irradiated sample B1 (0.06‰) was very similar to that of the pore waters (0.06-0.13‰) that 401 were sampled in very close proximity; it appears that the river water directly reflects the pore water Cr source when Cr_{ORG} is taken into account. The changing proportion of Cr released
into solution *via* this process *versus* Cr released due to oxidative weathering may also explain
the higher scatter in the data at low salinities.

405 5.3. Controls on the Cr concentration and Cr isotopic composition of the seawater 406 endmember

407 The estimated δ^{53} Cr_T value of the coastal seawater endmember at S = 35 (1.6 ± 0.4‰; 408 calculated using March and October data) is similar to those previously measured in shelf 409 waters (typically 1.3 to 1.5‰, S = 30 to 34; Bonnand et al. 2013; Scheiderich et al. 2015; 410 Goring-Harford et al. 2018), but higher than the values typically measured in oxic deep water 411 masses (1.0 to 1.2%; Bonnand et al. 2013; Scheiderich et al. 2015; Goring-Harford et al. 2018). This likely reflects internal cycling of Cr within coastal and shelf waters, e.g. the 412 reduction of Cr(VI) to Cr(III) in surface waters followed by removal onto biogenic particles, and 413 414 the release of Cr from sedimentary sources (Scheiderich et al., 2015; Goring-Harford et al., 2018), Because the volume of the Beaulieu River is far smaller than that of Southampton 415 Water and its Cr_T is low, the low $\delta^{53}Cr_T$ of the Beaulieu River does not have a significant impact 416 417 Southampton Water δ^{53} Cr_T values. In other estuarine systems, however, high salinity shelf 418 waters (which typically have similar Cr concentrations to Southampton Water, ~2 nM; Scheiderich et al. 2015; Goring-Harford et al. 2018) may be significantly impacted by riverine 419 δ^{53} Cr_T if there is a larger riverine Cr input. Figure 7 shows how δ^{53} Cr_T values in high salinity 420 waters would be modified by a river with similar δ^{53} Cr_T to the Beaulieu and a higher Cr_T of 421 422 15nM (similar to, for example, the Humber River; Comber and Gardner 2003). In this situation, 423 the riverine input would still be significantly impacting δ^{53} Cr_T at S = 34 (1.18‰), causing it to 424 be over 0.4‰ lower than the seawater endmember (S = 35, $\delta^{53}Cr_T = 1.60\%$), whereas for a 425 river like the Beaulieu (with much lower Cr_T), the difference is <0.1‰. Thus, rivers with high 426 Cr_T may influence the $\delta^{53}Cr$ value of high salinity estuarine waters, and possibly even the 427 adjacent continental shelf waters if the river and seawater endmembers also have very different δ^{53} Cr values. 428

429 **5.4.** Implications for the δ^{53} Cr redox proxy

430 Whilst our data provide no insight as to the behaviour of organically bound Cr in estuaries, 431 significant quantities of Cr_{ORG} are unlikely to be transferred to the open ocean because DOC 432 concentrations are extremely low in the open ocean (~40-100µmol C L⁻¹, compared to up to 433 ~5mmol C L⁻¹ in the Beaulieu River; e.g. Miller and Zepp 1995; Hansell and Carlson 1998). Furthermore, organically bound Cr in the Beaulieu River is <20% of the total Cr, even though 434 435 it has far higher DOC concentrations than most other rivers (Moore et al., 1979). Thus, Cr is 436 most likely to be transferred to the ocean in its inorganic forms, with the composition of the 437 dissolved Cr(III) and Cr(VI) species controlling the 'baseline' δ^{53} Cr value of seawater on a 438 global scale (though modifications will occur in the ocean itself; Scheiderich et al. 2015; 439 Goring-Harford et al. 2018; Bruggmann et al. 2019). Our study shows that inorganic forms of 440 dissolved Cr behave conservatively during estuarine mixing in the Beaulieu and that Cr(VI) is 441 not reduced to Cr(III). If this were true for all estuaries, the global average riverine δ^{53} Cr value 442 would be faithfully transferred to the ocean. However, our study also reveals that anoxic, rather 443 than oxidative, weathering processes are likely to be the principal source of Cr to the Beaulieu 444 River, and that the δ^{53} Cr value of the river water endmember is controlled by complexation 445 with organic ligands. The operation of fractionating processes beside oxidative weathering 446 potentially complicates the interpretation of seawater δ^{53} Cr values in terms of the level of 447 atmospheric oxygenation, although we note that on a global scale, the input of Cr from 448 oxidative weathering in mafic catchments is likely to be far more important source of Cr to the 449 oceans than from organic rich, non-mafic catchments (McClain and Maher, 2016).

Finally, in a scenario where riverine δ^{53} Cr values are dissimilar to those of seawater, and especially where the riverine Cr concentration is high, δ^{53} Cr values of shelf waters may be significantly influenced by input of riverine Cr (Figure 7). As a result, shelf sediments are likely to be poor candidates for redox proxy studies, because δ^{53} Cr values will reflect a mixture of local and global scale processes.

455 **6. Conclusions**

456 In contrast to most river systems that have relatively high δ^{53} Cr values due to release of Cr(VI) 457 by oxidative weathering processes, dissolved Cr in the Beaulieu River is characterised by low 458 δ^{53} Cr_T values (-0.59 to 0.24‰). We suggest that in this DOC-rich river system, pore water 459 Cr(VI) is partly back-reduced to Cr(III) by organic or Fe(II) reductants, and the formation of organic complexes keeps the Cr(III) in solution. Our results also demonstrated that Cr(III), 460 461 Cr(VI) and Cr isotopes behave conservatively in the estuarine mixing zone and, even in the 462 presence of high concentrations of dFe and DOC, we found no evidence for reduction of Cr(VI) to Cr(III). 463

464 Knowledge of the behaviour of Cr and Cr isotopes in rivers and during estuarine mixing is 465 essential for the interpretation of the Cr isotope redox proxy. We have shown that oxidative 466 weathering is not the only source of dissolved Cr in organic-rich river systems, and that input 467 of Cr from anoxic weathering processes contributes Cr with a distinctly lower δ^{53} Cr value (~ -468 0.4‰). At the global scale, however, such organic-rich rivers are unlikely to be an important source of dissolved Cr to the oceans. While inorganic riverine δ^{53} Cr values appear to be 469 470 unmodified during estuarine mixing, the estimated δ^{53} Cr value of the seawater endmember 471 $(1.6 \pm 0.4\%)$ is higher than the range reported to date for most deep water masses (1.0-1.2%). which supports existing evidence that cycling of Cr within coastal and shelf seas may modify 472 473 the δ^{53} Cr value of seawater (Scheiderich et al., 2015; Goring-Harford et al., 2018). Internal 474 biogeochemical cycling of oceanic Cr therefore needs to be taken into consideration in the 475 interpretation of the seawater δ^{53} Cr record preserved in authigenic marine sediments in terms 476 of oxidative weathering. We also show that even in estuaries where Cr behaves 477 conservatively, δ^{53} Cr values of shelf waters can be modified by input of riverine Cr. The 478 sedimentary record of seawater δ^{53} Cr in these settings may therefore reflect local, rather than 479 global, processes.

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733 Figure captions

Figure 1. δ^{53} Cr data for unpolluted rivers that drain into the ocean (¹D'Arcy et al. 2016; ²Wu et al. 2017; ³Frei et al. 2014). Horizontal grey bar shows δ^{53} Cr values for silicate crust; orange bar shows typical δ^{53} Cr and Cr concentration of seawater (Bonnand et al., 2013; Scheiderich et al., 2015; Paulukat et al., 2016).

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- Figure 2. Sampling locations. Darker blue areas are intertidal flats.
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Figure 3. Relationship between salinity and (A) dFe, (B) Cr_T , (C) Cr(III) concentration, (D) Cr(VI) concentration, and (E) $\delta^{53}Cr_T$ (where error bars represent the external reproducibility; 0.11‰). (F) Relationship between Cr_T and $\delta^{53}Cr_T$. Error bars for Cr_T , Cr(VI) and Cr(III) are 10%. The March 20th sample (B1) is excluded from A and from the trend lines in B-E because it is thought to be an outlier (see text for details).

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Figure 4. Combined O_2 profile for river sediment push cores (n=3). Solid horizontal lines show the standard deviation from the mean value (none for -2.0 to -0.2mm as only one set of measurements taken). Dotted line is the sediment-water interface and dashed line is the average oxic-anoxic boundary depth.

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Figure 5. (A) Modelled evolution of the δ^{53} Cr value of Cr remaining in solution after reductive removal of Cr(VI) in sample B1 at S = <0.5, as a function of salinity. Sample B1 and B14 δ^{53} Cr and Cr_T values used to represent river and seawater endmembers respectively. River endmember δ^{53} Cr for conservative mixing line = -0.39‰ (see text for details). (B) Modelled evolution of Cr(VI)/Cr(III) for conservative mixing. River (S = 0) and seawater (S = 35) endmember Cr(VI) and Cr(III) values extrapolated from March data.

Figure 6. Schematic diagram showing potential mechanisms for Cr release and redox transformations within sediments/soils in the Beaulieu River catchment (¹Frei et al. 2014; ²D'Arcy et al. 2016; ³Wu et al. 2017).

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Figure 7. Modelled evolution of the δ^{53} Cr value of Cr during conservative mixing between a seawater endmember with Cr_T = 1.6 nM and δ^{53} Cr = 1.6‰, and river water endmembers with various Cr_T and δ^{53} Cr values.

















Standard type	Calculated Cr(III) (nmol kg ⁻¹)	Measured Cr(III) (nmol kg ⁻¹)	Difference (%)
Cr(III) only	11.00	11.23	2.0
	10.77	11.19	3.8
	10.58	10.48	-2.0
	10.04	10.44	1.9
	10.49	10.78	+2.8
	10.45	10.23	-2.1
Cr(III) + Cr(VI)	4.75	5.19	8.6
(1:1 mix)	4.81	5.23	8.0
	5.77	5.25	-9.7
	5.77	5.23	-10.0

Table 1. Results of analysis of Cr(III) concentration by Fe(III) pre-concentration and addition of $^{53}\text{Cr-enriched}$ spike.

Sampling date	Sample	Salinity (<i>S</i>)	рН	Temperature (°C)	δ ⁵³ Cr (‰)	2SD	Cr⊤ (nmol kg⁻¹)	Cr(III) (nmol kg ⁻¹)	Cr(VI) (nmol kg ⁻¹)	dFe (µM)
20 th March	B1	0.0	7.68	8.6	0.24	0.02	5.05	3.21	1.83	12.63
2016										
22 nd March 2016	B2	14.5	7.81	10.4	0.57	0.04	1.89	1.02	0.87	0.68
	B3	17.5	7.95	9.6	0.66	0.01	1.77	0.88	0.89	0.17
	B4	20.0	8.10	11.3	0.89	0.00	1.70	0.70	1.01	0.30
	B5	19.3	8.09	10.2	0.79	0.06	1.66	0.81	0.85	0.17
	B6	21.1	8.09	10.3	0.89	0.02	1.74	0.67	1.07	0.59
	B7	15.9	7.97	11.1	0.59	0.04	1.76	0.92	0.84	0.39
	B8	18.2	8.05	10.3	0.72	0.02	1.81	0.72	1.09	0.34
	B9	18.9	8.05	11.4	0.74	0.06	1.78	0.85	0.92	BDL
	B10	24.3	8.11	10.7	1.07	0.11	1.78	0.53	1.25	BDL
	B11	26.0	8.08	10.3	1.29	0.06	1.74	0.45	1.29	BDL
	B12	28.2	8.12	10.3	1.38	0.04	1.75	0.49	1.26	BDL
	B13	30.4	8.14	10.3	1.44	0.02	1.77	0.25	1.52	BDL
	B14	31.8	8.14	9.9	1.68	0.04	1.64	0.26	1.39	BDL
5 th October	D4C	10.0	7 40	447	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.04	0.02	4.07
2016	B12	10.2	7.40	14.7	0.02	0.06	0.84	0.21	0.63	1.37
	B16	0.5	7.04	13.3	-0.59	0.05	0.66	0.28	0.38	7.55
	B17	2.8	7.68	14.7	0.14	0.01	1.03	0.49	0.54	4.22
	B18	3.1	7.31	13.7	-0.16	0.07	0.87	0.48	0.39	4.76
	B19	8.8	7.37	15.7	0.00	0.01	0.99	0.28	0.70	1.57
	B20	29.6	8.17	17.1	0.98	0.04	0.70	0.11	0.59	BDL

Table 2. Composition of water samples from the Beaulieu River and Beaulieu estuary. BDL = Below Detection Limit.

Sample	Cr⊤ + Cr _{org} (nmol kg⁻¹)	Cr _{org} (nmol kg ⁻¹)	Cr _{org} (%)	δ ⁵³ Cr Cr _T + Cr _{ORG} (‰)	2SD	δ ⁵³ Cr Cr _{ORG} calculated (‰)
B1	6.17	1.13	18	0.06	0.01	-0.75
B2	2.52	0.63	25	0.40	0.01	-0.11

Table 3. Results for UV irradiated samples.